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Role of Cultural Knowledge in Native English-Speakers' (NESTs) Teaching: "A critical review"

Hasan Alwadi

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University of Bahrain, Kingdom of Bahrain, Bahrain

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Abstract:

Teachers' knowledge has recently become a new area of interest in TESOL. The understanding of the main elements that constitute TESOL teachers' knowledge of their teaching context such as the linguistic, methodological and cultural knowledge is essential to understand the main factors that may, in some cases, negatively affect these teachers' motivation, attitudes and perception towards teaching a second/foreign language. This study attempts at investigating the cultural perspective which participates in forming a group of the native teachers' of English knowledge in particular and its consequences on their teaching with their learners in the Bahraini ESL/EFL context. The aim of this study therefore is to problematise the native teachers' cultural knowledge and its reflection on their contextual practice.

1. Introduction:

Teachers' knowledge in language education has always been represented with a linear focus on the language learners. Nunan (1989) suggests that teachers' behaviour should be studied in relation to the learners since teachers are viewed as facilitators of learning in the classroom. Krashen (1982) also states in his theory of language acquisition that "[there] should be apparent by now that second language teaching should focus on encouraging acquisition, on providing input that stimulates the subconscious language acquisition potential all normal human beings have"(p.33). Several studies have called to focus on the learners by considering them the core of the language learning process. Cutrone (1999) found that EFL teachers need to learn how to identify how their students really feel about learning in order to make them feel comfortable with and serious about learning a foreign language like English. Other several EFL professionals (e.g. Long, 1997; Couto & Towersey, 1992) strongly advocate inviting the language teachers to become more 'aware' of their learners since they seem to be the most influential factor which can be used to encourage the educational improvement. This all has influenced the language teachers' knowledge to be a learner-centred approach when teaching a foreign language.

In fact, it seems that the teacher's role as a dominator in the notion of 'teacher's knowledge' has not received the attention and focus it deserves till recently when the debate in teacher education started about the main elements that constitute the teacher's knowledge in the area of teaching English to speakers of other languages (TESOL here after). Johnson (1999) states that teachers' knowledge has been viewed as in the past educational research as something that was almost external to the teacher and an extra thing to add to the teachers' expertise by focusing on the learners and what constitute their attitudes, motivation and how they perceive learning (p.18). However, what teachers know about teaching is viewed nowadays as equivalent in importance to the learners' views and inseparable from the other factors that affect learning the target language (Freeman & Johnson, 1998). According to (Freeman & Johnson, 1998), the essence of the new knowledge-base should focus on the teacher and the activities he or she does within the context he or she is serving because these practices are the centre of teacher education rather than the theoretical knowledge about teaching.

Based on the above, designing teacher education programmes has become one of the most controversial issues that are not addressed enough in TESOL literature. Troudi (2005) mentions in this regard that the debate in designing teacher education programmes now is of whether they should prepare 'language teachers' or 'language educators' (p.118). This critical presentation attracts my attention to have more focus on the teachers' knowledge by exploring it from other perspectives. One of these perspectives is the teacher's cultural knowledge of the real context they are serving in.

2. Literature review:

2.1. Cultural knowledge in EFL context:

A review of the L2/FL literature shows an evidence of the cultural influence on the teacher's professional performance. Jones (2003) did an evaluative case study on 10 newly qualified teachers to explore to what extent the teacher's personal beliefs and values affect his or her teaching performance. The findings prove that the participants

indicated that critical incidents and key experiences in their day-to-day work as teachers affected the way in which they perceived their practice as teachers and the profession as a whole. The researcher recommends that teachers not only need to become experts in the technical aspects of teaching, but need also to reconcile their personal values and beliefs with the reality of their teaching.

Barratt & Kontra (2000) conducted two studies that directly surveyed the clients of native-speaking teachers, their students and their EFL host colleagues. The study findings show that the main concern of the EFL students and non-native colleagues is the narrowness of the native teachers' knowledge of the host culture, which limits these teachers' teaching with poor teaching styles due to their ignorance of the basic cultural differences, their systematic way to deal with student errors and lack of organisation.

This focus on understanding the relationship between foreign language and cultural interactions has increased the importance of culture in L2 and FL education. This reality is reflected in the result of emerging two conflicting pedagogical views in teaching English as a foreign language (EFL) abroad. One, promoted chiefly by those who believe that English teaching should be done with reference to the socio-cultural norms and values of an English-speaking country, with the purpose of developing bilingual and bicultural individuals. The other, advocated by those who think that the teaching of English should be independent of its nationality-bound cultural context, with a view to creating bilingual yet not necessarily bicultural people. Lado (1994) maintains that if the native culture habits are transferred when learning a foreign culture, it is obvious that, by comparing the culture systems, possible trouble spots can be predicted. Since good structural description of the target cultures that may require attention may often not be found ready-made, the foreign-language teacher is required to compare the two cultures, the target culture with the native culture, by using, for example the informant approach coupled with systematic observation of the target culture in its normal undisturbed operation. Sleeter (2001) states in her review of the data-based research studies on pre-service teacher preparation for multicultural purposes that figuring out how to populate the teaching profession with excellent multicultural and culturally responsive teachers should now be the most concern for most English language teachers.

However, foreign-language teachers often play a dual role with regard to developing cultural knowledge. While investigating the cultural aspects of their target learners, they too are expected to play the role of informants of their cultural habits to the learners (Traynor, 1995). In fact, it may be crucial for foreign language learners of English to conform to certain norms of English-speakers' cultures and ways of life; it may be equally argued that it is important that the language teachers, particularly the native speaker teachers, themselves are made aware of their students' sensitive aspects of cultural differences (AbdulMajeed, 2005). The ignorance of such cultural features may result in cultural conflicts, creating attitudinal difficulties, and leading to a certain degree of incapacity to learn the target language appropriately. Accordingly, gaining cultural knowledge of both the target language and the target learners plays a crucial part in establishing positive motivations and attitudes towards the teaching process, which is, obviously, an integral part of the learning process (Dornye, 2001).

It is believed that teachers, in general, play a crucial part in the overall life of educational system, in their relationships with their students that extend well beyond their own classrooms to the community outside. Therefore, it is expected from them to be of such personality and character that they are able to command the respect of their students, not only by their knowledge of what they teach and their ability to make it interesting, but also by the respect which they show for their students' cultural customs and values, their genuine interest and curiosity about what their students say and think, and the quality of their professional concern for individuals (Al-Mutawa, 1999).

Although the generalization made above applies to all teachers, foreign-language teachers, due to the nature of their subject matter, face a greater possibility of attitudinal and cultural conflicts with their students. McDonough (1986) maintains that the language teachers who find themselves caught between possibly hostile cultures, or cast as the representative of a resented or resisted culture, have immense problems in coping with many intangible pressures. However, any lack of an adequate understanding of the background and the cultural differences of their students, and the lack of an insight into possible attitudinal problems, is not a tolerable excuse on the part of the professional teachers. Clouston (1997) stresses that once properly informed, teachers can forestall potential problems if they are aware of the cultural differences and areas of conflict, while remaining sensitive to the ethic values of their students. However, besides understanding the cultural features of the target learners, foreign language teachers also bear a great responsibility of familiarizing them with cultural aspects of the target language. To achieve this goal, the teachers must be aware of both cultures so that they can successfully introduce the new culture to the students. Without sufficient understanding, cultural explanation and acceptance may prove impossible.

2.2. Context of teaching and learning English in Bahrain:

Although the interaction with the target language groups is not really avoidable in the Bahraini context, because the English-speaking expatriate community on the island constitutes 25% of the total population, these groups, the teachers in this regard, normally practise a type of cultural and social practices that require the Bahraini students to, not only to accept but also to gain these cultural and social norms when they are attempting to acquire the foreign language. This is noticed in the way the students have been complaining about the non-Bahraini teachers' actions such as the teachers' insistence to give them quizzes and presentations in the times that clash with these students' religious occasions. This type of action on the part of the non-native teacher is considered to be against the principle of acculturation in the EFL/ESL context. According to Schumann (1978) acculturation is a significant factor in second language acquisition. If this is so, most Bahraini learners of English will be severely handicapped by their native teachers of English mono-cultural orientation in the native teachers' attempts not to allow their students to acquire a working knowledge of English. Vickie (1991) considered studying the new language itself to be rewarding to the learner, and not so much his or her integration into another cultural group or the achievement of particular utilitarian aims.

Based on the above, a critical investigation to the aspects of the cultural differences in the area of learning English as a foreign language is needed to enable researchers and

practitioners in this field to become able enough to establish an orientation for a better understanding of the non-native EFL context.

3. The study:

The study sought to address the following critical research question: *Why native-speaker teachers face obstacles/challenges when they seek knowledge about the cultural background of their students in Bahrain and how is their knowledge reflected in their teaching?* The study is informed by the critical framework of research that attempts to critically understand the social and cultural reproductions in the educational context by locating these variables, which constitute both the teacher's and the learner's knowledge, in their context and showing how classroom is precisely a part of its society (Pennycook, 2001). Therefore, the decision to use the critical methodology sprang from the ontological belief "to change the world for the better by having better understanding of our practices, and to empower disadvantaged groups in society", (Crocker, 1998:5). The most legitimate way to generate data in accordance to these ontological properties is through problematising the contextual practice of the target group, the native-speaker teachers here, and contextualise the factors and variables that govern their context (Cohen & Manion, 2003; Crotty, 2003). The best way to achieve this is by gaining access to these native teachers' of English in Bahrain accounts. The research tools I therefore selected for this critical study - an open-ended questionnaire and interviews - were designed to assess me collect informative qualitative data (Holiday, 2001; Richards, 2003).

3.1. Methodology & instrumentation:

Open-ended questionnaires were implemented in the first phase of the study because it offered me the opportunity to cover a range of topics I had on my agenda such as reflecting on the real context of the native speaker teachers in Bahrain and having a better understanding of their experience in society. The second reason to use open ended questions was, as Oppenheim (1996) points out, giving freedom to the participants to express their thoughts in their own words uninfluenced by a predetermined set of replies.

The analysis of the questionnaire data was followed by semi-structured interviews with the participants. I chose semi-structured interviews because they offered me the opportunity to gain more access to their real personal context with the additional advantages that they enabled me to make on-the-spot assessments and follow-up on specific responses in the narrative or sequence provided by the participants. The interviews were conducted after explaining to the participants how I would utilize the results and after receiving their informed consent; moreover, I made every possible effort to protect the participants' anonymity. Each participant received a transcript of the interview so as to be able to comment in any way he/she wished. The study was piloted once with three teachers in order to reveal if there was a need for some questionnaire items to be rephrased in order to become more understandable.

In order to organize, retrieve and analyse the data, I examined the information provided in the questionnaires as closely as possible by reading and rereading the replies. My first objective was to bring the most meaningful segments of the data together under categories. In order to do that I went through the data and identified broad categories from fragments of the participants' words that have common elements. I used the same technique with the interview data. I also cross-referenced

the questionnaire and interview data seeking new relations among them. This procedure enabled me to link all the data fragments to particular ideas or concepts which might have resulted in the final categorization in the data (Guba and Lincoln, 1986).

3.2. Participants:

Ten native-speaker teachers of English, four males and six females took part in this study. The criteria for choosing them were based on both purposiveness and accessibility. First of all, three of the participants were Americans while the other seven were British; one of them was from Brazilian origin and they all have been teaching in Bahrain for more than 10 years. This fits the issue under investigation in this study, which was the native-speakers' knowledge of their non-native context; since they represent the stereotype of the English speaker and also that they have been working in Bahrain for a period of time which is considered not short. In addition, they all are colleagues as they belong to the English department and so it was easy to arrange with them for the questionnaires and the interviews.

3.3. Limitations of the study:

There are three possible limitations in this study. First, the number of participants wasn't large and hence the results cannot be totally generalized to other groups of ELTs in Bahrain. Secondly, although there were many stakeholders involved in the teaching-learning process of English as a foreign language (e.g., non-native teachers of English 'Bahrainis', the educational advisor, Head of English department ...etc.) this study investigated only one dimension of it, the aspects of cultural knowledge of the native-speaker ELTs. Finally, a common drawback of questionnaire research might have been the difficulty of ensuring that the answers from the respondents were highly reliable. However, I hope that the present study will shed some light on having a better understanding of some aspects that construct the cultural knowledge of the native teachers in the context of teaching and learning English as a foreign language.

3.5. Data analysis:

The data were collected by analysing both; the participants' responses for each item included in the questionnaire interviews content by breaking down the participants' answers into quotations to be classified in certain categories. In addition, the participants' responses to the questions were quantified to detect cultural aspects of difference in the process of learning-teaching English as a foreign language in the Bahraini context.

4. Results and discussion

4.1 Overview of the results

Following the methodology described in section 4.1 I ended up with the categories presented in Table 1 below:

Table (1): Overview of the categories

1. Importance of teacher knowledge
2. Native-speaker teachers' perceptions of their context
2.1 Society as confined
2.2 Halo of the native-speaker
3. Sources of insight into the Bahraini context
4. Obstacles towards understanding the learners' context
4.1 Stereotype of the native-speaker teacher
4.2 Religious aspects
5. Knowledge needs of the native-speaker teacher
5.1 Social / religious events
5.2 Suitability of teaching materials and techniques to current context
5.2. educational system (co-education)
5.4. Relations with the learners
6. Teachers' perception of themselves

The results are based on questionnaire responses and the interviewees' views.

1. Importance of teacher knowledge:

From the beginning, the participants highlight in the importance of teacher knowledge of the teaching context a foreigner teacher is working in for two reasons. First, they recognise its contribution to understand more in depth some other aspects of the society such as the cultural background of their target learners and their colleagues and secondly they believe it promotes better interaction between the teachers and students. Teacher 4 articulates the first view when he explains how cultural knowledge helps him understand some of his students' problems:

"Yes, it took me 2 – 3 weeks to understand that in Bahrain female students are either too shy or too reluctant to approach the teacher, if he is male, because they haven't been used to be taught by a male teacher."

Teacher 3 develops his colleague's idea further:

"I think it's [teacher knowledge] a vital part, because we [as foreigners in the society] should be informed about all the society's cultural aspects so that we can have insight into our students thoughts and opinions."

2. Native-speaker teachers' perceptions of their context:

2.1 Society as confined:

The questionnaire results show that the study participants find themselves isolated from the context they work in. This is evident in the participants' questionnaire responses that all the teachers do not categorise their context as open but close. This is shown in Table 2:

Table (2): Perceptions of the Bahraini Context

Comment	Frequency
Conservative	4
Isolated	3
"Stands out strongly as conservative..."	3
"Admire the native-speaker (foreigners)."	7
Receptive	1

2.2. Halo of the native-speaker:

Participants provide information about how they are perceived and represented as native-speaker teachers by their students and Bahraini colleagues. In fact, most of the participants' responses indicate their belief as 'super-powered' in their context of teaching. This can be seen in Table 3:

Table (3): Participants' Perceptions of themselves as Native-Speakers

Category	Number of comments
As a Necessity	4
Experts	3
Foreigner	3

3. Sources of insight into the Bahraini context:

Participants also gave information about the sources of insight that they can have to learn about their context. A summary of their responses is shown in Table 4:

Table (4): Native-Speakers' Sources of Insight into the Bahraini Context

Source	Number of Teachers
Media	2
Personal efforts	8
Help by Bahrainis	-
Sponsor's role	-

The dominant sources appear to be the NS teachers' personal efforts plus media as shown in the table above. This shows that the vast majority of the participants, 7 teachers, agree that it is only their personal attempts through which they can get more information about the society's customs and culture. Non of the participants mentions that he or she has received help from the natives to help them gain more knowledge about the actual reality they are working in or even their sponsors, which are the educational institutions, have helped to achieve this either through an induction week or by a tour guide around the country. Only two teachers stated that media helped them to know more about the society and its culture. Teacher 6 claims that he couldn't

have spoken to his Bahraini colleagues until *"the end of the semester"* and Teacher 5 mentioned that she hasn't been given any background or idea about her *"students' background such as how they have learnt English in secondary school or even the students' actual level of English and the educational system."* In addition, some teachers, Teacher 6 & 4 explained that they thought *"Bahrain to be more open than the place [they] have come from as it seems more liberal"* but it turned to be similar to those places that it *"doesn't provide the outsiders with equal opportunities to learn and interact with the native people of the society, but instead create barriers."*

4. Obstacles towards understating learners' context:

This category includes critical comments made by the participants regarding the difficulties they face in their contextual practice. The three aspects of the cultural knowledge that received the participants' negative criticism are the ***stereotype image of them as native speakers***, the ***religious aspects*** in their context, and other ***general difficulties*** related to them as native-speakers (Table 5).

Table (5): Obstacles towards Understanding the Learners' Context

Aspect category	Number of comments
Stereotype image of the native speaker	9
Religious aspects	8
General difficulties	7

4.1. The Stereotype of the Native-Speaker Teacher:

It is interesting to note that a number of the study participants highlighted the issue of the native speaker teacher's image and how its stereotype affects the way they perceive their context of teaching. A comment from Teacher 5 seems to summarise these views:

"we are thought of as rude and careless!"

Teacher 7 provides an example of how his students view him as careless:

*"One day I asked my students why they were used to score low in English and quite number of them answered that it was **ME** [with surprise]who didn't give them a face! i.e. Never asked them to come to my office and had a short tutorial with them! "*

Another participant, Teacher 3 provides another aspect of the stereotype image of the native-speaker teacher:

"We [as NSs] are always seen as strict and non-negotiable in the way we [speaks on behalf of her NS colleagues] do not provide any details about the exam, always give marks with fractions."

Teacher 10 summarises the overall view of the native-speaker teacher:

"Unfortunately, native-speaker teacher [the foreigner] is viewed here [in the Bahraini context] as superior who always imposes his or her Western culture on the students of their context. Also, the NST is found as senseless and look down to his or her colleagues of Bahraini teachers."

4.2. Religious aspects:

Both questionnaires and interviews findings revealed that native-speaker teachers consider the religious issues as uneasy task for them to deal with when their students explain to or discuss with them. It seems that most of their attempts for explanation turn into defensive arguments, leading to a cultural clash with the inquiring teachers. The table below (Table 6) displays the common comments made by the participants:

Table (6): Participants Knowledge of the Religious Aspects

Religious aspect	Number of comments
The notion of 'Islam'	4
Fatalism	2
Taboos:	4

5. Knowledge needs of the Native-Speaker Teacher:

Participants' knowledge needs focus on five aspects of their teaching context culture; namely *social / religious events, suitability of teaching materials, educational system, and relations with the learners.*

5.1. Social / religious events:

A number of participants expressed their desire to know more about certain religious and social ceremonies in which certain cultural customs are practised such as Ramadan and the first ten days of the Arabic month Muharram 'Ashora'a mainly because they have noticed these events' affect on the learners' attendance and their assignments' submission.

Table (7): Required Knowledge of Social – Religious Events

Event	Number of comments
Ramadan	6
Ashora'a	9
The Hajj	5

The above events are echoed with justification in the words of Teacher 10:

" ... students' attendance and punctuality (arising from numerous reasons) and how to teach students the things

they feel belong to are very important and you cannot solve the one without having a look at the other simultaneously."

5.2. Suitability of teaching materials:

The kind of teaching materials that the vast majority of participants seem to in favour is the in-house made ones. In the words of Teacher 4:

"we could gather with our Bahraini colleagues and prepare the materials for our classes that suit their cultural and social values rather than exporting foreign books."

The above comment also reveals the first of two preferences expressed by the participants: Foreign teachers' active involvement. As Teacher 7 suggests:

".....foreign teachers [Europeans and Americans] should be involved more in the society they are working in; we can try something with our students and report on that."

The second preference is that the teaching materials should be linked to the students' contextual practice, in the form of *"simulating argumentative topics such as discussing critically the theme of polygamy and monogamy instead of discussing smoking or not skiingetc."* (Teacher 8), or *"the projection of videos"* (Teacher 1) but always in relation to *"students' context culture and values"* (Teacher 5).

5.3. The Educational System (Co-education):

Not surprisingly, if we look into the needs expressed in the previous section (5.1) that the participants feel the need to know more about the educational system in the governmental state schools because it reflects apart of the cultural and social norms and values of the society. In Bahrain as it is the case in the other Gulf states, the relationship between men and women are surrounded by many strict restrictions. Thus, although co-education is broadly accepted in the University of Bahrain, the only national university in the island, it is frequently criticised on both religious and traditional grounds. Therefore, public school graduates start their first experience with co-education at college. As of then, both male and female students find themselves in situations they have never encountered during their school years. Consequently, mixed activities often result in embarrassing situations. Teacher 7 states clearly how their lack of knowledge in this regard has affected their teaching:

"The educational system in public schools is mono-educational rather co-educational and so mixed class activities are better avoided."

Teacher 9 specifies what a western teacher should do:

"Western teachers must realise that terms like girlfriend, boyfriend and dating bear are very negative meanings to Arabs/Muslims."

It is that the dating reflects a relationship that is based on illegality and it is often regarded as a form of adultery. The term boy/girl friend immediately suggests a totally sinful relationship, worse than any other taboo. A native-speaker teacher add these constructs to his knowledge when assigning the class activities or distributing roles among his or her students.

5.4 Relations with the learners:

Since one of the participants' obstacles towards gaining sufficient knowledge about their context of teaching regards to the stereotype of the native-speaker as being 'superior', their preference for establishing human relations with their learners does not come as a surprise. Teacher 5 says:

"I would like to have human relations with my students to win their trust and remove any boundaries which might prevent us both from understanding each others correctly."

Teacher 4 agrees and also makes a suggestion:

"Students should be encouraged to invite their teachers to their ceremonial events ... cultural, social or religious..."

Regarding female students, participants find having relations with male students "would lead to get closer into the other gender's thoughts" (Teacher 9). Teacher 4 and 1 articulate very sharply on this:

"Having relations with students [female] should consider the religious customs and social values of this society"

6. Teachers' perception of themselves:

The results revealed interesting information about the participants' self perception, the final main category. Participants feel they lack visibility of their actual position and its role in the targeted context. This has led them to restrict themselves to a contradictory role of being recipient and imposers at the same time. To begin with, they view themselves as understandings to their context of teaching by being liberal and free from any preconceived ideas or constraints that might captive their interaction with their learners. On the other hand, they unavoidably show their imposition of their culture by coming over such cultural and social norms. As Teacher1 comments:

*"I find myself **open** to my current working context in the way I attempt to understand certain differences such as timing but also a '**fosterer**' of some social aspects from my culture ... I play both roles at the same time."*

Likewise, participants adopt an over-active role for themselves as educators. First, the word 'fosterer' appears several times throughout the data. A typical example is the comment made by Teacher 4:

*"...it's [Western culture] **the best example** we can inform our learners of gaining better practices and social skills ... and our colleagues of new methodology, new technologies and practical ideas ..."*

Teacher 10 also takes an over-active stand point:

*"I think native-speaker teacher agree that they have to expose their students to the 'Other culture' to get them to know **how it is developed** in many aspects from their own one."*

6. Implications

Participants consider their knowledge about their teaching context as a "vital part" (Teacher 3) that complements to their professional lives for a number of reasons. First, they can understand more closely their learners' needs and interests (Freeman & Johnson, 1998); and secondly, they find it a useful way to establish successful relationships with their students (Cutrone, 1999). As Teacher 6 points out:

"...every teacher needs to understand the whole situation [context] he or she is involved in, especially areas of differences because this understanding supports the foreigner language teacher with an insight into the problems of cultural distance."

Likewise, participants highlight another important element of teacher knowledge: Their perception of their context of teaching in terms of the nature of the society they work in and the representation of the native-speaker teachers within this frame. The effectiveness of the way teachers perceive their context is recently mentioned in the literature (Troudi, 2005, Atkinson, 1999, Kubato, 1999). More specifically, Jones (2003) states that teachers, particularly the newly qualified, endeavour to reconcile their personal values and beliefs with the reality of teaching. This can be achieved by negotiating a balance of professional autonomy and institutional conformity and by reconciling their personal beliefs and values with those expected by and of the profession. This view is echoed in the following comment by Teacher 3:

"I think the correct way as a native speaker is to adapt myself to the new norms and customs. I believe that we [native-speakers] need to view the society by its own people's eyes."

As far as the teachers' perceptions are concerned as a cornerstone of their holistic knowledge about their context, participants mention the available sources for them to gain insights about their current reality. These sources do not exceed limited personal efforts and media such as local TV and local English newspapers on the part of these outsiders to know more about the new context reality. This is opposite to what foreign language teachers should attempt to achieve. According to Al-Mutawa and Kailani (1999), maintaining the process of developing cultural insights for the language teachers should be both systematic and incidental, where cultural items are introduced gradually. Therefore, teachers should not only depend on the provided sources such as newspapers and some personal efforts. Instead, they have to constantly examine and recognize those cultural features that occur in their context and go advance in the process of learning about their teaching/learning reality by critically analyzing their experiences regularly. Teacher 7 seems to agree:

"I have tried myself to learn from my students what I feel I lack such as cultural aspects ... areas of similarities and differences and most importantly; how students and society look to and what they expect from native-speaker teachers ...and I find this the best way to get a full clear understanding of a foreigner teacher's own context."

Generally speaking, participants raised critical comments related to the obstacles they face when they want to develop their knowledge such as the native-speaker image and the religious aspects. One of the most voiced negative criticisms relates to the stereotype image of the native-speaker which is described as "*superior members*" (Teacher 10) and "*intolerant towards such behaviours*" (Teacher 9).

Holliday (1999) discusses the value of teacher's knowledge in terms of 'cultural knowledge' into two main categories; large and small cultures. That is; large culture refers to broad entities such as ethnicity, national and geographical boundaries...etc, while small culture concerns with the type of knowledge teachers develop about their students' learning in classroom context. The awareness that the teachers develop based on these two conceptualizations will help them to understand more their students' reality and actual needs. This view is echoed in the following comment:

"...understanding context of teaching is very important because it's a chance to learn more about the current context; we determine the main aspects that formulate our understanding, we try to control both of them and ourselves and finally make a form of reflection to stand on the areas of gap in order to fill it up." (Teacher10)

Another aspect of the obstacles of the native-speaker teachers that receives critical comments relates to the religious issues which are valued in general. However, this is an area where the findings contradict those preconceived ideas about the native-speaker or foreigner teachers who are thought to either prefer isolating themselves from the context they work in or try to impose their own culture on the others. In my research, participants show considerable preference for issues which have obvious reflections on their students' behaviour and thinking such as the notion of 'Islam' in general and other values relate to it like taboos and fatalism. Although this attempt includes curiosity, there is a notable absence of the native people cooperation as Teacher 10, points out:

"it's not that I would like to know more about my new work context all the time but I would like them – my students ... colleagues ...all society members to help us by acting openly with us as friends."

Advocating the above view, Jones (2003) states that seeking support is a usual demand for teachers exposed to a new context even if they are not newly graduates. Indeed, teachers in new situations are in favour of a collaborative model of induction, reflecting a strong desire to interact and communicate with other teachers, both experienced colleagues and peers alike, to share teaching issues as well as personal and social problems. Barratt and Kontra (2000) call for orientations for the new native-speaker teachers who are working in cultures other than their own. They claim that administrators, teachers and even students can be involved in the orientation, which should include a preparation in how to teach in cultural diversity context.

According to the knowledge needs, which the participants have raised, it can be said that it is possible in general that some Western teachers of English who are teaching in foreign countries, tend to use certain materials that are close to their own culture(s) and experiences. This might create problems with their students who might find some teaching materials inappropriate such as matters related to females since it represents

sensitive matter of honour to Arabs and Bedouin and Muslims in general (Johnson, 1992). Teacher 4 experience supports this claim:

"I faced such a challenge when I wanted to discuss with my students writing about someone they admire in the family such as their mothers, sisters ... aunts or any member of family as they consider it a sensitive matter and they are not allowed!!"

It is possible that a situation such as the above hinders the relation between the participants and their students *"finding no shared interest to communicate more"*, especially that *"exposing students to things they consider inappropriate will affect their trust to their teacher"* (Teacher 6). Study results reported in AbdulMajeed (2005), state that some Bahraini students indicate that in spite of the subjects' high level of motivation and appreciation for learning English in Bahrain, they have reservations against their foreign teachers (native-speaker teachers) because of their disability to understand and appreciate their needs and cultural values. Zamel in Atkinson (1999) also agrees with the above view that the main concern in teaching L2 that "teachers and researchers who see students as bound by their cultures may be trapped by their own cultural tendency to reduce, categorise, and generalise" (p.342)

The above argument may be applicable to the present context as, despite participants' explicit need for more active involvement on the level of social and cultural activities, I have a general impression that they reject both involvement and responsibility to gain better knowledge and understanding of their current context of teaching. First, a considerable number view their role as representatives of the "Western Culture" which fosters the target language learning. Moreover, they avoid taking any initiative, as they are unwilling to face critical issues and to make suggestions. Teacher 2 very accurately describes the situation:

"We [native speaker teachers] do not always take in mind the students' actions such as their objections and suggestions. On the other hand, they, the students, do not deal with us properly; we both are reluctant to criticise and discuss some issues openly."

In addition, the findings indicate that the participants perceive themselves as dual players of both (seekers of involvement and fosterers of a different culture). My feeling is that what underpins such attitude is the participants' involvement in their current context's culture, which makes it difficult to modify the way they 'function' within the current culture. If we accept Holliday's definition of small culture as:

"a dynamic, ongoing group process which operates in changing circumstances to enable group members to make sense of and operate meaningfully within those circumstances." (Holliday, 1999:248)

then it is not difficult to realise that there is a mindset constructed within the group of the native speaker teachers in the Bahraini context where they interact with the local cultural aspects and social values and attempt to influence on them at the same time.

In the light of the issues I discuss above, I consider the implications of the study results for the particular context.

7. Conclusion

This small-scale study set out to critically problematise the actual cultural knowledge of a group of English native-speaker teachers in the Bahraini context by pointing the challenges they face in their teaching-learning context and the function they do within this particular context. The findings indicate that although Bahraini society is thought of to be liberal and open, these native-speaker teachers still find it red area where foreigners are not allowed to get involved and participate with its people. The current perception of these participants of their actual context can be described as follows:

- Conservative
- Close
- Isolated

Within this context, the foreign teachers have no role towards what they deal or face. As a reaction to this, most perceive themselves as fosterers of the other culture; "Western culture" as it is the concept through which they can derive their power and promote for their teaching.

According to the participants, gaining better knowledge of their context should be based on the following principles:

- Cultural knowledge should be viewed as an integral aspect of the knowledge basis of teaching to be incorporated into practice on the part of native speaker teachers.
- Orientation or induction course about the society's culture and social customs and values should be provided on the part of the institution for the new foreigner teachers.
- Native colleagues should be encourage to help the native-speaker teachers comprehend and understand more in depth their students' needs and interests.
- Native – speaker teachers should be offered more opportunities to incorporate their views with their colleagues.

Overall, the situation calls for a better conceptualized cultural knowledge for the native speaker teachers in Bahrain, which requires them to become more actively involved in their current context.

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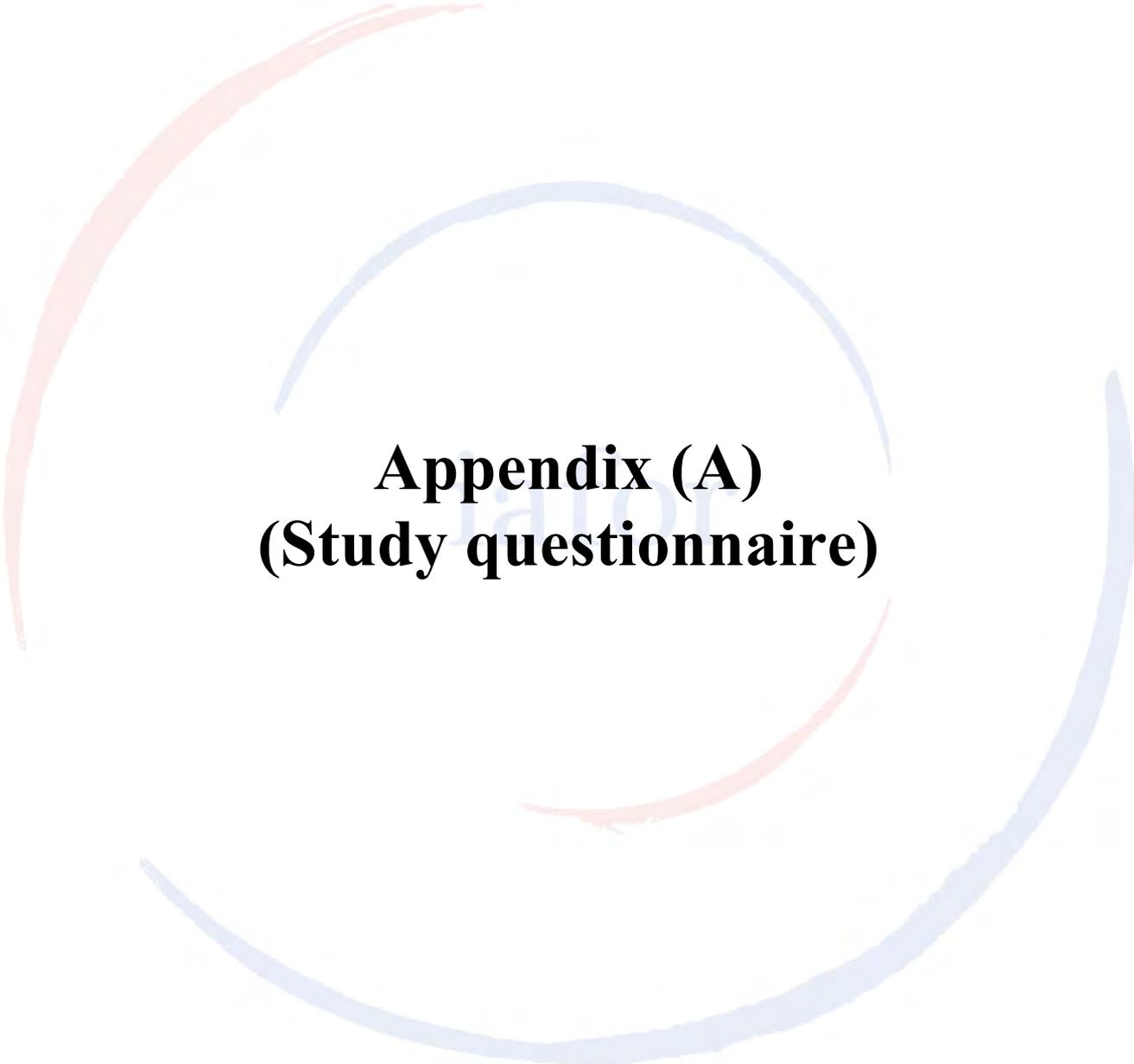
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Appendices

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Appendix (A)
(Study questionnaire)

Dear Teacher,

This questionnaire is a part of a research in the area of TESOL (i.e. Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages). It investigates the TESOL native-teachers' cultural knowledge of the context they are serving in.

The information you provide will be confidential and will not be used outside the research study.

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THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION

Questionnaire

Please complete the following details:

Name:	
Occupation :	
Year of service:	
Department:	

Qualifications: *(Please state)*

- B.A in English
- B.ED. in English
- M.A in Linguistics- TESOL
- PhD - Ed.d.
- Other *(Diplomaetc)*

QUESTIONS:

1. Do you consider the teacher's knowledge about his/her teaching context essential? Why?

2. What types of cultural differences have you encountered to be obstacles towards understanding your learners' culture during your career as an English language Teacher?

- 1) _____
- 2) _____
- 3) _____
- 4) _____
- 5) _____
- 6) _____

2. What are your general comments on the following Cultural aspects in the Bahraini society?

◆ *Islam:*

◆ *Sociability / friendships / Personal relationships*

◆ *Co-education*

◆ *Forbidden Conducts*

◆ *Teaching materials that match with society customs*

◆ *Conservative matters*

◆ *Religious issues*

◆ *Fasting*

◆ *Social / religious events*

3. Have you experienced any difficulties (e.g. personal or professional commitments, timingetc.) in relation to a cultural aspect?

4. What sort of cultural background would you like to learn about in terms of :

- ***Social events:***

- ***Taboos:***

- ***The view of the native teacher of English:***

- ***The perception towards the western society/culture:***

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Appendix (B)

(Study interview)

Interview Questions

1. How informed are you of the aspects of the Bahraini culture that you have been exposed to?

2. Do you consider knowing some cultural aspects of the society you are serving in an important part that will affect upon your professional life?
(*probe: relations with the learners, teaching methods, choice of content, assessment etc*)

3. How effective your knowledge of the cultural aspects of the Bahraini society has been until now?

4. The analysis of your questionnaires indicates considerable interest of your colleagues to gain more background about certain cultural aspects concerning topics (*will refer to the questionnaire results*). Do you agree with this?

"Worldwide Education": A Study of English in International Schools

Noel Christe

0010

The University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong

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Abstract:

This paper addresses methodological issues that emerge in the study of English as an international language, and argues for a more in-depth analysis of the specific socio-economic factors involved in the process of what is often simplistically regarded as linguistic globalization. The last decades have witnessed fierce debates over the legitimacy of cultural and capitalist imperialism, with one of the main issues concerning the endangerment of local cultures and linguistic identities. Nonetheless, proponents of this approach fail to offer a convincing analysis of key terms such as *culture* and *linguistic identity*. This is not to deny the role of (i) historical factors which have led to the recent predominant position of English as an international language, and (ii) the political issues within the linguistic debates surrounding it. Quite the contrary, their repercussions are of primary importance when it comes to locating the diverse *linguistic ecologies* (Mufwene 2004) in their respective temporal, geographical, economical and social contexts.

Altogether, this paper will focus on various components influencing the dynamics of languages in contact. It argues that diglossia (i.e.: languages in competition) is not necessarily prevailing over multilingualism and one does not abandon his identity when learning a new language. In the global context and despite regional proximity, all speakers eventually make linguistic choices according to their specific situation. This paper focuses on exploring the question of representation and language choice, drawing on a study of individuals in international schools where English is in interaction with other languages.

Introduction

English is the language with the highest quantity of scientific and academic publication, and the modern language of science and knowledge. The facts that the top universities on the planet are located in North America and the United Kingdom, and that the authorities regarding those rankings operate in English speaking countries seem to confirm and contribute to this hegemony. Times Higher Education (Reuters) is an almost uncontested world reference regarding academic charts. These rankings are based on evaluation of items such as *teaching, international outlook, industry income, research and citations* which together give an *overall score*. According to this source, of the 30th first universities listed for 2012, only 2, the Swiss EPFZ in Zurich and the Japanese Todai in Tokyo, are not in a country where English is the official language and the one of education. *International outlook* counts as 7.5% for the calculation for the overall grade and is an interesting item to contrast with the general position of a given university on the chart. It is based on the provenance of the staff, students and papers published with co-authors in other countries.

The Swiss Institute of Technology in Zurich Switzerland ranks 15th. It is in the German speaking part of a multilingual state where French and Italian are also official languages. However, English is also widely accepted and implemented as a medium for higher education. For instance, the website of Zurich Polytechnic University is both available in German and English and expresses that this school offer as many English classes as German ones (more than 200 of each), but only 15 courses in French and 6 in Italian, including language classes. Furthermore all courses outlines, even the French and Italian ones, are also available in English.

Tokyo University scores 30th and has an impressively good result considering the fact that it does relatively poorly (23%) in international outlook, a score which might downgrade its overall position. This seems to be linked to the fact that English is not its major medium of Education. However, on the English version of its website, Todai University advertises new international curricula as well as English classes, a move which might reflect positively on the forthcoming year's rankings. As a matter of fact, for an institution, there is a direct correlation between English Education and

1) International outlook

2) Access to top positions in the world rankings

To take another example, the University of Hong Kong which competes with Todai for the first place amongst Asian Universities is an institution where the use of English is mandatory. New postgraduates are told that if they are asked to attend English language classes, they should not be offended but consider it as an imperative in the international scientific context. In fact, the use of English is regulated by internal policies in order to ensure that all students from different provenances can understand, and teaching staff could be reported by participants if another language is used in the classroom, for example Chinese. Naturally, these policies don't apply to language classes where hetero-linguistic teaching methods are common and provide pedagogical resources.

However, the international context which creates a pressure for the adoption of English doesn't come without some antagonistic reactions. According to French CNRS specialist Dominique Wolton, English is also an idiom in which the academic texts originally written in other languages are the less translated. Considering this as an injustice, he declared in an interview that "the main traitors [to the cultural and linguistic diversity] are the scientists, who, in the name of the international community rally the dominant language which is

English [in order to be heard]” (Wolton 2008, my translation)¹. The argument often given as a support to resist a general Anglicization is the one of cultural protection. In other words, to resist English is seen, on individual, institutional and cultural levels as an act of resistance against an external domination. One might however be tempted to look closer at the assumptions supporting this so-called linguistic *quo* cultural diversity, and this is the purpose of this paper.

Here, my intention is to discuss influential positions regarding English today and present two opposite notions of linguistic ecology. My aim is to provide a convincing framework for the analysis of communicational practices in linguistically heterogeneous places. I believe that taken from a communicational and individual perspective, heterogeneous linguistic landscapes are not fundamentally different from apparently homogeneous ones in the sense that individuals adapt to and influence their communicative environment independently of pre-given linguistic codes. I also believe that languages and cultures are socially constructed categories, and not autonomous semiotic systems. I believe that the belief that the members of a group who speak the same language share a *linguistic identity*, defined, enacted and displayed through the use of languages or sub-languages (also called *-lects*) is misleading. The very idea of sharing *a language* is problematic and to infer cultures on this basis proceeds of a conceptual shortcut. Furthermore, against the structural essentialization, I support the idea promoted by Roy Harris (1981) that there are no essential laws or systematic organisation governing them.

The conflicting view, languages in contact and the study of culture, based on language

In the middle of the XIXth century, the colonial discipline of anthropology, influenced by Theodor Waitz’s Darwinist approach shifted its perspective from considering indigenous as “savages” to see them as “primitives”. This slight but radical shift in the representation of otherness was embracing an evolutionary framework which supported the idea that all humans come from the same origin, but differ in their level of evolution. In this respect, the European colonisers considered themselves as the most evolved human beings. Subsequently, the second half of the XIXth century saw the rise of ethnographic methodology. Theorists such as Franz Boas pioneered modern fieldwork techniques and rejected evolutionism in favour of cultural relativism. This involved the recognition of *the other* as simultaneously similar in nature and different in culture. The same framework has shaped the approach to linguistic diversity. Followers of Boas such as Sapir and Whorf, the latter being the prominent figure of *linguistic relativism* defended the belief the native language spoken by a community shapes their mind and worldviews. In other words, each language was then considered as an original system of thoughts. Following, the scholarly field of *languages in contact* owes its appellation to the title of Weinreich’s work, published in 1953. He defined his approach at the crossroads between linguistics and anthropology. However, he explained that the former discipline is clearly prevailing as “anthropologists seem to be growing more and more aware of the structuring of culture elements [...] and on this point they naturally look for guidance to linguistics” (1953:6). In other words, linguistics was chosen as a model, for the main reason that it already possessed a methodology. Weinreich further justified this transference by the fact that in linguistics, “descriptive techniques have gained “an objectivity and a precision far beyond that produced by other sciences of culture”” (Weinreich 1953:6).

¹ « La bataille pour la diversité culturelle est une bataille mondiale gigantesque. La diversité culturelle est avant tout une diversité linguistique. La Convention sur le respect de la diversité culturelle signée le 20 octobre 2005 par les pays membres de l’Unesco, et entrée en application depuis le mois de mars 2007, entend sauvegarder l’existence des diverses langues nationales et régionales. Dans cette bataille, les principaux traîtres sont les scientifiques, qui, au nom de la communauté internationale, se rallient à la langue dominante qu’est l’anglais»

In this approach, languages and cultures are seen as conceptually identical, constituted of discrete units organised systematically to form a whole.

The identification of culture with language was then theoretically and epistemologically grounded. Anthropology has increasingly preached critical de-centring of the researcher, and brought awareness and attention to this *other* as to another *self* (in the double understanding of possessing a reflexive faculty and to be identified with). In this context, the respect for other *cultures* as structured symbolic systems has increasingly gained importance.

Following this, and during the seventies, emerged influential works amongst which two are worth mentioning. These are

- *Languages in competition, dominance, diversity and decline*, 1987, by Ronald Wardhaugh

and

- *La guerre des langues et les politiques linguistiques*, 1987 by Louis-Jean Calvet

According to Robert Phillipson, who specifically focused on questions of linguistic domination “both [Wardhaugh and Calvet] described languages as living organisms which emerge, grow and prosper or die” (1996:99) as a result of the competition which opposes them to other languages. For Calvet, every contact between languages is necessarily a socio-linguistic war for communicational domination. In this respect, he described Esperanto as a “pacific illusion” (in Phillipson 1996:99).

If one assumes that languages and cultures are inter-related unique systems of meaning which automatically compete when they come to contact with each other, it follows that some are endangered while others are threatening them. This approach, coupled with a certain postcolonial ideological heritage gave rise to the concern of the preservation of linguistic diversity. It is furthermore supported by a belief coming from natural sciences in the inherent ecological value attributed to diversity. Within the contemporary attitudes about the cultural consequences of English as an international language, Robert Phillipson is a champion of this position. For him, “the British Empire has given way to the Empire of English” (1996:1). He devised the concept of *linguistic imperialism*, by which “*the dominance of English is asserted and maintained by the establishment and continuous reconstitution of structural and cultural inequalities between English and other languages.*” (Phillipson 1996:47 his italics) For him, English imposes the worldview of the core English-speaking countries via national institutions of international language promotion such as the British Council. As a consequence and due to the decreased value of their idiom, weakened communities have to embrace English or be exposed to an impoverished material and symbolic condition. In reaction to this injustice, Phillipson is the advocate of “linguistic human rights”, a right of the minorities to self linguistic determination. It has been adopted by UNESCO in 1996 as the *Universal Declaration of Linguistic Rights*, and is also known as *The Barcelona Declaration*. The “Declaration takes language communities and not States as its point of departure” (UNESCO Barcelona Declaration 1996:3). In its text, it is explained that reflecting in terms of States often leads to omit intra-national disparities. The first article defines a “*language community* [as] any human society [which] has developed a common language as a natural means of communication and cultural cohesion amongst its members” (UNESCO Barcelona Declaration 1996:4). We can see that the sociolinguistic category of the speech community serves as an unproblematic theoretical reference, and that here again, the cultural component is the major argument in promoting a protective attitude toward languages.

In my opinion proponents of this approach grounded in reality fail to offer a convincing analysis of key terms such as *culture* and *linguistic identity*. Taking ideal homogeneous linguistic-cultural communities, while identifying the unreliability of the model at the level of states, doesn't provide with a convincing alternative. Indeed, it is known that speech communities are not homogeneous and unproblematic group of speakers, but a convenient sociolinguistic category which artificially obliterates internal disparities in the distribution of practices and meaning amongst its members. To me it is the result of a conceptual misconception which derives from the wrong belief in languages as autonomous and "natural" entities. In this regards, I strongly diverge from Weinreich's claim that the structural study of language provides a satisfactory framework for the study of culture. Instead of internal-structural analysis, I believe that they should be approached from an ecological perspective.

Linguistic ecology, two approaches

However, there are two opposite ways of understanding linguistic ecology. In line with Phillipson, Peter Mühlhäusler claims that the ecological linguistic changes in the Pacific region resulting from the dominant presence of western languages are damageable to the local communities as they result in "forceful assimilation of minority groups" (Mühlhäusler 1996: 336). For him, "it is the last chance for western linguists to learn from the numerous alternatives philosophical and conceptual systems that may be hidden in the small languages of the Pacific area" (Mühlhäusler 1996: 338). The idea of "conceptual systems" implies their relative fixity, an idealization necessary to their structural study. As a structuralist, Mühlhäusler sees languages as objects which, like pieces of a museum, should be preserved for their exotic-archaeological value.

Against this view, Salikoko Mufwene has greatly contributed to the re-definition of the concept of *linguistic ecology*. For him, to think of languages in general and abstract terms is unsatisfactory. Starting from a rejection of languages as organisms and over-arching entities, he adopts a bottom-up approach in which the choices made by the speakers are given a major place. Instead of homogenous blocs, he prefers to conceptualize languages in terms of the sums of all the speakers, each possessing their idiolect (individual language). The linguistic choices of the speakers are, for him, *ecological* as they are influenced by the environment in which they both consider their specific place and the options at their disposal. Mufwene argues for an ecological understanding of language change which strongly differs from Mühlhäusler's. For Mufwene, a language is not a static system which expresses an original worldview, and no language is worthy of protective isolation. On the contrary, his vision is essentially dynamic. For Mufwene "linguistic change is speaker-based, [and] communal languages are abstract extrapolations from idiolects." (Mufwene 2003:14). Speakers select their occurrences from a pool of features available in their environment. The features summed together constitute the language and the choices of the users influence its evolution.

Field study

In order to illustrate the idea of the feature selection against the code view, I will show a few examples selected from fieldwork I conducted in the counties of Vaud and Geneva, located in the French speaking part of Switzerland. I carried out interviews in institutions where English is the official language of the workplace. Switzerland is a multilingual State but Vaud and Geneva are officially monolingual counties. Another worth mentioning element: the informants in the companies I visited are not a disregarded, exploited, cheap labour force. Arguably are here by choice. They even consider themselves as relatively privileged both

financially and symbolically, as working in an international company is something that they tend to value positively.

Against the code view, code-mixing and monolingual misunderstanding

Consider the following extract, which could typically be analysed as an example of code-switching.

I: When you are in a place where you have participants or staff members or faculty sometimes you can hear Danish.

F: Danish ok

I: **Voilà!**

F: French I guess you hear a lot

I: French a lot yes, in my office, Ch** is next to me sometimes has calls probably with Bulgaria or I don't know, where he calls and he speaks another language that I cannot understand that is probably a north...

F: A Nordic language.

I: **Bulgare ou Polonais** I don't know exactly.

F: Ok, so mostly French, English and then some other languages but not very represented. You don't have like pools of German speakers around you?

I: No and it would be probably small conversations that people would have together like informal or because they are two people from the same country because it's very international here. (Trans03:3:84)

If the informant, when making the effort to speak in English, has the French word in mind and doesn't know its English equivalent, it might appear as a switch for an external observant, but in the process of communication, the informant, who was engaging in an activity conceptually oriented toward a set of practices which are identified as "speaking English" (a range of lexical, syntactical and phonological features recognised as belonging to this category) was in fact using the communicative and linguistic resources at her disposal. In this case, it included the awareness that both informant and researcher would understand each other by virtue of their relatively comparable backgrounds. The "French" words are selected because she believes that they will be made sense of by her interlocutor.

The next extract is from an interview carried in French, as the informant refused to speak English.

I: C'est clair, et puis je me débrouillerai toujours pour essayer de plutôt parler en Français qu'en Anglais, c'est parce que je suis flemmard, et puis c'est vrai que je me rappelle l'année passée on a eu, ya eu *** qui offrait un cours aux employés dont j'ai fait partie et je me suis arrangé pour que le, le, on avait, chaque **study**, chaque groupe avait un **coach**, on avait un **coach** et je me suis arrangé pour que le **coach** parlait français et qu'on puisse faire le, dans les **study room**, qu'on puisse parler en Français, j'étais le seul je pense et je me suis trouvé par **débol** je me suis retrouvé avec mon chef direct qui est francophone. Et puis il a dit c'est bizarre, le **coach**, qui est-ce qui a eu cette initiative de parler en Français dans les **study room**, parce que tout le monde parle Anglais quoi. Et puis voilà après le **coach** il a dit je crois bien que c'est toi Ju*** puis moi j'étais là sous la table, euh c'est possible, c'est moi, haha! (Trans04:4:96)

I: Yes, it is clear, and I will always manage to try to speak in French rather than in English because am lazy, and I remember last year we had, *** offered a class to employees, I was part of it, and I arranged for, each *study*, each group had a *coach*, we

had a *coach*, and I managed to have a French speaking *coach*, and we could do it in the *study room*, we could speak in French, I was the only one I think and I found myself luckless, I ended with my direct chief who is Francophone and he said : it is bizarre, the *coach*, who had this initiative to speak in French in the *study room*, because everybody speaks in English. And the *coach* said: I think it is you Ju***. I was under the table saying: it is possible, it's me. Haha! (Trans04:4:96 French to English)

Here the interviewee is arguably relaying the words that have been used in the context of the class he is talking about. He does it in a non-marked way, keeping the “English” words, but saying them in the middle of a monolingual discourse, without any change of stress, accent or metalinguistic justification. He can do this because the words he uses seem unambiguous enough, regardless of their belonging to such or such language. Here, a traditional approach would differentiate between features which are not widely dispersed in a Francophone environment such as “study room”, which is generally attributed to English, “déboul”, a French neologism coined on the basis of informal register, and another one “coach” which high frequency has made accepted as part of the local idiom, but this synchronic categorisation does not render the individual dynamic negotiations as responses to the continuous ecological fluctuations which are inseparable of any communicational event.

Let's continue with another example taken from the same interview, which happened in French.

4: On arrive jamais à **catcher** le bon moment pour dire le bon truc. (Trans04:3:66)

4: We never manage to catch the right moment to say the right thing. (Trans04:3:66 French to English)

This example could be seen as another French neologism resulting from the borrowing of an English verb, then inflected with the infinitive termination to respect the French grammar. The same use of “English” words happens with the words “**turnover**”, “**day-to-day**”, “**headquarters**”, “**faculties**”, “**pushy**” and “**dealer**”, which appear extensively in this interview. In Mufwene's terms those are not simply lexical borrowing from one language-system to the other, but “features” selected from an environmental “pool” in which they are available. In other words, it is the environment where “to catch” is in circulation which made it available. Those so called English words are even unproblematically used by someone who refused to be interviewed in English and who was, in that moment, categorizing his activity as speaking French. If the informant hadn't inflected the verb, this would have made no communicational difference at all. This was another “feature” at his disposal. Languages are not mutually exclusive codes. They only become so in political/ideological projects to preserve or restore language purity. This monolingual speaker uses the words he knows whatever their origin, and without impacting or questioning the belief that he is speaking in his own language. When asked about this, the same informant answered:

I: Yes, sure, all those English terms we use every day, it is since I have worked here or for *** (cigarettes company) I use them

F: Do you integrate them in your French

I: Yes, I integrate them in my French, I would not know how not to use them.

F: And you don't have the impression that it downgrades your French

I: No I don't think so. (Trans04:10:299)

I would be tempted to argue that, in a code-based view (in the world of languages, dialects and sociolects) any communicational event is a code-mixing: there is always at least one sub-category of language to which some words, syntactic constructions and phonological pattern can be diachronically or synchronically related. In turn, I prefer to identify the ongoing

linguistic activity by regards to the individuals rather than pre-existing abstract systems. When communicating, speakers do not use *one* language. They convoke the semiotic resources they have at their disposal. Those in turn become contextual resources as speakers engage together in semiotic negotiation.

Another interesting fact often reported in my study, is that even speakers of the same language cannot rely on language to understand each other. Quite the opposite may be true. A manager told me that the assumptions of native speakers as to ease of linguistic communication tend to lead them to misunderstandings. In cross-linguistic interactions, they are aware that they have to pay more attention. In my opinion, to argue that two people coming from different part of the world encounter miscommunication because of their cultural differences fails to explain how culture (as a system of meanings) would be more reliable than language in explaining semiotic processes. I am not trying to argue that the environment and the social practices to which individuals have been exposed don't influence their semiology. However, there are countless practices, socially and contextually embedded, as well as countless ways in which they could have been integrated as personal experiences. Therefore, the amount of intertwined interpretative processes involved makes the structural-cultural explanation lacking in scientific accuracy. Furthermore, in my opinion, any distinction between the lexical (systemic) and pragmatic (contextual) meaning of words derive from the belief of languages as codes rather than support it.

Conclusion

Finally, I believe that any methodology taking languages as a primary material for evidence exposes itself to the bias of hypostatizing its object, and mistaking the structural construct for communicative reality. I prefer to abandon the idea of the code altogether as I think that if it can be a useful ideological and pedagogical tool, it fails to provide a convincing description of the semiotic negotiations and adjustments which are taking place in any act of intra- or inter-national communication. Therefore, for my point of view, Weinreich, Phillipson and Mühlhäusler don't provide a convincing theoretical framework. To me, it is mainly because in their approach to the cultural consequences of English as an international language, they tend to ignore the fundamental contextual and experiential elements in their approaches, something Mufwene places at the heart of his theory. To argue about the cultural consequences of language contact and change is in fact to postulate a certain linguistic/cultural purity, an idealization on which rests the myth of an origin, the core of an ideal and true identity. Without denying the importance of real or mythical lineage in the way humans situate themselves in their contemporary panorama, I posit that language use has to be understood in terms of the ecological choices of individuals by regards to their present situation and not in terms of pre-given categories understood as systems internally organised.

Deciding whether a school should adopt English as a medium of education raises the question of the norm or the standard language. Indeed, by regards to the variety of practices which are now covered by the generic category English, the assessment of the quality can become problematic. In many universities, students must score satisfactorily in a recognized evaluation test of English as a foreign language such as such as TOEFL or the Cambridge Proficiency. In this regards, it is external institutions which sole purpose consists in evaluating language to which the task is deferred. Those being British and American-based already show the multi-centrality of English, and the impossibility to draw a definitive line of conduct. Linguistic negotiations therefore necessarily become the norm rather than the exception in environments where people coming from different linguistic backgrounds are assumed to speak the "same" language. Furthermore, between the speakers of English as a

foreign language and the natives of different “Englishes” (British, American, Scottish, Indian and Australian for example), many communicational issues can arise and were reported in my fieldwork. Interestingly, these were identified as consequences of the fact that it was assumed that all those individuals were speaking the same language.

Between the mission to adapt to the standard and the multiplication what may count as “correct”, educational institutions which aim at international status have to negotiate between the complex and interwoven issues of communicational and social norms. As reproducers of these norms, they have to make choices which, exactly like the ones of their members, are ecological. To sum up my opinion, two things have to be contrasted. On one side, there are official discourses which align with categories in circulation such as languages and cultures, and on the other side, there is the permeability of those categories, and the fact that they don’t correspond to or enclose real life communication. The dynamic interplay between these two levels seems to me one of the keys to a successful international institution nowadays.

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The Missing Academic Standards for Target Language: The Case of Indigenous Languages in South African Universities

Paul Nkuna

0021

University of South Africa, Gauteng, South Africa

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Abstract:

In the wake of recent student number decline for indigenous language studies in South African universities, numerous suggestions have been made about how to improve student number of the country's indigenous language studies. Though strongly worded, nearly all the suggestions lie well within the previous framework of teaching an indigenous language in the country's universities. Although the Ministry of Higher Education dedicates considerable time and attention to the promotion of the teaching of indigenous languages, universities devote much effort to student numbers. They have stopped to examine the academic standards for the target languages. This paper investigates the academic standards for the target language in South Africa's universities. The main focus is on the teaching of nine indigenous languages recognised as official languages by the country's constitution. The emphasis is on the communication in target language and the role of culture in World Language Acquisition.

INTRODUCTION

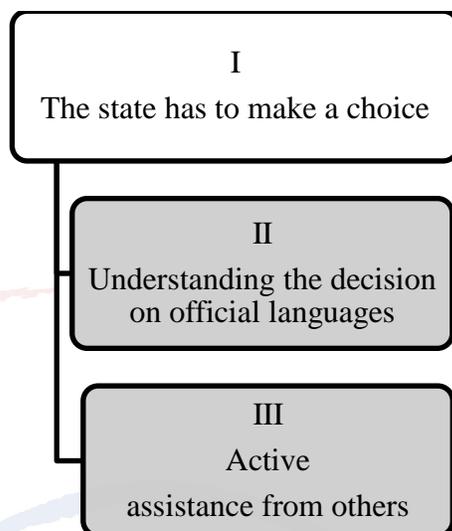
Reber (1995:406) says language is "what we speak, the set of arbitrary conventional symbols through which we convey meaning ... the medium through which we code our feelings, thoughts, ideas and experiences". Any language has a dual character: it is "both a means of communication and a carrier of culture" (Ngugi 1986:13). "Communication is always understood in the context of the receiver – no matter what was intended" (De Bono 1998:52). Nkuna (2010:v) writes, "Former South African President, Thabo Mbeki, challenges the South Africans to fully utilize the opportunity created by the 1996 Language Clause." Mbeki (1999:1) says, "[T]he fact that we have 11 official languages ... means that we are serious about taking practical measures to advance the use of all our languages." He refers to the "use in high-status functions and, thus, eventual escape from the dominance and the hegemony of English" (Alexander 2007:30). Beukes (2004:9) adds that "*communication with the public* via official correspondence must take place in the language of the citizen's choice".

This study is prompted by the missing academic standards for indigenous languages. It focuses on four central points, namely the right to use one's own language; the concept "academic standards" and its meaning; historical evidence; and missing academic standards.

THE RIGHT TO USE ONE'S OWN LANGUAGE

According to Lagerspetz (1998) the right to use one's own language has three properties:

Chart 1: Three properties of the right to use one's own language



Source: Adapted from (Lagerspetz 1998).

I. The state has to make a choice. The state "has to recognize some language(s), but not others, as official languages" (Lagerspetz 1998:183). The South African state recognises 11 official languages: Afrikaans, English, isiNdebele, isiXhosa, isiZulu, Sepedi, Sesotho, Setswana, siSwati, Tshivenda and Xitsonga, as recorded in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996. Section 6(2) of the Constitution recognises the diminished use and status of indigenous languages. In the context of the Constitution, diminished use and status are linked with diglossia or multiglossia. Rudwick (2005:305) writes that "the societal phenomenon of diglossia ... has been referred to in multifaceted ways in South Africa's multilingual landscape and English is generally identified as the H(igh)-variety". Diglossia generally refers to two distinct codes, which can be either two language varieties or two languages and are used by a single language community. In South Africa, where 11 official languages are spoken, I prefer to use the term "multiglossia". "Many examples involve English as the H-variety, indicating, inter alia, the use of the language in the 'higher domains of life'" (Ibid 2005:305). Higher domains of life involve "specialized functions of high and low varieties by social domains" (Bauer 2011:5). Three social domains identified by Bauer seem to be relevant to this study: two belong to the H-variety (university lectures and poetry) and one belongs to the L-variety (folk literature). Most universities in the country teach nine official languages through the medium of English and focus mainly on folk literature. Poetry receives less attention.

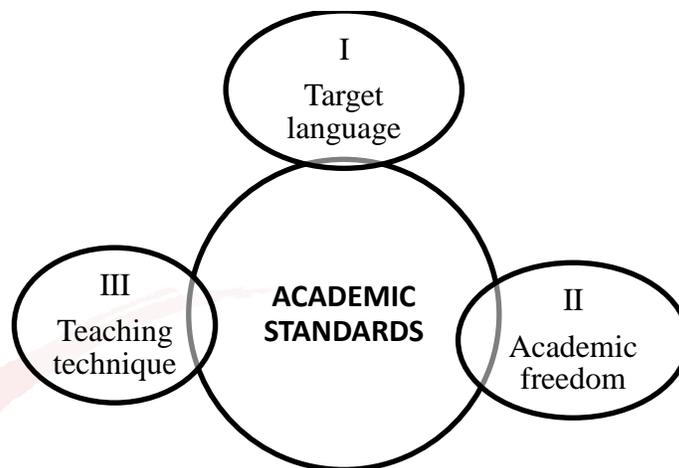
II. Understanding the decision on official languages. The choice of an official language is a distributive decision. "This decision unavoidably affects the distribution of burdens and benefits between citizens" (Lagerspetz 1998:184). An official language is a language that is given special status in a particular country, or a language that can be used effectively in official contexts (Nkuna 2010; Lagerspetz 1998). A language may be recognised symbolically as an official language, but if "there are no higher educational institutions using the language etc., it does not qualify as an official language" (Lagerspetz 1998:183).

III. Active assistance from others. Section 29(2) of the Constitution gives everyone the right "to receive education in the official language or languages of their choice in public educational institutions where that education is reasonably practicable". This answers the following question put by Lagerspetz (1998:184): "What is the content of the right to use one's own language?" It is the duty of the state to provide "sufficient education in that language in order to ensure that the language can be effectively used" (Ibid 1998:184). Public universities should actively assist the state and the student in realising this right.

DEFINING THE CONCEPT "ACADEMIC STANDARDS"

South African universities are facing the challenge to raise the standard of teaching and learning the nine official languages that have historically been diminished and given the L-variety status. It is a challenge because the country's higher education system has relegated the responsibility of setting academic standards to individual institutions. Hence, in the context of this study, the concept "academic standards" is often used in conjunction with other concepts (see chart 2 below).

Chart 2: Academic standards and related concepts



The radial Venn in chart 2 shows the overlapping of the three concepts with academic standards. Each of the three concepts is discussed below.

I. Target language. Helena Curtain did extensive research into target language teaching and learning. Her work focuses on what she calls "keeping the classroom in target language". Curtain (2011) published the American Council on Teaching of Foreign Language (ACTFL) Position Statement Use of the Target Language in the Classroom in May 2010. In her opening remarks, Curtain (2011:1) writes:

Research indicates that effective language instruction must provide significant levels of meaningful communication and interactive feedback in the target language in order for students to develop language and cultural proficiency... ACTFL therefore recommends that language educators and their students use the target language as exclusively as possible (90% plus) at all levels of instruction during instructional time and, when feasible, beyond the classroom.

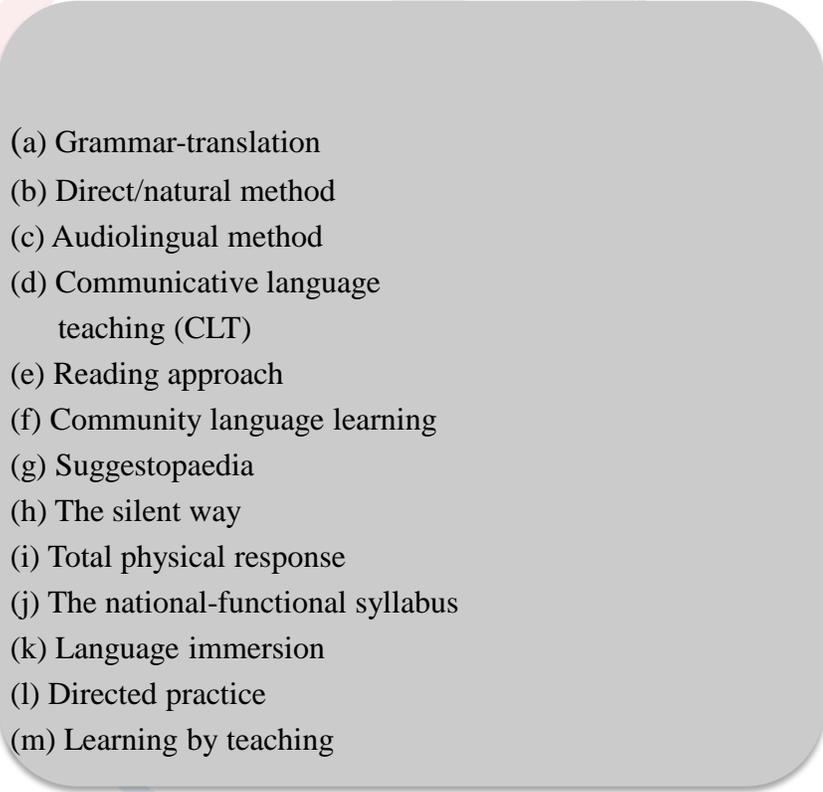
Using the target language (in this context, one of the nine official the indigenous language) to teach the target language can elevate the academic standards of that specific indigenous language.

II. Academic freedom. The need to protect and cherish academic freedom is entrenched in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996. According to Altbach (2001:206) academic freedom is "the freedom of the professor to teach without external control in his or her area of expertise, and ... the freedom of the student to learn". The principles of academic freedom, as formulated in the 1950s by TB Davie (in Hall 2006:1), call for "freedom from external

interference in a) who shall teach, b) what we teach, c) how we teach, and d) whom we teach". Academic freedom is a central value of teaching and learning, and therefore a core aspect of academic standards.

III. Teaching technique. "There are many methods of teaching languages. Some have had their heyday" (Leadbeater 2011:1). Chart 3 below outlines 13 language teaching techniques or methods.

Chart 3: Language teaching techniques/methods

- 
- (a) Grammar-translation
 - (b) Direct/natural method
 - (c) Audiolingual method
 - (d) Communicative language teaching (CLT)
 - (e) Reading approach
 - (f) Community language learning
 - (g) Suggestopaedia
 - (h) The silent way
 - (i) Total physical response
 - (j) The national-functional syllabus
 - (k) Language immersion
 - (l) Directed practice
 - (m) Learning by teaching

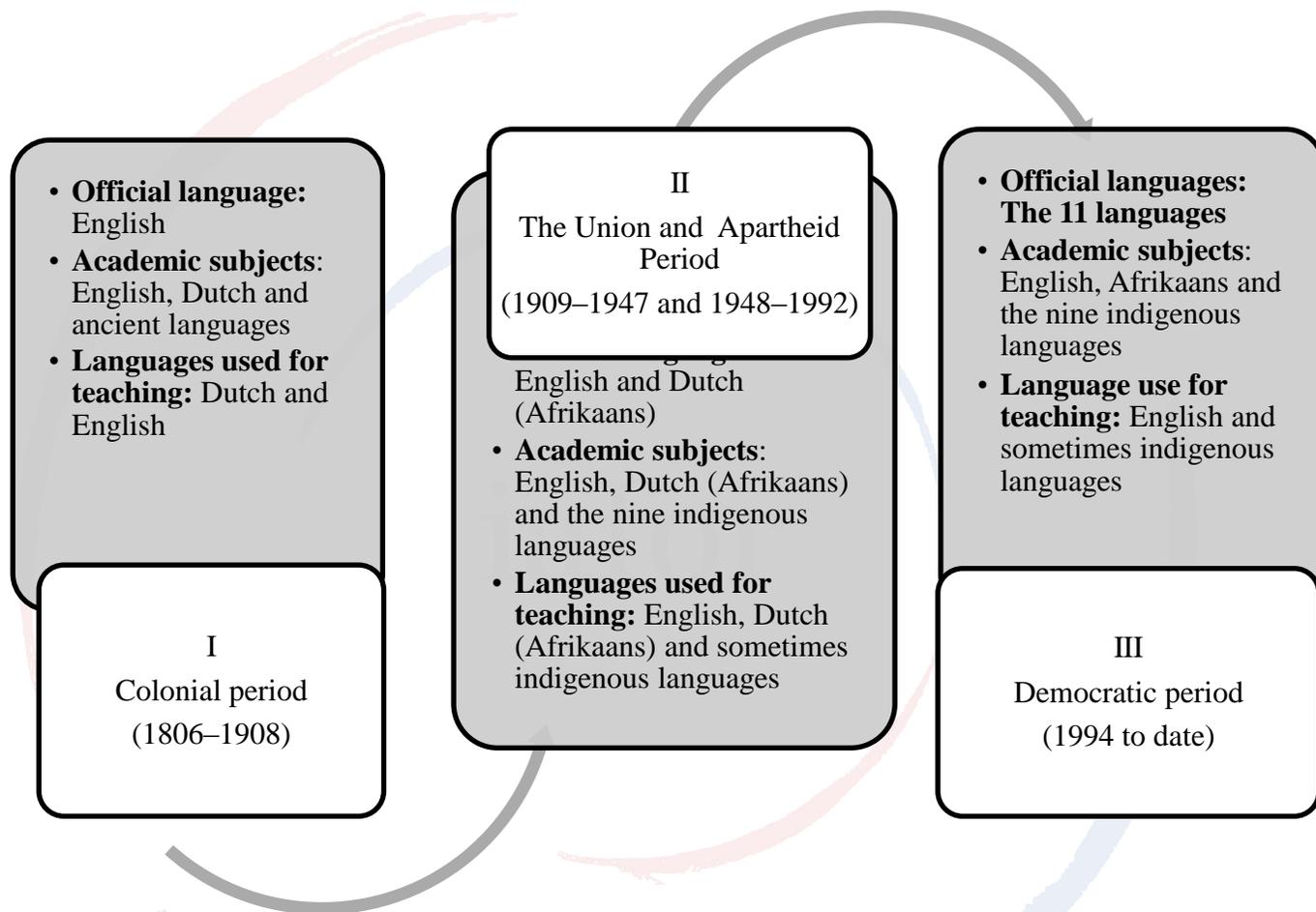
Sources: Adapted from (Wa' Njogu 2010; Leadbeater 2011).

Teaching technique is a core aspect of academic standards. A professor at a South African university can use her academic freedom to choose or to create the best teaching technique that does not deny a student the freedom of learning – a technique that elevates the academic standards of the indigenous language that she is teaching.

HISTORICAL EVIDENCE

The history of language teaching and learning at South African universities can be divided into three periods (see chart 4).

Chart 4: The three historical periods of language teaching in South Africa



I. Colonial period (1806–1908). English was the only official language of the colonial state. Indigenous languages were not academic languages. "The Milner Commission of Inquiry (1903 to 1905) was perhaps the first to call for scientific studies of natives of South Africa" (Lalu 2011:1). Education was reserved for Dutch and English speakers. Dutch or English was used to teach Dutch or English respectively. Hence, a target language was used to teach Dutch or English. The Grammar-translation method (GTM) was used to teach ancient languages. The academic standard of ancient languages remained low because the GTM, which is also called the classical method, is a teaching approach for foreign and classical languages such as Latin and

Greek (Chang 2011). There is "little active use of the target language," (Wa' Njogu, 2010:3). It focuses on grammar, vocabulary with direct translation to memorise (Leadbeater 2011:1). Communication is not a priority (Wa' Njogu, 2010). Lord Alfred Milner's commission (1903–1905) recommended the study of native affairs and languages.

II. The Union and Apartheid Period (1909–1947 and 1948–1992): Dutch and English were the only official languages of the Union government from 1909 to 1924. Dutch (Afrikaans) and English were the only official languages from 1925 to 1960. Afrikaans and English were the only official languages from 1961 to 1992. Ryneke (1938:89) writes that the language barriers often resulted in misunderstanding and a lack of respect among English- and Afrikaans-speaking groups. Ryneke says the following about the Afrikaner:

He has tried to learn English out of courtesy to his English-speaking fellow-citizens, but the compliment is not being returned, and therefore he does not feel happy when meeting English South Africans on unequal terms.

Education was reserved for Dutch (Afrikaans) and English speakers. For instance, Jones (1936:39) maintains that "students...could not be regarded as typical of the population as a whole, since they represented a portion of a selected section which receives University education." In 1921 the School of African Life and Languages was founded at the University of Cape Town (Lalu 2011:3). This was the beginning of indigenous language teaching by the country's universities. The GTM was adopted, and indigenous languages were taught as foreign languages in their own country. English and Afrikaans were used to teach indigenous languages. Home language speakers who registered for those indigenous languages were taught through the medium of English and Afrikaans. Jones (1936) explains how the University of the Witwatersrand in Johannesburg defended its decision to appoint a native graduate – a Zulu poet of no little merit – as an assistant in the Bantu languages section of the Department of Bantu Studies. He writes:

The University defended the appointment on the grounds that the scientific study of a Native language requires the assistance of a demonstrator or instructor whose mother-tongue it is, and who, in addition to a natural knowledge of the true phonetic sounds and correct idiom, has a sound scientific knowledge of its grammatical structure. It was also pointed out that Bantu men had been used as language demonstrators at another Northern

University for some years. Other Universities have more recently decided to make similar appointments (Jones 1936:2).

During the apartheid era, only a few universities for Africans began to teach in the target language, but the teaching technique remained GTM – though the translation was more advanced.

III. Democratic period (1994 to date): Dewey (1954, in Giroux 2010:14) says, "[D]emocracy is a 'way of life' that must be constantly nurtured and defended." The state has laid the foundation for the continuous nurturing and defending of democracy by increasing the official languages in South Africa from two to 11. Giroux (2010:14) continues as follows:

If academics believe that the university is a space for and about democracy, they need to profess more, not less, about eliminating inequality in the university, supporting academic freedom, preventing the exploitation of faculty, supporting shared modes of governance, rejecting modes of research that devalue the public good, and refuse to treat students as mere consumers.

Indigenous language teaching in South Africa is explicitly linked to democracy and should therefore reflect democratic values. Such values include "the exceptional approach which emphasizes the maintenance of academic standards" (De Klerk 2000:40). Thus, "education should be transformed to reflect democratic values" (Steyn 2000:22). The Language Policy for Higher Education defines the role of the 11 official languages as "working together ... to build a common sense of nationhood which is consistent with the values of democracy" (Ministry of Education 2002:3).

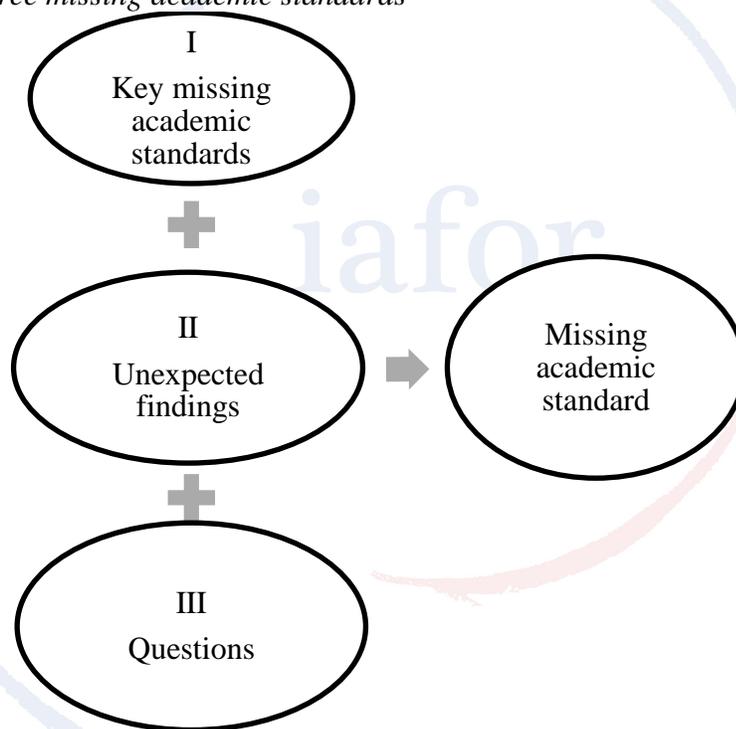
In this period, the GTM has persisted and indigenous languages are still taught as foreign languages in the democratic South Africa. However, many universities have now introduced an advanced form of the GTM, namely the Parallel Method (PM), which means that indigenous languages have two curricula: one for non-mother tongue speakers and another for mother-tongue speakers. The teaching does not focus on communicative competence, but on the indigenous languages themselves. The difference between the two curricula is the medium of

instruction. The non-mother tongue modules are taught in English and the mother-tongue modules are taught in the target language. Students are still treated as mere consumers.

THE MISSING ACADEMIC STANDARDS

Elevating the academic standards of indigenous languages in South African universities is the challenge of a lifetime – especially because these languages are treated as foreign languages rather than official languages. The missing academic standards can be summarised under four subheadings (see chart 5).

Chart 5: The three missing academic standards



I. **Key missing standards.** The nine indigenous languages still belong to L-variety. The following are the key missing standards for the teaching of indigenous languages at South African universities:

- (1) Universities and their managements lack interest in the nine indigenous languages and have misunderstood government's decision to give official status to 11 languages. They pay only lip service to the official status of the indigenous languages.

- (2) There is no relationship between the target language, academic freedom and the teaching technique used. Students are regarded as mere consumers and therefore they are low on the list of priorities.
- (3) Teaching methods devised in colonial times are still used. The GTM has been used for centuries to teach ancient languages. It was used by Lord Alfred Milner's commission in 1908 and it is still used, though instructors now agree that the GTM is ineffective if it is used as sole teaching method (Leadbeater 2011).

II. Unexpected findings

- (1) Teaching and learning are weakened by an artificial syllabus that does not teach in the target languages, but in English.
- (2) The roles and responsibilities of professors and students are misunderstood. Professor-centered methods are used, including lecturing, talking and explaining, while students remain passive.
- (3) Learning strategies are neither direct nor integrative.
- (4) Inferior teaching and poor end results are tolerated.

III. Questions

- (1) What are you teaching, Professor?
- (2) Do you have academic freedom to teach through the medium of the target language?
- (3) Are you aware of other teaching techniques? Can you create your own?

CONCLUSION

The academic standards for the teaching of indigenous languages at South African universities still reflect the values of colonial and apartheid times. Understanding the three properties of language rights as part of higher education transformation means fully recognising the expected contributions the country's universities to the promotion and development of the nine indigenous languages. It also includes an understanding of the basic role of academics, namely to promote the communicative competence of students in the languages they are learning. This far exceeds

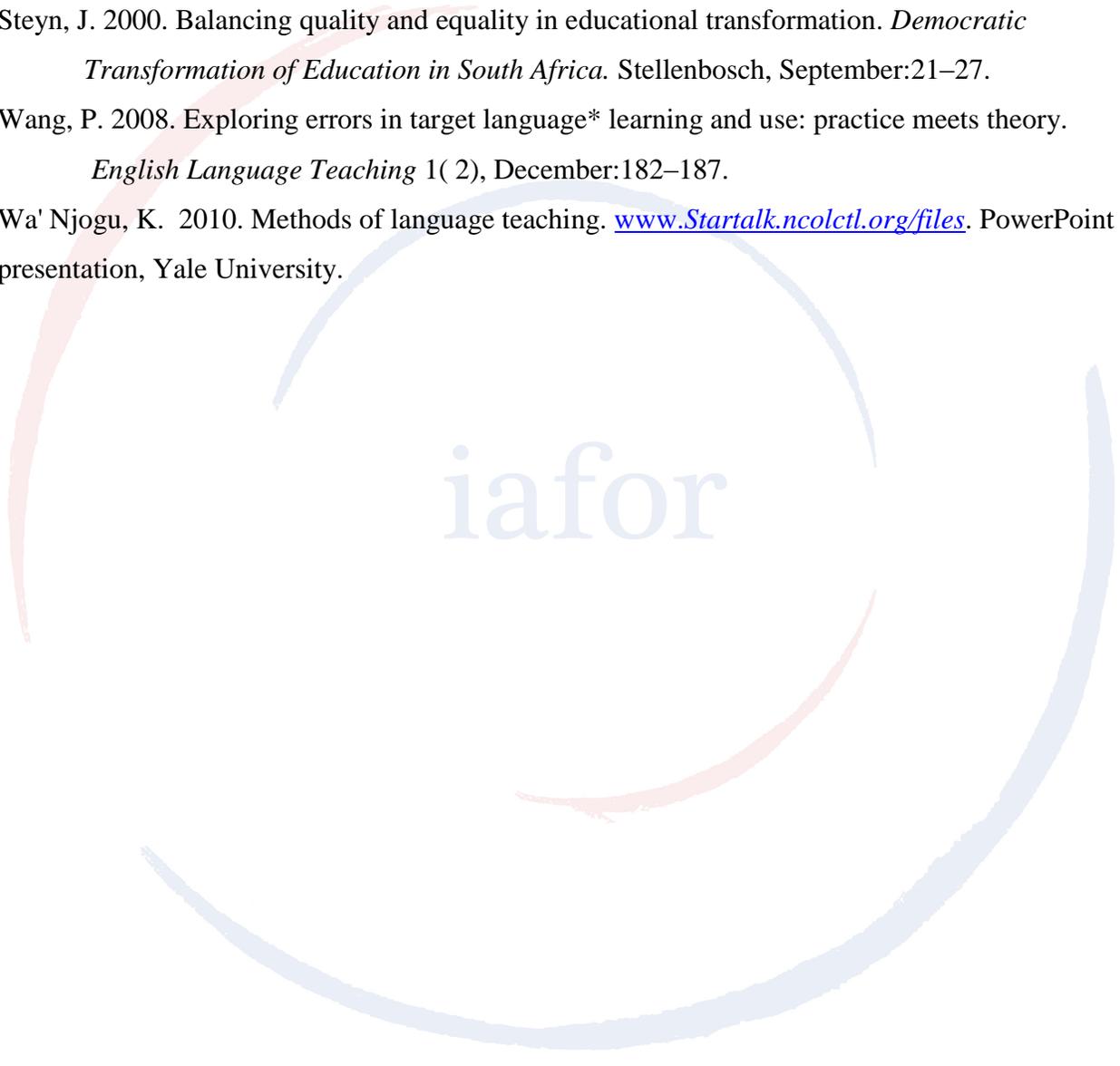
the oft-stated instruction that academics should teach students *about* indigenous languages. If academics in African language departments only think about the effect of the decline in their students number on their job security, they negate the possibility that they might influence the fate of the languages, their official usage and their future status. Academics should realise they have the ability to affect the state of democracy itself. They should teach the nine official indigenous languages not as foreign languages, but as official languages, and a teaching technique that encourages the use of the target language and demands communicative competence is therefore essential.

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The logo for the International Association for Applied Linguistics (iafor) is centered on the page. It consists of the lowercase letters 'iafor' in a light blue, sans-serif font. The text is enclosed within a large, light blue circular arc that is partially obscured by a red, brush-stroke-like arc that also forms a partial circle around the text.

Language Learning and its Facilitating Role in Understanding Culture

Yanfeng Qu

0023

Kwantlen Polytechnic University, Surrey, BC, Canada

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Abstract:

This paper studies the intricate interactions between language and culture and their implications for understanding culture by analyzing the etymology and health related connotations of some basic Chinese vocabulary commonly taught to Canadian students. It first investigates the etymological development of some basic individual characters (e.g. **生** 'birth' + **春** 'spring') to prove that their logographic writing reveals ancient understanding of human body and Nature as a whole. It then focuses on examining two-character compounds (e.g. **心** *heart* + **肠** *intestines* = 'intention', **聪** *good of hearing* + **明** *good eyesight* = 'intelligence'). It shows that the formation of certain compounds in Chinese is not random at all, but is based on and embodies theories of traditional Chinese medicine ('TCM'), esp. the interconnectedness of certain human organs and the 12 Qi meridians crisscrossing our human body. Lastly, the paper investigates some four-character idioms (e.g. **肝** *liver* + **胆** *gall bladder* + **相照** *reflect each other* = 'show utter devotion to a friend'), illustrating once again that such high level literary expressions also demonstrate the inner workings of TCM, a vital aspect of Chinese culture. The paper concludes by exploring ways to add this kind of cultural information as a fun and dynamic dimension to classroom teaching and as a mnemonic strategy for English speaking students to facilitate their Chinese language learning and culture understanding. It reaffirms the tenet that language learning is pedagogically intertwined with culture learning and that each plays a facilitating and reinforcing role in the other.

1. Introduction

It is a well known tenet in language education that language and culture are inseparable in that language encodes culture while culture pervades language. Incorporating cultural understanding in language teaching is not only imperative philosophically and theoretically, but also advisable pedagogically and mnemonically. This is particularly true in cases where the target language of learning and the native language of students are diagonally different, and a case in point is English-speaking Canadian students learning Chinese as a second language (CL2 for short). CL2 instructors need to address three critical pedagogical challenges as follows:

- What cultural elements in the target language should they teach to students whose native language is entirely different genetically and typologically from the target one?
- Where do they locate the sources of the cultural information for pedagogical purposes?
- How can they relate the understanding of culture back to language teaching and learning and further reinforce the later, esp. regarding teaching Chinese characters and idiomatic expressions, allegedly the hardest part in learning this exotic language?

This research focuses on studying the close and intricate interconnections between vocabulary and the rich cultural information encoded in their etymologies and connotations, and on advocating understanding culture via vocabulary learning as a way to facilitate vocabulary and language learning and eventually to promote healthy living outside classroom.

1.1. Traditional Chinese Medicine: a Unique Aspect of Chinese Culture

Culture is a loaded term with multiple meanings. This research focuses on one unique aspect of Chinese culture which has been widely known in the world, but has been deplorably ignored in the field of teaching CL2 – Traditional Chinese medicine (TCM for short hereafter). TCM commands a prominent and singular position not only in the overall fabric of Chinese culture, but also in the world cultures as well. One may question the necessity of drawing upon a medical aspect of a particular culture, i.e. TCM, as a source for cultural and eventually language teaching, citing absence of such resources and practices in other foreign language teaching. The answer to this challenge is obvious: no other country-specific medicine is as well known and is as influential as TCM on the lives of ordinary people throughout the world, especially in the last dozens of years, and in the globalized and health-conscious 21st century. This particular branch of Chinese culture contributed enormously to the making of the Chinese language as its influence is palpably felt in its vocabulary formation. Yet, despite its widespread popularity worldwide and its extensive influence on the Chinese language, such a major branch of Chinese culture is totally ignored in CL2 teaching and learning, a situation which constitutes a substantial deficiency both in pedagogical theory and in classroom practice. This research is intended to rectify this inadequacy by bringing to light this important and unique aspect of Chinese culture and its poignant relevance to Chinese teaching and learning.

1.2. Etymology and Connotations and Their Relevance to Cultural Understanding

As the basic building blocks in human language, words and expressions are naturally the convenient and reasonable starting point for our journey to explore cultural influence on language. Modern Chinese characters and expressions are the outcomes of thousands of years of evolution, and, as a result, are known to have intriguing and rich stories behind them. Very often they are directly

derived from TCM and encode fascinating health and wellness information originating from it. One may question or underestimate the validity of studying etymologies and connotations as a way to experience culture, but research and classroom experience in CL2 teaching have shown that such an approach can provide substantial benefits for students:

- Perceptible orthographic improvement
- Rapid vocabulary expansion
- Heritage/New culture appreciation
- Enhanced motivation in vocabulary and language learning
- Healthy lifestyle

This paper examines some characters and expressions commonly taught at Canadian universities from the perspective of etymology and TCM. Based on the morphological structures, it presents the findings in 3 sections. The first section presents the orthographic origins of some commonly used *individual characters* and discusses specifically the medicinal and wellness-related information as revealed by their etymology and connotations. The second section focuses on *two-syllable compounds*. One feature of MODERN Chinese is that it prefers the use of two-syllable compounds to the use of monosyllabic words as in Classic Chinese. Very often the choice of two individual words to form a compound is not random, but is best explained from the health and wellness perspective. This section cites examples to explain to what extent the wisdom of TCM has made its way into the inner workings of the Chinese compound formation. The last category involves *4-character idioms/expressions* (四字成语). These idioms/expressions are a hallmark of the Chinese language and culture and often add colour and vitality to linguistic output. This section intends to show that the formation of these well-known expressions is not random either; instead it is subject to medicinal explanation, just like the 2-syllable compounds previously introduced. This research sheds light on the cultural DNAs of the three orthographic and morphological formations and illustrates convincingly the close bond between language and culture learning.

2. Data and Analysis

2.1. Individual Characters

The conception of this research project was initially triggered by an innocuous question from a beginning non-heritage student. As a true beginner, she did not take any Chinese characters for granted, but questioned them every step of the way. This style of learning was markedly different from that of Asian students who had been more or less exposed to Chinese characters and would take whatever is thrown at them. The question from that reflecting student is this: why does the character 想 ('think') have the character 心 ('heart') in it? My curiosity and search for an answer to this question led me to a bonanza of information where many of the very basic characters, words and expressions encode rich information about health and wellness rooted in TCM.

By definition, etymology refers to the origins of word formation and development of their meanings. Such a definition certainly applies to the evolution of the Chinese *logo-graphic* writing, one of the three orthographic systems in the world. It is true that it is not the job of language teachers to ply their beginning students with all the information about the obscure oracle bone origins of Chinese characters, but it definitely helps if certain etymological facts are presented both as cultural tidbits

and as mnemonics. This is illustrated by the following very commonly used characters which are taught mostly in the first-year basic Chinese courses.

2.1.1. 人 ('person'), 大 ('big') and 天 ('heaven')

These three characters are some of the first characters beginners of Chinese will learn in their very first Chinese course. Simple as they are, they carry lots of information about Chinese culture, philosophy and TCM in particular. Relating these characters to their cultural origins and connotations is highly conducive to student learning both of the language per se and of the associated cultural values as well. Let us start with 人 ('person'). It is well known that YIN and YANG are the two vital concepts in Chinese culture as a whole and provide the undisputable foundation for TCM. These two complementary opposites, according to one source of etymology, are vividly embodied and depicted by the simple character 人: which shows that these two opposing forces are interdependent upon and interconnected to each other and co-exist in us human beings: *the left and right falling strokes on the opposite sides are supporting each other resulting in a steady entity*. By discussing the etymology of this simple character, it is opportune to introduce the YIN and YANG concepts paramount and prevalent in Chinese philosophy, a natural entry into the domain of Chinese culture. On a practical level, the health tip we get is that a healthy living means striking a good balance between YIN and YANG, i.e., a loss of balance between the two will result in illness.

Another source of the etymology for 人 will attribute the shape of the character as the *SIDE* view of a person who cannot face life head-on. In contrast, 大 represents the *FRONTAL* view of a person and therefore this person's view and outlook becomes *enlarged and broadened*, hence its meaning 'big'. Adding one horizontal line over this 大 character gives us the character 天, which has several meanings. Its natural meaning is, not surprisingly, the 'head', the highest organ on a human body, as used in 天庭 ('the middle of the forehead'). Another meaning, which is more commonly used nowadays, is 'heaven, sky', presumably an extension of the original meaning of 'head'. The evolution and connectedness of these three characters show clearly that some Chinese characters are not only closely related in writing, but also in cultural and philosophical values embedded in them. Since they are usually the first characters students are exposed to, a brief introduction to the etymology and connotations of these characters would surely make their learning more insightful, efficient and fun.

2.1.2. 春 ('spring') and 秋 ('autumn')

These two commonly used and taught characters also encode some interesting cultural information which can be traced to the origins of their orthography and TCM. 春 'SPRING' in ancient calligraphy represented 'growing grass with the sun underneath it'. Now a question arises as to why the sun is beneath the grass, not above it as we see it in the natural world. In ancient Chinese philosophy, the sky represents the YANG while the earth represents the YIN; however both elements co-exist in the domain of the other, as discussed in 2.1.1. In other words, the earth, which is YIN by definition, also contains the YANG Energy. When spring comes, the YANG energy in the earth will be 'awakened' by the YANG in the sky to promote and nourish the nascent growth of the grass. Therefore, SPRING in the Chinese philosophy and medicine is a season of growth and awakening in nature as well as in our human body. Furthermore, since LIVER¹ belongs to WOOD/TREE element

¹ It should be noted that reference to an organ in TCM is different from that in western medicine: it refers to more than just the organ itself, but also includes its associated functions and other connections. For instance, KIDNEY should be understood in TCM as more than the organ itself, but also compasses its urinary, reproductive and internal secretive

(in the FIVE-Element Theory in TCM) and trees come back to life when the weather warms up, spring is also the season to pay special attention to and take great care of one's LIVER and SPLEEN which LIVER constrains in the FIVE-Element Theory, e.g. restrain anger; drink green tea; eat green veggies (e.g. spinach, cabbage), fruits (e.g. apples, dates) and gouqi berries, toufu. These are some of the health tips we can glean from studying this character.

In contrast, the character for 秋 'AUTUMN' has its own medicinal story to tell. It shows that 'the fire (on the right) is burning the crop stalks (on the left) as a way to give back to the earth after the crops are harvested'. The origin of this character suggests that fall is the season for harvest in our natural world, and, from the perspective of TCM, it is also the season for human beings to *restrain and contain oneself* in terms of health, i.e. harvesting the health benefits of birth and growth experienced in spring and summer respectively. Furthermore, since LUNGS belong to Autumn (in the FIVE-Element Theory in TCM) and constrains LIVER, autumn is the season to pay special attention to and take great care of one's LUNGS and LIVER which LUNGS restricts (e.g. eat pears, turnip, garlic, lily; drink black tea; don't be sentimental) – health tips we can apply to our daily life. Finally, unlike winter when the YIN is excessive and summer when the YANG is dominant, both spring and autumn are much balanced in YANG and YIN energy. Therefore, 春 and 秋 are used together to form a compound word to represent 'one whole year', e.g. 20个春秋 which means '20 years' (see more compounding examples in the next section).

2.1.3. About 想 ('think'): the trigger for this research

As is the case with 60% of Chinese characters, this character has two components: a sound part and a meaning part. In the character 想, the top part 相 is the sound radical, which gives its pronunciation to the whole character; the lower part 心 ('heart') is the meaning radical, which contributes its meaning to that of the whole character. The question asked by my student is why 心 ('heart') is related to the thinking activity. The answer comes from TCM: one of the functions of the HEART is that it takes charge of certain functions of the central nervous system, especially the mental and emotional activities (i.e. 心主神明 in the original). As 'thinking' is primarily a mental activity, the word 心 ('heart') appears in the character of 'thinking' to affirm its central role in and its close relation to this important human activity. Other words of mental and emotive activities that have 心 ('heart') in them include 心爱 (HEART+ LOVE 'love, treasure') and 心花怒放 (HEART FLOWER WIDELY BLOOM 'burst with joy'), etc. All these examples show convincingly that HEART is involved in all these mental and emotional activities, and that taking good care of one's heart is conducive to maintaining and promoting sound mental activities.

2.2. Two-syllable Compounds

One feature of MODERN Chinese is that it prefers the use of two-syllable words or compounds to the use of monosyllabic words as in Classic Chinese. A qualified Chinese instructor should not only emphasize this linguistic feature (both morphological and stylistic) in teaching, but also bring to light WHY two particular words are chosen to form a compound, such as the combination of 春 and 秋 meaning 'one whole year' as discussed above. My research has shown that the formations of many two-syllable compounds can only be explained from the health and wellness perspective. In fact,

functions, etc. Capitalization is therefore used in this paper to represent the names of the organs with their associated functions and extended meanings.

some 2-syllable compounds are direct borrowings from TCM, and their meanings currently in use are extensions of the original medicinal terms.

2.2.1. TCM Guided Compound Formations

One common compound adjective students learn at the basic level is 聪明 ('intelligent'), and the etymology of this expression can be traced to TCM. Individually, 聪 means 'acute hearing' and 明 means 'good eye-sight'. The question is why their combination has come to denote 'intelligence'. According to TCM, 'ears are orifices to the KIDNEY' (肾开窍于耳), which means that the KIDNEY-essence is responsible for the normalcy of hearing; in parallel, 'the eyes are the orifices to the LIVER' (肝开窍于目), which means that the LIVER-essence is responsible for the normalcy of seeing. In other words, it is the traditional view that whether one is intelligent or not depends in large part on the health of these two vital organs – the KIDNEY, which stores inborn vital essence and energy, and the LIVER, which stores blood among other things. Furthermore, in the FIVE Element-theory in TCM, LIVER and KIDNEY come from the same origin (肝肾相生) where blood and essence can transform, nourish and promote each other. Given the individual meanings of these two component words and the importance of the two vital organs associated with their functions, it is not surprising that it is these two words that are chosen to form a compound 聪明 to represent 'intelligence'. And the health tip one gets is that one should take good care of his liver and kidney to maintain his intellect.

心肠 is another common compound the formation of which appears puzzling at first sight. The meaning of this combined word is 'intention', and the question is why it is derived from the combination of 心('heart') and 肠 ('intestine'), but not from the combination of 心('heart')肾 ('kidney'), for instance. A cursory reading on TCM reveals that the two component referents in this compound bear special relationship to each other. In the view of TCM, HEART, which controls mental and emotional activities as discussed above, and SMALL INTESTINES are connected to each other by the network of meridians and enjoy a paired and partner relationship in functioning ('心与小肠相表里'). If there is something wrong with the small intestines absorbing nutrients, there must be something wrong with the heart. To come back to the meaning of the compound, since HEART controls mental and emotive activities, and also enjoys a close partnership with SMALL INTESTINES, it is only natural that the word (小) 肠 is selected from a range of organs to form a compound with HEART to denote 'intention', a clearly mental and emotive activity. Similar common compounds formed on the basis of TCM principles include 辛苦 and 意志.

2.2.2. Semantic Extensions of Original TCM Terms

In contemporary Chinese, there are quite a few terms which have been in existence for thousands of years with their origins in TCM. While most speakers may not be aware of their original meanings, their current meanings are direct extensions from their medicinal origins. Take 正气 and 邪气 for instance. Originally referring to the 'healthy/true energy', 正气 in TCM represents the vital function of the body and its resistance against diseases. Now in everyday speech, it refers to the 'healthy and positive trend or atmosphere in society or in ethical values'. As its antonym, 邪气 originally stands for 'evil energy', i.e. the various pathogenic factors and the pathological damages caused by them. In modern Chinese, it mainly refers to 'perverse trend or evil influence' in society and personal behaviour. Another common compound with 气 is 脾气. While its current meaning is 'temperament' or 'disposition', its original medicinal reference is 'SPLEEN-energy', referring to the functions of

the SPLEEN. This organ, per TCM, is responsible for food digestion, transportation of nutrients and fluids as well as the control and circulation of the blood within the vessels. Related to 脾 is another compound with its original root in TCM:脾胃. These two organs 脾 (SPLEEN) and 胃 (STOMACH), in the view of TCM, are connected to each other by the network of meridians and enjoy a paired and partner relationship in functioning just as the pair with HEART and SMALL INTERSTINE discussed above. Originated from the TCM, this compound is now primarily used for its two meanings: (i) the original medicinal meaning ‘SPLEEN + STOMACH’, e.g. 这个孩子有点脾胃不和。(‘This child has some stomach/indigestion problems’); (ii) the newly extended meaning: ‘TASTE’ or ‘HOBBIES OR DISPOSITIONS’, e. g. 两人脾胃相投(‘These two have similar likes and dislikes.’).

Another pair of compounds that have undergone extensions from medicinal meanings to non-medical meanings is 上品 and 下品. 上品 (High Grade) originally referred to the non-poisonous medicine with tonic effects which can be taken frequently or in a large dosage and are not harmful to the human body. As its opposite, 下品 referred to the poisonous medicine which should not be used frequently, such as those for expelling ‘evils’, removing stasis and purging. In Modern Chinese, 上品 has been used to mean ‘top grade’ of any products while 下品 refers to any inferior products, an extension that goes beyond their original usage². Other interesting ‘extension’ cases include 心虚, 小心, 五谷 etc.

2.3. Four-character Idioms/Expressions

The four-character Chinese idioms/expressions (四字成语) are a hallmark of the Chinese language and culture. An appropriate use of them in the daily writing and speaking represent a high level of literal calibre and intellectual taste, adding expressive vitality and literary colour to the vernacular parlance. This section is devoted to showing that the formation of these well-known expressions is not random either; instead it is subject to medicinal explanation as well. As with the two-syllable compounds, there are primarily two sources for the formation of the four-character idioms as far as TCM is concerned. One comes from direct borrowing of the existing medical terms by instilling in them new and extended meanings while the other formation is inspired by drawing upon TCM to create new expressions.

2.3.1. Semantic Extensions of TCM Terms

One ready example to illustrate this kind of four-character idioms is 肝 (‘LIVER’) 胆 (‘GALL BLADDER’) 相照 (‘mutually reflective’), a common expression which refers to ‘a sincere and reliable relationship’ between two people. One may ask why ‘HEART’ is not involved in this idiom since the word itself and its referent represent prima facie the meaning of ‘love’ and ‘honesty’ in many cultures. Again the answer lies in the special relationship between these two organs 肝 (‘LIVER’) and 胆 (‘GALL BLADDER’) from the view of TCM. Just as the HEART and SMALL INTESTINES are connected to each other by the network of meridians and enjoy a paired and partner relationship in functioning, it is believed that LIVER and GALL BLADDER also bear such a

² The original categorization of Chinese medicine also included 中品 (Medium-Grade). But since it is rarely used in contemporary Chinese, it is ignored in the current discussion. Incidentally, while in Japan to present his paper, I was alerted to the fact that 下品 in Japanese means ‘inelegant’, a further extension or digression from its original meaning in Chinese.

special relationship to each other (‘肝与胆相表里’) in that the wellbeing of one organ impacts that of the other. As time goes by, their close relationship in the medical sense has been extended to the non-medical meaning, and the phrase itself has thus been used to signify *a mutually dependent and connected relationship between two close friends and comrades*. Another expression is 病入膏肓 which originally means that ‘the disease has already penetrated into the Gaohuang acupoint’. In TCM, the Gaohuang acupoint is located in a region at the back below the heart, the deep-sited location for the critical states of diseases, esp. those involving the upper body. Legend has it that if the disease has attacked that area, it is not curable. Nowadays, it is borrowed verbatim to mean that *‘the situation has become so acute and serious that it is beyond cure and salvage’*.

2.3.2. TCM Guided Compound Formations

Different from the extension cases discussed above, the other source of formation of four-character idioms is that their creations are actually inspired by wisdom from TCM, i.e. only TCM can explain their origins of formation. Take for instance another common, albeit vulgar, expression: 吓得屁滚尿流 (‘be frightened out of one’s wit’; literal translation: *‘one is so scared that his fart rolls and his pee flows’*). At first glance, this graphic expression seems to be a rude conundrum for a lay person, but a medical explanation from *Emperor’s Cannon of Medicine* (黄帝内经), a treatise on TCM and classic health regimen written 2,000 years ago, throws light on the semantic and medicinal significance of this predicative complement in this colloquialism. The author of this book claims that ‘Fear hurts KIDNEY’ and that KIDNEY is in charge of urinary and other systems as discussed in footnote 1 above. If a person is scared, his QI will go down and the descending QI will cause loss of control of the KIDNEY functions and thus lots of symptoms, such as making one feel a bloated stomach AND lose control of his or her excretory system. These medical conditions and the theorizing behind them presumably gave rise to that Chinese expression, a linguistic formation which is non-random at all. Interestingly, English has an equally graphic equivalent expression ‘to scare the shit out of somebody’, which only proves the universal applicability of that medical theory expounded in *‘Emperor’s Canon of Medicine’* to all cultures, races and languages. Another example is 撒手而去 *‘let go of one’s hold and leave; leave this world by opening the fist*. It is believed in TCM that LIVER is responsible for ‘grasp’ and is used to help protect one’s soul. This is proved by the fact that newborns come to this world with their fists closed in order to consolidate their souls in the view of TCM. At the moment when ones dies, LIVER loses its soul-clenching ability due to the weakened QI and the hands therefore are too weak to form a fist and grasp, causing the person to ‘let go of his hold’ just before he dies. It is this phenomenon and the accompanying TCM theory that gave rise to the expression 撒手而去 (*‘let go of one’s hold and leave’*) to denote vividly the passing away of a person.

3. Pedagogical Implications

This research is by no means intended to regurgitate exhaustively the TCM inspired etymology of Chinese words and expressions taught at lower level Chinese courses. Instead, its objective is more modest and pragmatic: to showcase, with some sample illustrations, the palpable influence of TCM on the Chinese language in the context of teaching and learning of Chinese as a foreign language. Now the question is how to apply these insights to classroom teaching and to textbook design. Here are three specific suggestions:

3.1. To make sense of the unique logographic writing system: Since the most basic characters (e.g. 人, 大, 天) are highly pictographic, it is advisable to draw upon etymology to demonstrate the

origin and evolution of those characters in the beginner courses. Such an explanation will let students see and appreciate colourful stories behind the characters which they are exposed to for the first time. This fun approach will make the learning of the much dreaded characters more learner-friendly and more conducive to memory.

3.2. To make sense of special idioms and expressions: For certain seemingly arbitrary or difficult expressions, an introduction to etymology will enable students to see the TCM principles underlying the formation of those words and expressions (e.g. 聰明 ACUTE HEARING + BRIGHT EYESIGHT 'intelligent', 心肠 HEART+ INTESTINE 'intention', 撒手而去 LET GO OF THE GRIP 'pass away'), thus enabling them to make sense of those seemingly random expressions and therefore remember them more clearly and solidly.

3.3. To understand TCM and practise healthy living: For characters or expressions that are rich in cultural information and health tidbits, it is necessary to share those insights with students so as to enhance their understanding of Chinese culture, and TCM in particular, as well as their learning of the language. For instance, the pictographic character 女 encodes a message about a sitting posture that is supposed to be conducive to health, a posture which is still practised by some women in Japan. Presenting this message to students is recommendable as they can apply it in their daily life in today's health-conscious society. As a result of this medical information, they will be able to understand why some eastern Asians will sit on their heels. Another example is the expression 病入膏肓 which explicitly mentions a vital acupoint responsible for all the critical illnesses in the upper body according to TCM. It can be further mentioned as a wellness tip that one should constantly stretch the shoulders back and forth as a way to close the GAOHUANG acupoint for health benefits. This also explains why Chinese and Japanese people often pull towels back and forth diagonally across their backs to rub and massage that area, GAOHUANG acupoint included, as a healthy practice.

To conclude, this research highlights the importance of how language learning can serve as a springboard to understand Chinese culture and of how cultural understanding gained through learning Chinese characters and expressions can further reinforce language learning in return. Just as certain organs 'are connected to each other by the network of meridians and enjoy a paired and partner relationship in functioning', so are language and culture: they do form a special partnership not only in morphological origin, but also in the wider context of actual communication. Adopting an integrated approach involving both language and culture will enable learners to know this challenging language not only in terms of 'WHAT', but also in terms of 'HOW' and 'WHY', a learning that goes beyond the superficial level. Such an integration of cultural etymology and connotations not only facilitates the understanding and memorization of vocabulary itself, but also, more importantly, inspires students to become more interested in the overarching culture as a whole so as to further enhance their language and culture learning conjunctively.

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The logo for 'iafor' is centered on the page. It consists of the lowercase letters 'iafor' in a light blue, sans-serif font. The text is overlaid on a large, faint circular graphic composed of two curved lines, one in a light blue color and one in a light red color, which together form a circle around the text.

Innovative Asian Language Teaching and Learning: Case Studies from Melbourne, Australia

Naomi Wilks-Smith

0047

RMIT University, Melbourne, Australia

The Asian Conference on Language Learning 2012

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Abstract:

The recent release of the Australian Curriculum: Languages, (November, 2011) prioritises the learning of an Asian language and emphasises communication in an Asian language. Learning an additional language is seen as a social, interactive and collaborative process in which communication is the goal. As a result we seek to find innovative methodologies to enhance students' communicative competence. This paper will explore the innovative programs of two schools in Melbourne, Australia. One is a Bilingual Primary School for Japanese and the other deploys a Gesture-approach for the teaching of Mandarin at a Secondary School. Drawing on two case studies from two quite different schools, this paper will explore the ways in which each methodology is used to increase students' language output. These two case studies of innovative practice will provide a model for existing additional languages programs to enhance students' communicative competence in Asian languages.

There are many models of languages education in Australia. Teaching a language other than English has been a government recommendation for almost 20 years and with the recent release of the Australian Curriculum: Languages, (November, 2011) is again a priority.

There are 22 languages taught in Victorian primary schools and 19 in secondary schools. The multicultural city of Melbourne is reflected in the languages taught in schools. Over 90% of students in government schools study Chinese, French, German, Indonesian, Italian or Japanese.

The Department of Education and Early Childhood Development, DEECD, recommends that a quality languages program offers 150 minutes per week. Despite this, there are some schools that opt out of offering languages and many schools that teach a language for 30 minutes, 45 minutes or 1 hour a week. It is not surprising that after many years of learning languages at school many students cannot communicate in a language other than English. There are other schools that have increased the hours of languages learning to provide the recommended minimum of 150 minutes per week or more. Some include a content focus such as Content and Languages Integrated Learning, CLIL. There are bilingual schools delivering a minimum 7 ½ hours a week in the additional language, 5 of those hours in curriculum content. Some schools are using a gesture approach to teach additional languages. Others have formed clusters of schools to support and strengthen their provision of languages through Innovations in Languages Provision In Clusters, ILPIC.

Within Australian languages programs, some will teach in English about another language with some or little use of the additional language, other schools will share the time between English and the additional language and others teach entirely in the target language. Many models of languages teaching are aimed at monolingual English speaking students as an addition to their education. Some models are aimed to support first languages in the community. For some students the language they are learning at school is a third or further language.

In addition to school languages programs, the Victorian School of Languages provides classes in over 40 languages, usually on Saturday mornings. It also offers distance education courses in approximately ten languages to secondary students who do not have access to language programs in their mainstream schools for reasons such as remoteness, medical disability and travel. (DEECD, 2012). Languages in Victoria are also supported by community languages schools which are “out of school hours” providers of community languages for students of school age. These schools are run by incorporated community-based, not-for-profit organisations.

The recent release of the Australian Curriculum: Languages, (November, 2011) prioritises the learning of an Asian language and emphasises communication in an Asian language. This new national curriculum is for foundation year (the first year of primary school) to year 10 of schooling. The Australian Curriculum identifies ‘Asia and Australia’s engagement with Asia’ as a priority across the curriculum and at all levels of schooling. “Asia literacy requires young Australians to gain knowledge, skills and understandings of the histories, geographies, literatures, arts, cultures and languages of the diverse countries of Asia by the time they leave school” (Asia Education Foundation, 2011).

In order to be “Asia literate”, languages programs need to ensure students are able to communicate in the target language. Learning an additional language is seen as a social, interactive and collaborative process in which communication is the goal. As a result we seek

to find innovative methodologies for teaching Asian languages which enhance students' communicative competence in the language.

This paper will explore two innovative languages programs in Melbourne, Australia, including scenarios from schools of students' communication in Asian languages.

Case Study 1 – Innovative Gesture Approach

The Accelerative Integrated Method, AIM, (Maxwell, 2001) uses gestures, theatre, storytelling, dance and music to help students remember and use the target language. It was developed in Canada and is now widely used in Canadian French-English programs and spreading in popularity world-wide. It now includes French, Spanish, English as an additional language and Mandarin.

AIM is based on the belief that students will learn and remember a new language better when they gesture with what they are saying. A selection of “pared down” language consisting of 700 words have each been assigned a gesture. Limiting the number of words and gesturing to support comprehension allows teachers to maintain the target language throughout their teaching.

An AIM approach is being used in over 500 schools in Australia for teaching French, approximately 20 schools for English as an additional language and is currently being trialed in several schools for Mandarin. Much excitement is spread among languages teachers about the increased comprehension for students and the rapid pace of being able to communicate in the target language.

There are several key themes emerging from the literature and research into gesture approaches. Some of these refer to naturally occurring gestures with language. This paper is particularly interested in the gestures that are specifically designed as a teaching tool for additional languages education.

There is evidence supporting the notion that language and gestures are intertwined. Neuroscientists have found that the neural systems for processing speech and hand actions are overlapping (Nishitani, Schurmann, Amunts & Hari, 2005). We also know that the synapses in the brain are stimulated by movement that gestures can provide during language learning (Pica, 2006). Many theorists also believe that spoken language has evolved from gestured systems in our evolutionary past (Rizzolatti & Arbib, 1998).

Gestures enhance comprehension

A number of authors agree that gestures enhance comprehension. (Cienki, A., & Muller, C., 2008; Kelly, Kravitz & Hopkins, 2004; Ozyurek, Willems, Kita & Hagoort, 2007; Skipper, Goldin-Meadow, Nusbaum & Small, 2007; Willems, Ozyurek & Hagoort, 2007; Wu & Coulson, 2007). Also, cognitive neuroscientists have found that gesture is integrated with the meaning of speech during language comprehension.

Results of the study by Ludvigsen (2008) suggest that the relationship between language and gestures impact second language comprehension positively. The study found that learners who had been presented instructional videos in an additional language with naturally occurring gestures resulted in significantly higher scores on comprehension than those who did not view the gestures.

ESL learners who were assigned 3 stimulus conditions, 1. Audio, 2. Audio – face, 3. Audio - face – with naturally occurring gestures, showed that visual cues improved comprehension and for the lowest level group of learners the Audio - face - gesture condition was most successful (Sueyoshi & Hardison, 2005).

Gestures can facilitate comprehension of instructional material in classrooms. Teachers' use of pointing and tracing gestures for pre-school children enhanced their learning compared to those with the same instructions without gestures. (Valenzeno, Alibali & Klatzky, 2003 in Ludvigsen, 2008). Gestures capture attention, provide redundancy in the message and ground speech in the physical environment. Gullberg (2006) supports this stating that hand gestures are crucial in learning a new language. Visually rich gestures serve as input to learners of an additional language during comprehension and learning.

Gestures increase students' communicative output

Less is known about the influence on students' language output as a result of the intentional use of gestures as a teaching methodology for additional languages. There are many testimonials from teachers and anecdotes emphasising the increased level of target language communication, however there has not yet been any research to measure this.

The founder of the AIM program, Maxwell, conducted a Masters research project on her class and found that students in the group that learnt French through the AIM methodology were significantly more competent in both comprehension and productive use of the language. (Maxwell, 2001). Carroll, (2011) supports this observing that students were able to express themselves in their second language with ease. Students begin to understand French intuitively, allowing a more natural oral production of language as students skip the need to translate. (Dittrick, T., 2006).

Gestures increase retention of learning

A number of studies support the link between the use of gestures and the retention of new language. A study involving three sets of memory tests showed that the greatest word learning occurred when gestures conveyed redundant imagistic information to speech (Kelly, McDevitt & Esch, 2009). Words learned with gesture produced a larger Late Positive Complex (indexing recollection) than words learned without gesture. These authors concluded that simultaneously distributing information through gesture and speech will produce better learning than presenting the same amount of information through speech alone. Not only did the use of gestures produce better learning it also took half as much time to teach. One reason for the success of a gesture approach may be that gestures reinforce the link between a newly learned word and a known word. In support of this, another study found that native English speakers who listened to French expressions while viewing and producing gestures were able to learn and retain new expressions better than participants who did not view and produce the gestures (Quinn-Allen, 1995 in Kelly, McDevitt, Esch, 2009).

Gestures increase student motivation

There are many claims from teachers and students that gestures enhance motivation to learn an additional language (Maxwell, 2011). Bourdages & Vignola, 2008, and Mardy, Arnott & Lapkin, 2008, (in Carroll, 2011) have confirmed that AIM motivates learners much more than regular core French programs.

Gestures support struggling learners

Gestures are a crucial tool in helping struggling learners master a new language and are also ideal for beginning learners of an additional language (Gullberg, 2006). Gestures support

students for whom learning French may otherwise have been unattainable. (Dittrick, 2006). He found that students who were considered weak before the AIM program was introduced are seeing success. The use of gestures enables students to understand so that learner frustration is alleviated resulting in more positive language achievements (Dittrick, 2006). Kelly, Manning & Roddack (2008) support this notion believing that adding gestures to speech makes it very easy and understandable which enhances language learning for all students. When second language learners grapple with aspects of a new language, teachers can use gesture to help with these problems. Church (2004) supports this in a study of Spanish students of English as a second language, finding that gestures help confused learners in second language contexts.

There is a strong base of research indicating positive outcomes for the use of gestures as a teaching tool for additional languages. Further research will strengthen the body of knowledge in this field.

This paper now shares the story of an AIM gesture approach for teaching Mandarin as an additional language in Melbourne, Australia.

The Carey Grammar story:

One school offering an innovative AIM gesture approach in Mandarin.

Mandarin is one of the languages taught at Carey Grammar, a K – 12 school. It is an innovative Mandarin as an additional language program utilising the Accelerative Integrated Method, AIM, gesture approach. Mandarin has been introduced via the AIM gesture approach for 2 years. Mandarin is used exclusively with the intentional use of gestures to support the language. The program is used to teach students Mandarin as an additional language who have not had any experience in Mandarin before. Students from their first class are encouraged to gesture and speak along with the teacher. Increasingly, students are able to initiate their own language with gestures to answer questions, ask questions, and express their likes and opinions. When walking into such a program your attention is immediately grabbed! Students have a need to watch the teacher gesturing and very quickly pick up the gestures themselves. It is remarkable to watch the whole class engaged, actively using Mandarin. It is also incredible to see students progressively being able to initiate their own production of Mandarin. This was evident when one student asked if he could be “teacher” and played the teacher role at the front of the classroom, complete with gestures without support from the “real teacher”. The student played the teacher role gesturing and speaking only in Mandarin. He proceeded to ask questions of other students who excitedly responded in Mandarin. All of this was unplanned! This independent language output was after only 3 terms of the AIM gesture program! In another class, students who had been learning Mandarin for two years equally comprehended the Mandarin as well as becoming more independent with their use of the language to ask questions and engage in discussions about the content of the lesson. Students would often speak Mandarin while the teacher silently gestured. She not only had no need to translate into English, but at times also did not need to speak Mandarin! The empowerment of students and real communicative competence is amazing.

Case Study 2 – Innovative Bilingual Education

There is one special school and 11 government primary schools offering bilingual programs in Victoria, Australia. They include 3 programs offering Japanese, 2 for Chinese Mandarin, 2 for Vietnamese, 2 for Auslan (Australian sign language), as well as German, Indonesian, French, Macedonian, and Modern Greek. Content areas delivered in these languages include The Humanities, Mathematics, The Arts, and Science. Bilingual programs provide students with the opportunity to learn curriculum content in, and through, both English and another language. Schools participating in the designated bilingual programs are expected to provide a minimum of seven and a half hours of a language other than English with content teaching in the target language.

Key themes from bilingual research support the use of this method as innovative for learning additional languages.

Bilingual education maximises learning time by teaching the second language and content at the same time. Bilingual education solves the “over-crowded curriculum” debate as it teaches languages and content together therefore being time effective.

Cognitive benefits

Research conducted within neurosciences offers an increasing amount of strong evidence of versatile knowledge of languages being beneficial for the usage of an individual’s brain (Marsh, 2009). There are six main areas where multilingualism put people in advantage including learning in general, complex thinking, creativity, mental flexibility, interpersonal and communication skills, and even a possible delay in the onset of age-related mental diminishment later in life. Multilinguals show superior performance in handling complex and demanding problem solving tasks when compared to monolinguals (Marsh, 2009).

Bilingual children develop more flexibility in their thinking as a result of processing information using different languages (Cummins, 2003). “Bilingual individuals tend to be more creative and to have a higher degree of cognitive flexibility than their monolingual counterparts” (Fernandez, 1992, p.118). “Otherwise English monolingual children who became bilingual by virtue of their participation in... immersion programs developed greater cognitive flexibility, creativity, and divergent thinking skills than their carefully matched, monolingually-educated control counterparts who participated in traditional English medium instruction programs” (Tucker, 1990, p.11).

A number of studies show bilinguals to be more creative, cognitively more flexible and to perform better on tests of verbal and non-verbal intelligence (Liddicoat, 1991). Bilinguals are often better at solving complex problems and possess greater analytical skills. Bilingual education facilitates divergent and convergent thinking.

Academic Achievement

An Australian study examining students’ academic achievement and students’ experiences within 3 bilingual primary schools (Molyneux in Milburn, 2009) found that students’ literacy skills in English were not undermined by spending part of the school week learning in another language. Most were meeting the expected reading, writing and comprehension benchmarks in English, including those who began school without much English. His study revealed that students had a deep knowledge about the structure of each language they were learning and that more than 90% of students felt their bilingual education was “useful” or

“very useful”. Many students were able to use their additional language outside the school in such ways as reading, watching DVDs, using the computer, or with family members and in the community.

A number of longitudinal studies show that not only do bilingual students catch up but they also often surpass their peers both academically and linguistically (Lindholm-Leary, 2011). Lindholm-Leary’s study found that both English and Spanish first language students benefit equally from dual language programs. Mathematics achievement was also found to be highly related across the two languages, demonstrating that content learned in one language is available in the other language. Connected with this, evaluations of successful Canadian immersion programs have shown greatly improved language learning, along with cognitive, academic, and attitudinal benefits (Research Centre for Languages and Cultures Education, 2007).

The recent release of the Department of Education, Employment and Workplace Relations, DEEWR, report on The Student Achievement in Asian Languages Education (SAALE) Project shows that there were “...significantly higher achievements of students who participate in bilingual programs” (DEEWR, 2011, p.xvi). “Such an approach has been shown to have significant advantages over the traditional language classroom setting in terms of the level of proficiency, and especially oral fluency, acquired in the target language” (Johnson & Swain, 1997 in DEEWR, 2011) and “...the outcomes for language learning are positive both in attitudes to the target language and culture and in language gains” (Clyne, 1986; Lorch, McNamara & Eisikovits, 1992; Elder, 1989; de Courcy, 2002; Molyneux, 2004; Farmer, 2006 in DEEWR, 2011).

Bilingual Learners’ Performance

The performance of learners enrolled in bilingual programs was compared with that of learners in regular programs in the Student Achievement in Asian Languages Education (SAALE) Project (DEEWR, 2011). “Mean scores are much higher for learners in the bilingual program” and “a t-test analysis shows a highly significant difference between the bilingual and non-bilingual group both for writing... and reading...” (DEEWR, 2011, p. 86) On a comparative task assessing bilingual and monolingual learners all bilingual groups performed similarly and exceeded monolingual learners (Barac & Bialystok, 2012).

Second language acquisition through immersion is the only method which enables students to use the language outside the classroom (Palfreman, 1983). Immersion students are far superior in terms of their fluency, pragmatic ability, pronunciation and listening comprehension (Broner & Tarone, 2000).

Motivation is high in a partial immersion program and engagement levels are strong due to the stimulation of students’ natural curiosity in meaning (Roe, 2006).

An additional language supports the first language

Research shows that language learning helps students refine and improve their numeracy and literacy in English (Lo Bianco, Nettelbeck, Hajek, Wood, 2011). Immersion programs have no negative effects on spoken skills in the first language and no negative effects on the cognitive development of students. Students in bilingual programs had no adverse effects on English abilities, but may very slightly enhance listening skills (Eckstein, 1986).

Bilingual education enhances third language acquisition

Studies on the acquisition of a third language (L3) in a bilingual context have shown that literacy in two languages facilitates the acquisition of a third (Cenoz & Valencia, 1994; Swain, Lapkin, Rowen, & Hart, 1990 in Sanz, 2009). A study by Sanz compares the acquisition of English as a third language by Catalan/ Spanish bilingual high school students in an immersion program with the acquisition of English by Spanish monolinguals. Results show that bilingualism has a positive effect on the acquisition of a third language (Sanz, 2009).

Supporting students from minority language backgrounds

A study of 160 schools with two-way bilingual education programs in United States was conducted between 1991 –1994. Results point to their effectiveness in educating non-native English speaking students, conserving the native language skills of minority language students and developing second language skills in English speaking students. A further benefit was the improvement of relationships between majority and minority groups by enhancing cross cultural understanding and appreciation (Christian, 1994). Cross cultural understanding is enhanced through bilingual education as students are exposed to a greater amount of social and cultural interaction (Broner & Tarone, 2000).

Bilingualism and Emotional & Behavioural Health

There is a growing body of research documenting the benefits of bilingual fluency to various emotional outcomes such as heightened self-esteem and stronger family cohesion (Han & Huang, 2010). Han & Huang examined how being bilingual may shape Asian children's long-term emotional well-being. Results suggest emotional and behavioural benefits of being bilingual. They found that students educated with a bilingual program have raised self esteem and confidence when it comes to social interactions, they have greater interpersonal skills and are able to adapt to new situations and contexts. Bilingual education offers opportunities for students to be aware of intercultural issues and differences between cultures. Scully (in Ryan, 2007) notices a confidence and sense of self-esteem among the students in a bilingual program that creates an engaged atmosphere. Molyneux (in Milburn, 2009) supports this claiming that students had heightened self-esteem from learning two languages.

The Huntingdale Bilingual Primary School story:

One school offering an innovative Japanese Bilingual program.

This school is located in Huntingdale, a Southern suburb of Melbourne. With a current enrolment of 300, students are from diverse cultural and language backgrounds with 20 languages represented. 10% of students have Japanese backgrounds. This bilingual program provides for students who are learning Japanese as a new second language as well as provides first language maintenance for some and is a third or further additional language for others. Huntingdale Bilingual Primary School is a state government primary school where families can opt to enrol, some travelling a great distance to attend this school.

7 ½ hours a week is delivered in Japanese with 2 ½ hours of this time in Japanese literacy. The remaining 5 hours are taught via Japanese across the curriculum areas of Science, The Arts (art & music), The Humanities, Physical Education and E-learning.

Innovations include content and language integrated learning, CLIL, where Japanese is the medium for learning a variety of content areas, native speaking teachers to create a need for students to communicate, a sister school relationship with regular contact including in-country biannual trips and hosting experiences, and culture embedded language learning where culture and language are not separated but taught within other content learning.

There is a multi-cultural population within the school where languages are celebrated and cultural and linguistic diversity is the norm. Japanese native speaking students maintain their Japanese language skills while other students alongside them are learning it as a new language.

Bilingual classes are delivered only in the target language. As far as students are concerned, these teachers only speak Japanese, within class, on yard duty and on excursions. Students will start by participating in classes delivered in Japanese and interacting in English or Japanese as able. Gradually, Japanese output is increased and strategies are used to encourage increasing levels of output. The focus of classes is on the curriculum content being delivered so rather than learning about the language students use the language to learn.

When observing this program, one grade 1 class was learning about Recycling. Students were in groups working on various activities; one group was reading a story about recycling with students reading the story and discussing it together, another group was classifying pictures into recycling categories and another group was making their own mini books. As I walked towards a 6 year old girl, intending to ask her about her work, a poster suddenly fell down onto her table. Her response was “Aa, bikkuri shita!” (What a surprise!) She then proceeded in Japanese to ask a friend on her table for a glue stick to re-glue the paper to a chart and peg it up again. She wasn't sure if she should stand on the table to do so and asked a friend next to her. The whole time this student was speaking in Japanese. This has remained in my memory of this visit. The Japanese teaching was impressive. The students' use of Japanese in class was also very impressive. What stood out was the natural use of real Japanese meaningfully and in context.

These case studies provide exemplary models of innovative practice for Asian language teaching and learning. Both case studies are examples with a strong focus on developing communicative competence in languages.

Now that there is a renewed commitment to the teaching and learning of Asian languages in Australia, it is timely to look towards current innovative programs as models to maximise the potential of Asian language teaching and learning in all school programs. Embracing some of these innovative approaches can enhance communicative competence in Asian languages.

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Identity, Culture, and Language: Putting SLA Back in Context?

Ruihan Zhang

0055

the University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong

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Abstract:

This paper examines the alleged “social turn” in SLA, proposed by David Block in *The Social Turn in Second Language Acquisition* (2003), where he tried to redefine “Second,” “Language,” and “Acquisition” respectively. However, this paper argues that a rethinking of SLA takes more than just squabbles over terminology; in fact, what Block failed to see is:

- 1) rethinking SLA should start *at* the theoretical assumption of language as system, instead of starting *from* it;
- 2) the view of language being a system falls short of equipping language learners for dealing with daily communicational situations, which are dynamic, discursive, and constantly subject to moment-to-moment contextualization;
- 3) bringing the concept of context to work with the systems view of language still keeps the boundary between the so-called "linguistic" and "non-linguistic" in SLA study, and thus pushes some socioculturally sensitive issues, such as "linguistic responsibility" out of the realm of linguistic inquiry.

This paper does not aim to provide some alternative SLA model, but to invite dialogues that can initiate further reflexive thinking of the SLA establishment as a whole, and hopefully bring some new insights into that effort.

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Introduction

In David Block's much celebrated discussion of the "social turn in SLA" (2003) (Kramsch and Whiteside 2007; Lafford 2007; Larsen-Freeman 2007; Valdés 2005; Swain et al. 2011; Zuengler and Miller 2006), he attempts to reconceptualize SLA from a sociolinguistic perspective by examining the three concepts—"second," "language," and "acquisition" that comprise the acronym "SLA". However, this paper argues that on one hand, Block has rightly forged certain criticism against the mainstream psycholinguistic approach in SLA; on the other, his socially-informed approach to SLA does not come out unscathed by the same problem that mainstream cognitive/psycholinguistic approach in SLA also suffers from. That is *the systems view of language* (Harris 1998; Hutton 2009). There are two main reasons to call into question such a view of language: first it oversimplifies language learning processes into categories and types and thus falls short of equipping language learners to deal with real-life communication problems; second, it also puts up boundaries between what counts as "linguistic" and "non-linguistic" and thus pushes some socially-sensitive issues like linguistic responsibility (Harris 1998, p.4, p.71) out of the realm of linguistic inquiry. Therefore, this paper will take Block's discussion of a "social turn in SLA" as an example to see how the old problem, i.e. the systems view of language, still remains unchallenged in the alleged sociolinguistic reconceptualization of SLA, so as to open a dialogue that allows further discussions for a new perspective of SLA study without a systems view of language.

Block's reconceptualization of SLA

Starting with the question "What does 'S' in SLA stand for?", Block problematizes the putative concept "second" in second language acquisition as referring to any languages acquired after one's "native language" or "mother tongue" (Mitchell and Myles, 1998). This is what Block calls the "monolingual bias inherent in the use of the word 'second' in SLA, for 'second' implies a unitary and singular 'first' as a predecessor" (Block 2003). Interestingly enough, the alternative that Block offers to circumvent the monolingual bias in SLA is to change "second" to "additional" (2003, p.57), because the latter "could apply to any language-learning experience, irrespective of the learner's previous language contact" (2003, p.57). On the one hand, it appears rather question-begging for Block to assume, on no ground clear to the reader in his argument, that the word "additional" implies no such thing as "a singular 'first'" or a mother tongue as a predecessor; another question that I see as more urgent to ask is: what difference would it make if the name of the field of inquiry is indeed changed from SLA to ALA (additional language acquisition)? While leaving his readers wondering about his answer to the question, he ends his discussion of the "S" in SLA with a rather bizarre concession, which reads as: judging from the responses which authors like Firth and Wagner (Firth and Wagner 2007) have received from psycholinguists so far, "I am all too aware that changing SLA to ALA [...] would be the kind of seismic shift that [...] will never occur" (Block 2003, p.57).

Block's discussion of the "L" (language) in SLA revolves around the marathon debate of linguistic competence vs communicative competence. Instead of denouncing the former in favor of the latter, as one usually assumes a sociolinguist would do in such a case,

Block contends that he “feel[s] justified in mixing these two different orientations” (2003, p.62). For him, language is “not only a knowledge of the rules of formal syntactic, morphological, phonological and lexical systems, it is also a knowledge of the rules of *use*; that is, how to employ the formal systems for communication” (Block 2003, p.61). For instance, Block believes that not only is there negotiation of linguistic meaning in learners’ linguistic interaction, but also the negotiation of social identity (2003, p.88). There are two questions to ask here. First, does the dichotomy of linguistic competence vs communicative competence make sense in the first place? Second, what does all this discussion of identity have to do with, particularly, the concept of language in SLA? It seems that the first question has never come across Block’s mind, but he does have offered an answer to the second question, which has a lot to do with his discussion of the third concept: acquisition, and to which we will turn now.

Block’s discussion of the “A” in SLA is closely related to the debate of, again, another dichotomy: “language acquisition vs language use.” For Block, the discussion of “language” in SLA cannot leave out social factors, among which the identity issue predominates, and language can provide “an index of the speaker’s identity” (Block 2006, p.36). The Indexicality of language thus has been extended from being a semiotic property to a function of detecting the identity of the language speaker, or more often than not, the identity of some speech community as a whole. The underlying doctrine of such a relation between language and identity is that the utterances, however discursive and unsystematic they may appear to be, can always be analyzed and essentialized into some form of social identity that is said to account for a shared social reality across time and space. However, the question that has been left out of the picture is: Does language lend reliability to such theoretical generalization? Block never seems to have paid attention, if any, to questions like this, and this is precisely where the problem of his theory lies.

Reconceptualizing the reconceptualization

After a brief discussion of Block’s reconceptualization of SLA, or rather, reconceptualization of the three concepts: “second,” “language,” and “acquisition,” the question that one cannot help but ask is: Is SLA reconceptualized? Block’s argument may have brought some new perspectives that tend to shift the focus of SLA research to a more socially-oriented perspective, but at the same time it remains largely in conformity with the traditional/mainstream cognitive approach to SLA study in terms of its conceptualization of language. Those common grounds, or rather, common misconceptions, are exactly the reasons why we should not grant our free pass to the alleged “social turn in SLA” too readily.

The time and space only allow me to focus on one of the most fundamental ideas that both sociolinguists and psycholinguists in SLA share, and that is the conception of language as an autonomous system. Rarely do we see linguists nowadays, especially those who work in applied linguistic fields, directly citing Saussure in regard to the idea of language being an autonomous system, yet it is not because this idea has been disposed to the historical trash bin; quite the opposite, it is one of the most celebrated ideas in mainstream modern linguistics; so overarching that it becomes almost self-evident.

Within SLA, mainstream linguists' analysis of linguistic data is precisely based on such a *systems model of language* (Hutton 2009), in which the process of language acquisition is perceived as the learner, or rather the learner's mind, processing linguistic information at phonological, lexical, morphological, and syntactical levels. What seems especially interesting in Block's discussion of the "social turn in SLA" is that, despite all his challenges to the mainstream psycholinguistic approach, he seems perfectly happy with the idea of a language being an autonomous system. Time and again in his book (2003), Block feels obliged to make sure his friendly message is successfully and clearly delivered to the mainstream psycholinguists; that is,

at its most basic level, the language in SLA must surely be about linguistic competence, that communication is always about doing things with words (although what 'things' is obviously open to debate) and that conversational interaction with a view to exchanging information is common [...] across different language and cultures. I therefore do not envisage the wholesale replacement of this fundamentally instrumental view of language and communication with another... Rather, the point of the critique [...] is to attempt to develop a complement to what I think is an overly partial and limited view of language and communication. (p.69)

Therefore, in Block's view, there is nothing wrong with the systems view of language, except for the fact that it disregards the social environment where the system functions. Despite the fact that Block (2003, 2006, 2007) does take a clear stance in his work by claiming that he adopts a poststructuralist view, which defines culture as constructive and dynamic, identity as "fragmented and contested in nature" (2006, p.26), and language as linguistic competence plus communicative competence (2003, p.69), the systems view of language has never lost its place as fundamental to the ongoing critique of poststructuralism over structuralism within SLA. As Hutton once remarked,

[t]he history of linguistics since Saussure can be seen as a series of attempts to reconnect the systems model to social, psychological or neurological reality, without relinquishing the idea of language as a system itself, and the disciplinary autonomy and authority that it sustains. (2009, p.45)

Block's promotion of a "social turn in SLA" is just such an example. On one hand, Block declares that communication is highly fragmented and dynamic; on the other, he also believes that the neatly stratified language system can provide reliable index to the discursive communication activities in real life. If everyday communication among language learners is indeed as complicated and contingent as Block defines it to be, it should not escape Block that such complexity and contingency of human interaction precisely *defy* the kind of oversimplified generalization and categorization that claims to account for things as they are. Therefore, the systems view of language must be abandoned if language learning is ever to be studied as diversified, dynamic, and contingent communicational activities. There are two reasons for arguing so.

First, the diversity and dynamicity of language learning activities are not reducible to fixed categories that can allegedly account for some shared "social reality." For various language learning and teaching purposes, communication has been simplified as thought

exchange codified into a certain language, and language as meaning plus form. Despite the fact that linguists nowadays start to pay attention to the social context of learning, when it comes down to the language classroom, the view of language being a system of meaning plus form is still what is eventually gets across to the language learners. Linguists and language teachers believe they are merely stating “linguistic facts”, but there is no view of language that is *not* value-laden or theory-laden. As Roy Harris correctly points out, language is “an artifact of the classifications and ideological subterfuges deployed in order to produce it” (as quoted in Toolan 2009, p.39). There is always a sociopolitical picture that goes with every language name, but this rarely comes to the learner’s mind precisely because of the way he/she is taught about language(s) from the outset. One cannot be too careful about the impact the systems view of language has had on SLA. As Harris continuously cautions linguists and language teachers: “conceptions of what a language is, *from a certain position*, determine how languages are taught” (Toolan 2009). I believe the other side of the coin is: how languages are *learnt* is also determined by the same set of conceptions we were taught as kids of what a language is. While we are learning that there are such things as English and grammar, we are not taking in mere “facts”; we are being lectured and shaped to believe in a certain view about language. The problem with such a simplistic view of a language being a system is that it is not going to equip language learners in substantial sense when it comes to solving real-world problems that demand on the learner’s part the integration of many more activities that go beyond mere competence in reproducing some utterances one has learned to produce in a language class. Block is certainly right that learner identity is one very important part of that process of communicational integration, but he fails to see that the simplistic view of language that the learner absorbs in class is inadequate preparation for coping with such complex and contingent social problems as identity issues in communication.

The other no less important reason for Block, or SLA in general, to abandon a systems view of language is that it still lends language study to a method that draws a line between “the linguistic” and the “non-linguistic.” Block’s reconceptualization seems to be an attempt at putting SLA study back in a sociocultural environment. However, conceptualizing language as an autonomous and closed system that functions in a social environment does not solve the problem. In fact, it requires a reconceptualization of language as a social construct that is dynamic, discursive, and always subjects itself to contextualization in moment-to-moment communication. If language is not some shared system, it follows then that the individuals, or specifically language learners in our case, must take on their own “linguistic responsibilities” for their own social experiences (Harris 1998, p.4, p.71). It is a social and moral commitment that one automatically binds with during communication, in the sense that “[p]eople are expected to take linguistic responsibility for the words they use, at least to the extent of being able to explain what they mean if called upon to do so” (Harris 1998, p.71). Furthermore, in order for the learner’s explanation of his/her utterance to be accountable, language must not be something outside the language learner him/herself; in other words, it must not be a dehumanized autonomous system. This is precisely because meaning is *not* given by a linguistic system, or any other cultural system that claims to exist in advance of the communicational situation; it is *created* by the language learner in that communication situation. Both the uniqueness of every language-learner’s social and cultural experiences

and the linguistic responsibility that every language learner has for his/her own communicational activities point to the need of rejecting the systems view of language in SLA at large. In recent years, there have been SLA studies that focus on the narratives of language learners (e.g. Pavlenko & Lantolf, as quoted in Lantolf 2000; Swain 2011), however, whether these studies have fallen back on a systems view of language still remains debatable, and the question itself has already gone beyond what I can afford to talk about in this short paper.

Conclusion

Our discussion of David Block's promotion of a "social turn in SLA" has almost come to its end. His reconceptualization of the three concepts, namely "second," "language," and "acquisition," has launched quite a forceful attack on some of the problems in current mainstream SLA theory. However, as we have seen, Block's reconceptualization of SLA still buys into the same systems view of language that mainstream linguists have as the bedrock of their theory. This systems view of language takes language as objective and value-free entities that functions within certain social environments. This view not only bases the analysis of complex communication activities on some reduced form of a language system, but also draws boundaries between the linguistic and the non-linguistic and thus pushes aside some socioculturally significant issues like linguistic responsibility. This paper does not aim to provide some alternative model for language learning, but it does hope to provide another perspective for both SLA researchers and language learners to rethink about what they have believed about language and language learning. That is, what would language learning be like, if there is no such thing as a priori language system? In order to answer this question, I have very roughly envisaged a few possible issues to explore in the future, which I would also like to have as an open-ending for this paper. These issues are:

1. The focus on learners' communication activities, such as how they integrate various verbal and non-verbal activities and how they understand/perceive their own integration of activities and those of their interlocutors;
2. The focus on the cultivation of learners' creativity in communication, and how it is related to the development of their agency and metalinguistic and metacultural awareness;
3. The possible methods of detecting learners' intellectual fluency in the target language without having grammar acting as the yardstick;
4. What are the moral, social and political issues that arise from the process of encountering the target language? How can the learner contextualize such issues with his/her own past experiences in both the classroom-based learning environment and in real-life communication?
5. How do the learner's own communication experiences contribute to his learning of the target language? This means that how can the learner start his/her learning

of the target language from a different end, not from the grammatical rules but from one's own social experiences?

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*The Interaction between Lower- and Higher-level Processing in Foreign Language (FL)
Reading: An Examination of the Inhibition and Compensation
Hypotheses for Chinese University-level EFL Readers*

Feifei Han

0061

the University of Sydney, Sydney, Australia

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Abstract:

This presentation outlines a research project investigating the two competing hypotheses: whether inefficiency word processing and small working memory capacity inhibit lexical inferencing and text comprehension in FL reading or whether readers could use strategies to compensate for processing and language problems so that text comprehension and lexical inferencing are not influenced much. On the one hand, Verbal Efficiency Model suggests that inefficiency in lower-level processing inhibits text comprehension. Extending from VEM, some researchers hypothesize that efficient lower-level processing could free up readers' working memory so that attention can be directed to the new lexical items, hence leading to superior learning of new words. On the other hand, compensatory encoding-model (C-EM) maintains that readers with inefficient word processing and small working memory capacity are constantly involved in applying compensatory mechanisms (behaviors and strategies) in reading when no time constraint is imposed on them to achieve good comprehension by simply spending more time. C-EM model seems to suggest using strategies to solve processing problems enable readers to direct more attention at local level, which might result in deeper processing of new lexical items. The proposed research will adopt a mixed method design, collecting both quantitative and qualitative data. The quantitative data gather information on the products of text comprehension and lexical inferencing, whereas the qualitative data collect processes of using strategies as well as the products obtained by using strategies. The study will provide empirical evidence towards the two competing hypotheses in FL reading with Chinese EFL learners at university level.

1 Introduction

The current study aims to test the inhibition and compensation hypotheses for FL reading with university level Chinese learners of English as a foreign language (EFL). This study adopts a mixed-method design that consists of two sub-studies: a quantitative and a qualitative sub-study. For the quantitative sub-study, approximately 400 Chinese learners of English as a foreign language (EFL) will be recruited. They will read texts in two conditions: a time pressure condition and a no time pressure condition. They will be asked to perform tasks measuring their lower-level processing, their reading comprehension and their incidental learning of new vocabulary during reading in both reading conditions. The emphasis of the quantitative sub-study is on whether time pressure affects the role of lower-level processing in reading comprehension and incidental vocabulary learning.

In the qualitative sub-study, around 30 participants (who are not in the quantitative study) will be invited to think aloud during reading, and their use of lexical inferencing strategies will be investigated in detail. Just as in the quantitative study, participants will be asked to perform tasks measuring their lower-level processing. The focus of the qualitative study is on the interaction between lower-level processing and the use of lexical inferencing strategies, and whether the use of these strategies influences global text comprehension.

Literature review

Reading comprehension processes

The major goal of reading is to make sense of the text (Adams, 1990). In order to construct meaning from print, this sense-making activity involves highly complex processes (Block, 2004; Pressley, 2002; Rumelhart, 1994). According to Kintsch (1998), reading comprehension begins from the processing of words. It involves processes of understanding the meaning of words and sentences, and the combination of information from meaning units (referred as propositions) formed from words and sentences. All the meaning units are then integrated into a network of ideas referred to as a text model to in order to build coherent idea units in WM. The text model is then interpreted by the readers on the basis of their prior knowledge to generate a mental representation referred to as a situation model of comprehension, which is the final product of the reading process.

Processes involved in understanding the meaning of words and sentences to form meaning units are normally referred to as lower-level processes. These processes are predominantly linguistic processes, including recognizing words and retrieval their meanings (i.e. word processing), analysing the syntactic structure of the sentences (i.e. syntactic parsing), and forming elementary meaning units (i.e. semantic proposition encoding) (Grabe, 2009). The comprehension building processes are called higher-level processes. These are the processes involved in integrating meanings from meaning units to build a text model, and the processes involved in making personal interpretations to build a situation model. Strategic processing, in which a variety of strategies are orchestrated to resolve comprehension problems such as solving processing problems and unknown words, is also commonly envisaged as a higher-level process (Grabe, 2009). Lower-level processes have the potential to become automated, and automatic processing is a prerequisite for fluent reading (Anderson, 2000; Segalowitz, 2000). In contrast, higher-level processes tend to be controlled processes, which are “slow, error prone, and serial in nature” (Walczyk, 2000, p. 554).

In the process of reading, information is kept active temporarily and is rehearsed when necessary in a special cognitive place called WM (Baddeley, 2006). WM stores and combines activated words, carries out syntactic parsing, suppresses irrelevant information to form a network for the text model, and to achieve a coherent mental representation for the situation model (Friedman & Miyake, 2004). Technically speaking, WM is not a reading process, but rather is a capacity for cognitive processing to take place (Grabe, 2009). However, reading researchers often consider WM in tandem with lower-level processes because “it is essential to an understanding of how lower-level (and higher-level) processes operate and are integrated.” (Grabe, 2009, p. 33).

Readers do not limit themselves to using only lower-level processes or higher-level processes. Nor do they use lower-level processes at certain stages of the reading process and higher-level processes at others. Rather, proficient readers integrate aspects of lower-level and higher-level processes skillfully (Grabe, 2009).

With regard to the integration and interaction of lower- and higher-level processes in reading, different researchers have taken different theoretical standpoints. On the one hand, some researchers emphasize lower-level processes such as word processing, and suggest that inefficiency in word processing inhibits higher-level processes, such as text modelling and the use of reading strategies (Perfetti, 1985; 1999). In the present study, this hypothesis is referred to as the inhibition hypothesis. On the other hand, other researchers suggest that beyond the initial stages of learning to read, strategic processes are able in order to compensate for inefficiency in lower-level processes, and as a result, comprehension is not greatly influenced (Walczky, 2000;). In the present study, this hypothesis is referred to as the compensation hypothesis.

The main aim of the present study is to test these two competing hypotheses for FL reading by examining the interaction between lower-level processes (i.e. word processing and WM) and higher-level processes (i.e. lexical inferencing strategies). In the following sub-sections, the specific constructs involved in the current study will be explained.

Word processing

Word processing is the most frequently “recurring cognitive activity” in reading (Perfetti, 2007). For skilled readers, recognizing a word occurs in less than 100 milliseconds (Breznitz, 2006). Although word processing is fast, it involves a number of sub-processes, including visual recognition of the orthographic forms of words and activation of the links between the graphic form and phonological information (referred to as word decoding or phonological decoding), and retrieval relevant semantic resources through the mental lexicon (referred to as lexical access) (Perfetti & Hart, 2001).

In the reading research literature, it is often the case that researchers equate word decoding with lexical access. As Grabe (2009) stated: “in many contexts, they amount to much the same phenomenon” (p. 26). Ehri (1992) believed that even in young children, word decoding automatically leads to lexical access. However, Stanovich (2000) maintained that in order for the semantic meaning to be automatically activated from word decoding, the meaning of the word must be adequately established in memory. In FL reading, it is simply not the case that recognizing the orthographic form or pronouncing the phonological form of the word guarantees

access to the semantic meaning of that word in readers' mental lexicons (Grabe, 2009). Often times, learners can distinguish real words from non-words, or can sound a word aloud, or realize that a word has been encountered before, but cannot access the meaning of these words (Grabe, 2009). Thus, for FL reading, it seems that lexical access is able to provide a more meaningful and valid representation of readers' word processing skills than a lexical decoding measure such as word recognition.

Working memory

WM is a system for the temporal storage and cognitive processing of information (Baddeley, 2006). This means that WM contains active storage and processing functions (Baddeley, 2006). WM is limited in its capacity: "it has limited storage, limited linkages to long-term memory, and limited abilities to carry out multiple processes simultaneously, or nearly simultaneously" (Grabe, 2009, p. 22). WM is important for conducting a variety of cognitive tasks that require controlled attention, such as comprehending, learning, and reasoning, learning (Baddeley, 2000).

Lexical inferencing

During reading, especially reading in a FL, readers frequently encounter new words, and if they are sufficiently skilled readers, they then apply a variety of strategies to figure out the meaning of these new words. Strategies for deriving the meaning of new words are often termed "lexical inferencing strategies". These are thought to be practiced by all readers to varying degrees in order to solve language problems in reading (Huckin & Coady, 1999), and they are important ways for learners to cope with difficult texts (Grabe, 2009). The correctly guessed words can be integrated into the existing mental lexicon, and these words can be learned during reading as a by-product of lexical inferencing. The learning of these words is often referred to as incidental vocabulary learning through reading (Pulido, 2004; 2009).

In order to infer the meaning of words, the reader needs to notice that the orthographic form of a particular word is unfamiliar and to be alerted that a gap exists in his/her current mental lexicon. This initial gap noticing is known as lexical bootstrapping (de Bot, Paribakht, & Weshe, 1997; Sternberg, 1987; Pulido, 2009), and occurs in WM concurrently with other reading processes (Pulido, 2009). The reader may attempt to derive the meaning of the word by analysing the word's internal structure, by using contextual cues, by applying some extralinguistic knowledge, or by orchestrating all of these. In this process, the activated multiple cues are held in WM to create the meaning of the new words. Lexical inferencing is considered to be a crucial step for successful incidental vocabulary learning to take place (de Bot, Paribakht, & Wesche, 1997; Huckin & Coady, 1999; Paribakht & Weshe, 1999). Consequently, in the current study, measures of both lexical inferencing and incidental vocabulary learning through reading will be included.

Theoretical framework

The inhibition and compensation hypotheses will be explained by using two models. The inhibition hypothesis will be introduced by using the Verbal Efficiency Model (VEM) proposed by Perfetti and his colleagues (Perfetti, 1985; Perfetti & Hart, 2001); and the compensation hypothesis will be introduced by using the Compensatory-Encoding Model (C-EM) by Walczyk and his associates (e.g. Walczyk, 2000).

Verbal Efficiency Model and the inhibition hypothesis

According to Perfetti's (1985) VEM model, subcomponents in reading are arranged in a hierarchical manner and different reading processes have ranges of processing efficiency, with some processes having more potential to become automatic through extensive practice than other processes. These more easily automated processes are lower-level processes (Perfetti, 1985, 1994, 1999). VEM assumes that the cognitive resources (attention and WM) necessary for good reading comprehension are limited in capacity. Therefore, efficient lower-level processing skills allow cognitive resources to be used for other higher-level comprehension processes. Efficient word processing skills are central to the model and VEM maintains that the inefficient word processing skills often inhibit readers' problems with higher-level comprehension skills (e.g. processing of the concepts in texts, building a coherent interpretation of text content, and use of reading strategies). VEM suggests that even in the adult population, for whom reading is presumably a well-practiced skill, there exists considerable variation in terms of efficiency of word processing.

Specifically in relation to lexical inferencing, it has been claimed that the use of lexical inferencing strategies themselves can also be inhibited by inefficient word processing skills (Haynes & Carr, 1990). Although this notion falls outside the VEM model, it nonetheless highlights the prominent role of word processing. Haynes and Carr (1990) maintained that efficiency of word processing of known words would "leave more processing resources free for the reader to use in drawing appropriated inferences for new words" (p. 9). Moreover, from the perspective of incidental vocabulary learning during reading, Pulido (2007) pointed out that successful incidental vocabulary learning might depend on "individual's text processing efficiency (e.g. ability in word recognition and syntactic processes) and working memory" (p. 68), and "if there are too many constraints on the individual's processing capacity, then the new words maybe processed more superficially, and are less likely to be retrieved from memory" (p. 66).

As mentioned, lexical inferencing is a crucial step in successful incidental vocabulary learning during reading (de Bot, Paribakht, & Wesche, 1997; Huckin & Coady, 1999; Paribakht, 2005; Paribakht & Wesche, 1999), so Pulido's (2007) postulation is relevant to lexical inferencing. It suggests that a lack of efficiency in word processing, and/or a deficiency in cognitive capacities, such as limited WM, may actually hinder readers' uses of lexical inferencing strategies, and may also prevent new words being integrated into existing lexical knowledge (Craik & Tulving, 1975; Ellis, 1994, 2001; Pulido, 2004, 2007).

Compensatory-Encoding Model and the compensation hypothesis

In proposing the C-EM model of reading, Walczky and his associates (Walczky, 2000; Walczky, Marsiglia, Bryan, & Naquin, 2001) adopted basic assumptions of the VEM model but added compensatory mechanisms. Compensatory mechanisms are metacognitive in nature (Walczyk, 1995), and are controlled processes, which have characteristics of slowness, serial in nature, and attention-demanding (Walczky, 2000; Wickens, 1984). The establishment of the C-EM attempts to explain "the interplay between automatic and control processes" in reading (Walczyk, 2000, p. 35). According to the C-EM, in fluent reading lower-level processing, such as indentifying letters, processing words, and analysing the syntactic structure tend to be carried out automatically. As lower-level processes occur quickly and efficiently, they make few demands on attention and WM. As a result, attention and WM can be used for higher-level comprehension processes. In situations where readers encounter problems, such as problems with processing words efficiently,

or lack of language knowledge, the C-EM assumes that readers turn to compensatory mechanisms. The C-EM also assumes that readers with a small WM are more likely to turn to compensatory mechanisms.

Two different kinds of compensatory mechanisms are distinguished in the C-EM: behaviours and strategies. Compensatory behaviours (e.g. slowing reading rate, and subvocalizing) are “processing adjustments that overcome an inefficient reading subcomponent while making minimal demands on attention” (Walczyk, 2000, p. 561), whereas compensatory strategies overcome both verbal inefficiency and lack of language knowledge “via sustained shifting of attention from text modelling” (p. 561). This means that compensatory strategies can be further distinguished between strategies for solving processing problems (e.g. looking back, reading aloud, jumping over, and rereading) and strategies for solving language problems (e.g. lexical inferencing strategies). The current study will look at compensatory strategies rather than behaviours. Compensatory lexical inferencing strategies are the focus of the study, as these strategies have not been investigated in FL reading under the C-EM model.

C-EM entails two important predictions for the compensation hypothesis. The first prediction is that when there is no time pressure, inefficient word processing and small WM “does not normally affect performance during reading because compensatory mechanisms operate routinely during performance” (Walczyk, 1993, p. 127). Under time pressure, controlled compensatory mechanisms are less likely to be operated freely, hence, word processing skills become more strongly associated with reading comprehension. The second prediction is that when reading occurs under no time pressure, word processing and WM are often negatively related to the operations of compensatory mechanism. This means that in comparison to readers with efficient word processing, inefficient readers use more strategies directed to solving problems. It also means that when there is no time pressure, the use of compensatory mechanisms is more predictive of global reading comprehension than are word processing and WM (Walczyk & Taylor, 1996).

Empirical evidence

Empirical evidence for inhibition and compensation in L1 reading

In L1 reading, the common finding is that word processing is a good predictor of reading comprehension for beginning readers (Perfetti, 1985), and word recognition among children is a major factor contributing to their later reading abilities (Adams, 1990; Perfetti, 1999, 2007; Perfetti, Landi, & Oakhill, 2005).

However, a single study exists that contradicts this finding. Walczyk, Marsiglia and Johns (2004) found that third graders appeared to be able to compensate for poor word processing. Measures of semantic access efficiency and WM were found to be significantly negatively correlated with both compensatory behaviours (i.e. pausing) and compensatory strategies (i.e. rereading and sounding out words). Thus, readers with inefficient lower-level processing used more strategies, but achieved literal comprehension scores comparable with those of efficient readers. The findings of this study supported the predictions made by C-EM.

Whether word processing inhibits the reading comprehension of older L1 readers who are beyond the period of acquiring reading skills is more ambiguous. On the one hand, some studies showed

that word processing is a good predictor for reading comprehension even among adult readers. On the other hand, other studies have found that there was only a weak link or no link between word processing and reading comprehension for older L1 readers (e.g. Roth & Beck, 1987; Walczyk & Raska, 1992).

A handful of studies with adult native English readers exist that provide some empirical evidence for the compensation hypothesis. Walczyk (1995) found that in a no time pressure condition, none of the measures of lexical access and WM (speed and accuracy) was correlated with comprehension. However, in a time pressure condition, a number of these measures were correlated with comprehension. The results provided some evidence for the C-EM model, that under no time pressure, word processing and WM did not predict reading comprehension.

In two studies (Walczyk *et al.*, 2001; Walczyk & Taylor, 1996), Walczyk and his colleagues provided partial support for the predictions made in the C-EM. The results of the two study showed that compensatory mechanisms (i.e. behaviours and strategies) were negatively correlated with the speed of lexical access and the speed measure of WM, suggesting that readers of inefficient lower-level processing used more frequently compensatory mechanisms. However, Walczyk and Taylor (1996) found that speed of lexical access did negatively correlate with text comprehension, meaning the faster to retrieve the meaning of words leads to better reading comprehension.

Empirical evidence for inhibition and compensation in FL reading

In FL reading, whether inefficient word processing inhibits reading comprehension has produced inconsistent results (e.g. Haynes & Carr, 1990; Nassaji & Geva, 1999; Stevenson, 2005). On the one hand, word processing was found to positively correlate with reading comprehension in FL reading, suggesting the more proficient a FL reader process at word or sub-word level, the better he/she can achieve in comprehension (e.g. Nassaji, 2003a; Nassaji & Geva, 1999). These positive and significant correlations obtained in these studies suggest that inefficient word processing inhibits reading comprehension. For instance, Nassaji and Geva (1999) and Nassaji (2003a) found that both processing beneath word level (orthographic processing) and word level processing significantly correlated with reading comprehension for adult FL readers of English speaking Farsi as their L1.

On the other hand, in other studies, word processing has been found not to influence comprehension significantly (e.g. Haynes & Carr, 1990; Stevenson, 2005); and FL readers have been found to be able to use strategies to compensate for word processing inefficiency (e.g. Stevenson, 2005). For instance, Haynes and Carr (1990) found that among Chinese EFL learners, although word processing variables (i.e. word decoding variable and lexical access variable) in English reading positively correlated with reading speed, they did not correlate with levels of comprehension. Similarly, in a think-aloud study by Stevenson (2005) with Dutch adolescent EFL readers, the results suggested that word processing efficiency did not significantly correlate with levels of global reading comprehension.

To the best of the writer's knowledge, Stevenson's study (2005) is the only study that uses C-EM to investigate the relationship between automatic processes (i.e. word processing) and controlled processes (i.e. strategic processing), and global text comprehension in FL reading. Word

processing speed was measured by a lexical decision task, which asked the participants to decide as quickly as possible whether letter strings appearing on a computer screen is a real English words or not. The reading strategies were collected using think-aloud protocols and were coded along three dimensions (orientation of processing; type of processing; and domain of processing). The results of correlation analyses showed that readers who were slower at word processing used a greater number of strategies than those are more efficient at processing. This study provides empirical evidence that readers with slower word processing are able to use strategies to compensate so that reading comprehension is not influenced.

Empirical evidence for inhibition and compensation in lexical inferencing in FL reading

In the literature, most of the studies on FL lexical inferencing have examined readers' conscious use of strategies to guess the meaning of new words. Most lexical inferencing studies deliberately direct learners' attention to the new words by underlining them. According to Nagy, Anderson, and Herman (1987), this practice "tells us very little about how likely a person is to figure out and remember the meanings of unfamiliar words during normal reading" (p. 238). Existing studies have shown that learners' lexical inferencing behaviours are influenced by a variety of factors, including characteristics of learners, reading texts, as well as characteristics of the TWs to be guessed. For example, learners' level of language proficiency has been found to influence the types of lexical inferencing strategies to derive meanings of unknown words.

There do not appear to be any empirical studies on the interaction between lexical inferencing strategies and lower-level processing. However, there are several studies on the relationship between lower-level processing and incidental vocabulary learning, which as explained, is a product of lexical inferencing (i.e. Chun & Paynes, 2004; Hamada & Koda, 2010; Haynes & Carr, 1990).

These studies provide conflicting results as to whether word processing inhibits incidental vocabulary learning. Haynes and Carr (1990) provided some evidence for the inhibition hypothesis. They found a positive relationship between lexical access and the gaining of word meanings, suggesting that the more efficient a reader is in word processing, the more successful the reader is in learning the meaning of new words during reading. However, the results of a more recent study by Hamada and Koda (2010) (based on Hamada, 2005) suggested that word processing efficiency did not inhibit incidental vocabulary learning during reading, as a correlation analysis showed no significant relationship between decoding efficiency and the incidental learning of the meaning and use of the TWs. The results, however, could have been influenced by the measure of word processing used in the study: the sounding words and non-aloud of words might not truly represent the word processing of FL readers since it did not test whether readers know the meaning of the words.

Chun and Paynes (2004) investigated the relationship between WM and incidental vocabulary learning with English native-speaking learners of German in reading multimedia texts, in which the TWs were glossed. The results of the study suggested WM did not inhibit incidental vocabulary learning, since no differences between readers with higher and lower WM were found for the learning of new words. The readers with lower WM were found to look up glosses significantly more frequently than readers with higher WM, but they achieved the comparable level of reading comprehension. The researchers explained that the non-significant differences for

reading comprehension and incidental vocabulary learning were probably caused by the fact that readers with lower WM were able to compensate for small WM with more frequent looking-up behaviors. The study leaves questions that whether readers are able to use lexical inferencing strategies as a means to compensate for lower-level processing during reading.

Research questions

The general research question guiding the present study is:

Is there evidence for inhibition or compensation in FL reading among Chinese university EFL readers?

The question will be answered by carrying out both a quantitative sub-study and a qualitative sub-study.

The quantitative sub-study addresses whether time pressure is a factor influencing the role of lower-level processing (i.e. word processing and WM) in text comprehension and incidental vocabulary learning, which is the product of lexical inferencing strategies. The sub-research questions for this study are:

1. What is the relationship between lower-level processing (i.e. word processing and WM) and text comprehension in FL reading a. under time pressure and b. under no-time pressure?
2. What is the relationship between lower-level processing (i.e. word processing and WM) and incidental vocabulary learning in FL reading a. under time pressure and b. under no-time pressure?

The qualitative sub-study addresses the relationship between lower-level processing (i.e. word processing and WM) and uses of compensatory strategies (i.e. strategies solving processing problems and lexical inferencing strategies). It also examines the relationship between uses of strategies and text comprehension. The sub-research questions for this study are:

3. What compensatory strategies do learners use to solve processing problems and to solve lexical problems (i.e. lexical inferencing strategies)?
4. What is the relationship between lower-level processing (i.e. word processing and WM) and uses of strategies (i.e. strategies solving processing problems and lexical inferencing strategies) in FL reading?
5. What is the relationship between uses of strategies (i.e. strategies solving processing problems and lexical inferencing strategies) and text comprehension in FL reading?

Research Method

Setting and participants

The study will be conducted at one of the universities in China. Approximately 400 second-year Chinese university EFL learners will be recruited to participate in the quantitative part of the study. Another 30 students (not participating in the quantitative study) will be recruited for the qualitative part of the study.

Rationale for methodology

This research adopts a mixed-methods design. Cohen and Manion (1985) pointed out that the reliance on only one kind of research method is very likely to result in the representation of one side of the coin, whereas the use of two or more methods from multiple perspectives has the capability to represent more fully the complexity of issues being researched. Specifically, the use

of a mixed-methods paradigm is important for a study like the present one, which will not only examines the product of human behaviors (i.e. levels of text comprehension, vocabulary intake and knowledge gain), but also processes related to human behaviors (i.e. use of reading strategies).

Data collection methods and scoring

Data collection methods for the quantitative study and the qualitative study are listed in Table 1.

Table 1 Data collection methods in quantitative and qualitative sub-studies

Sub-studies	Instruments
Quantitative Sub-study	lexical access measure
	WM measure
	text comprehension task under no time pressure
	text comprehension task under time pressure
	incidental vocabulary learning tasks for texts under no time pressure reading
	incidental vocabulary learning tasks for texts under time pressure reading
Qualitative Sub-study	lexical access measure
	WM measure
	text comprehension task under no time pressure
	incidental vocabulary learning tasks under no time pressure
	think-aloud protocols

Limitations of the study

As with all empirical research, the proposed research faces some limitations. Ideally, the participants for the qualitative sub-study should come from the quantitative sub-study, so that the results from the two sub-studies are complementary. However, this would mean an additional set of reading texts and incidental vocabulary learning tasks would need to be created because it is not feasible for the participants in the qualitative sub-study to repeat the same tasks used in the quantitative sub-study. This would be too burdensome in terms of instrument design and would also be too burdensome for the participants who would take part in the both studies. Therefore, a decision was made to recruit a separate cohort of participants for the two sub-studies.

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Xitsonga Language - Missing Link on the South Africa's Higher Education Language Policies

Paul Hendry Nkuna, Ximbani Eric Mabaso

0063

University of South Africa, Pretoria, South Africa

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Abstract:

In accordance with the South African Constitution and Higher Education Act, the Language Policy for Higher Education in South Africa aims to promote multilingualism and the development of the indigenous languages for teaching and learning. Xitsonga is one of those indigenous languages need to to be developed. In attempt to address the issue of developing indigenous languages, in this article we report against the South African universities' choice of enforcing to develop the languages offered as part of their undergraduate degrees in the old system. We explore the environmental factors need to be followed by South African universities when formulating their language policies. The main emphasis is on how Xitsonga language is overlooked in their policies.

INTRODUCTION

In the Bill of Rights, section 6(1) of the Constitution of South Africa (Act 108 of 1996) recognises Xitsonga as one of the 11 official languages in South Africa. Xitsonga is one of the indigenous languages whose diminished use and status is recognised by section 6(2) of the same Act, which advises the State to take active measures to promote the use and status of these languages. The language is also part of the official languages or languages that section 29(2) provides: “Everyone has the right to receive education in the official language or languages of their choice in public educational institutions where that education is reasonably practicable.”

In this paper, we examine the recognition of Xitsonga in South African universities’ language policies and the missing link by means of an analysis of legal provisions in the South African context. The discussion is based on literature review; the provisions of higher education on Xitsonga; responses from six universities; data of student enrolment; and the missing link with brief recommendations.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Article 1 of the 1960 UNESCO Convention against Discrimination in Education defines discrimination to include any distinction, exclusion, limitation or preference which is based on language. Hence, the focus of literature review in this study is on three aspects: Language rights; official language; and minority rights.

A review on language rights

Lagerspetz (1998:183) identifies three properties of “the right to use one’s own language”. They are active assistance from others; choice to be made by the state to recognize some language(s) as official language(s); and the effects of the distribution of burdens and benefits between citizens. In the context of this study, English and Stapleton (1997:64) cited in Mothata and Lemmer (2002:107), are referring to “the right of students to receive education in their own language.” This includes the right for a student to use his or her own language; a provision for him or her to learn his or her own language; and a provision to equal access to his or her education and “the right to learn in the mother tongue” (Ibid, 2002:107). Xitsonga speakers also have those rights.

A review on official language

Talking about official language, is Carrier (2011:1) who says it “generally revolves around legislation, policies, and court decisions. We forget that, behind this issue, there are people first of all.” In the context of South Africa, the people are members of 11 linguistic communities. Consequently, Lagerspetz (1998:183) concludes:

By ‘official language’ I mean a language which can be effectively used in official contexts. A language may be symbolically recognized as ‘official’ language, but if ...there is no higher educational institution using the language etc. it does not qualify as an official language in any sense.

At the Heart of Official Language usage by a higher educational institution, is “the Notion of Equality...and the Issue of National Unity,” (Albert, 2011:2). Section 6 of the Constitution of the

Republic of South Africa, 1996, provides for the use of 11 official languages of South Africa and for all official languages to enjoy parity of esteem and to be treated equitably,

A review on minority rights

The issue of minority rights in education is, as Mothata and Lemmer (2002:106) confirm, “particularly sensitive in South Africa where members of previously disadvantaged groups regard the demand for minority protection with suspicion.” For instance, Prinsloo (2011:3) observes:

(The) South African Government “insists that ‘languages must enjoy parity of esteem and must be treated equitably’, while it is quite clear that even among the ‘African’ languages of the eleven ones, there is no ‘parity’”.

‘African’ in the above quotation refers to ‘indigenous’ and Kalua and Nkealah (2009:4) say Dr Chimbganda indicates “the so-called ‘native’, ‘home’ or ‘first’ language speakers are a minority in many universities in developing countries”. All these factors have an influence on the Xitsonga language and the missing link when drafting language policies in the country’s universities. Xitsonga is used as an example of a minority language in many cases. For example, in their report, the Ministerial Committee (2005:17) states that “Xitsonga, SiSwati, Tshivenda and isiNdebele with only 1, 6% each, have the smallest concentration of speakers. Of course this reflects the total national figures.” Cluver (1996:19) refers to “the maintenance of minority languages (such as Tsonga or Venda in South Africa.” Thus, regarding the term ‘minority’, Mothata and Lemmer (2002:106) say, it “carries both quantitative meaning and political connotation.” Deschênes (1986:289) cited in Henrard (2001:79) asserts that “it is possible to distinguish certain essential components, some of which are objective and others subjective... which contribute to a better understanding of the minority concept.” Mothata and Lemmer’s (2002) quantitative meaning of minority is objective, because:

The objective components of the minority concept can be listed as possessing... linguistic features which are different from those possessed by the rest of the population, that is comprising less than 50% of the total population, and fulfilling the so-called ‘non-dominance’ requirement, namely that the minority should not have a dominant position over the rest of the population (Henrard, 2001:79).

Their political connotation of minority is subjective, because “the subjective component refers to the collective wish of the minority group to preserve and develop its own, separate identity.” (Ibid, 2001:79). Since the language of higher education in most of South Africa’s universities was English, those who do not speak English, Mothata and Lemmer (2002:106) conclude “are members of minority groups.” This is probably the reason Henrard (2001) thinks that English is an exception.

THE PROVISIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION ON XITSONGA

Language Policy (LP) for Higher Education

This is the first provision adopted by the Ministry of Education in November 2002. As in Chart 1 below, the LP included Xitsonga in the breakdown of the home languages of students registered in public universities and technikons (Universities of technology) in 2000.

Chart 1: Higher education's percentage (%) of the 2000 total enrolment per language

Language	% OF TOTAL ENROLMENTS
Afrikaans	16
English	32
IsiNdebele	1
IsiXhosa	11
IsiZulu	11
Sepedi	5
Sesotho	6
Setswana	6
siSwati	1
Tshivenda	2
Xitsonga	2
Other language	4
Language unknown	2
TOTAL	100

Source: Adapted from (Ministry of Education, 2002)

Although the total percent of the enrolments as from the source document is recorded as 100%, our calculation adds up to a total of 99%. In the LP, the Ministry of Education (2002:15) recommends, “the development, in the medium to long-term, of South African languages as mediums of instruction in higher education, alongside English and Afrikaans.” Xitsonga is one of those South African languages referred to in the above quotation.

Ministerial Committee Report (2005)

This is the second provision that provides guidelines for selecting indigenous languages for tuition at universities. Chart 2 below outlines guidelines of languages to be developed per university.

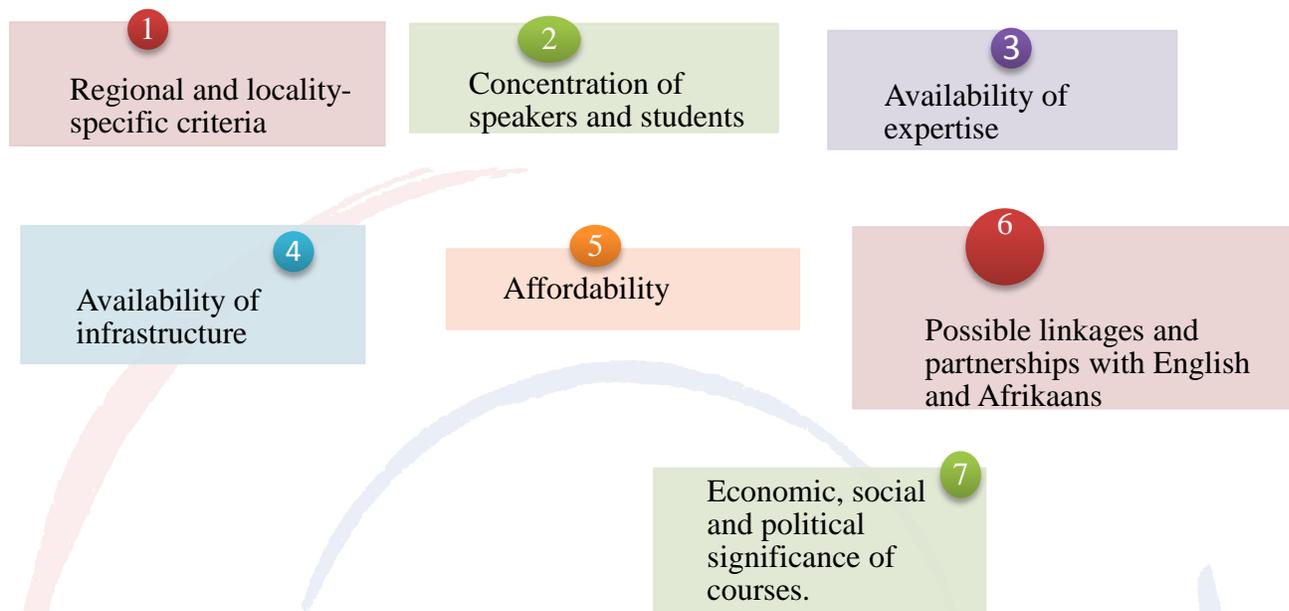
Chart 2: Guidelines of languages to be developed per university

Language	Universities	Number of universities
IsiNdebele	Pretoria; Unisa	2
IsiXhosa	Cape Town; Fort Hare; Free State; Nelson Mandela Metro; Rhodes; Stellenbosch; Unisa; Western Cape	8
IsiZulu	Johannesburg; Kwazulu-Natal; North-West; Unisa; Wits; Zululand	6
Sepedi	Limpopo; Johannesburg; Pretoria; Unisa; Venda	5
Sesotho	Cape Town; Free State; Stellenbosch; Unisa; Wits	5
Setswana	North-West; Pretoria; Unisa	3
siSwati	Unisa; Zululand	2
Tshivenda	Limpopo; Unisa; Venda	3
Xitsonga	Limpopo; Unisa; Venda	3

Source: Adapted from (Nkuna, 2010)

The committee concentrated on 16 universities, excluding technikons (universities of technology). The guidelines limit Xitsonga to three (3) i.e. 18, 8% of the 16 universities. The Ministerial Committee (2005) also recommended seven (7) criteria that could be used by the universities to formulate a framework that would enable it to make choices and determine priorities. Chart 3 outlines those seven criteria.

Chart 3: Seven criteria that could be used by the universities to formulate a framework that would enable it to make choices and determine priorities



Source: Adapted from (Ministerial Committee, 2005)

RESPONSES FROM SIX UNIVERSITIES TOWARDS XITSONGA

Universities Sample

Five of the six universities in this study are drawn from Gauteng Province, and the sixth university is the University of South Africa (Unisa). The five are University of Johannesburg (UJ), University of Pretoria (UP), Tshwane University of Technology (TUT), Vaal University of Technology (VUT) and University of Witwatersrand (Wits). Unisa is the only public Open and Distance Learning (ODL) University in the country and together with UJ, they are comprehensive universities. A comprehensive university offers both traditional and technological courses. UP and Wits are traditional universities, and TUT and VUT are technology universities.

Responses towards Xitsonga

It seems the criteria of regional and locality-specific criteria and the Ministerial Committee's (2005) guidelines dominate the five universities' decisions against Xitsonga, when Unisa seems to have even ignored these criteria and the Ministerial Committee Guidelines. Chart 4 outlines the six universities' decisions towards Xitsonga.

Chart 4: Six universities decisions' towards Xitsonga

University	LP Date of Approval	Primary language(s)	Secondary languages	Practicability
TUT	29 November 2005	English and Setswana	siSwati	Other languages
UJ	25 October 2006	Afrikaans, English and Sepedi	N/A	N/A
UP	October 2010	Afrikaans and English	N/A	N/A
UNISA	2006	English	N/A	Other languages
VUT	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
WITS	14 March 2003	English and Sesotho	N/A	N/A

Note that there is clearly no consideration for Xitsonga, except thinking that it might be included on two (33.3%) of the six universities – TUT and Unisa, a decision based on section 29(2) of the constitution that refers to *practicability*. Both TUT and VUT did not participate in the Ministerial Committee Report (2005), hence in no way the report has direct influence to them, but TUT overlooked Xitsonga as a primary language. Both the UJ and Wits seemed to have confined themselves to the recommendations of the Ministerial Committee Report (2005), and overlooked to consider Xitsonga to be part of their primary language. However, Unisa seemed to have overlooked the Ministerial Committee Report (2005), and automatically overlooked Xitsonga regarding its status of primary language. However, Unisa included the practicability statement.

DATA OF STUDENT ENROLMENT PER LANGUAGE

The student enrolments depicted in Chart 5 below are undergraduate enrolments of each of the six universities a year before that university approved its language policy.

Chart 5: Student enrolment per language

Language	TUT 2004	UJ 2005	UP 2009	Unisa 2005	VUT 2010	Wits 2002
Afrikaans	9%	8,6%	32,8%	10,3%	3,2%	1,05%
English	3%	16,6%	13,5%	9,1%	1,0%	29,5%
isiNdebele	1,6%	0,4%	1,9%	1,0%	0,8%	0,7%
isiXhosa	2,3%	2,4%	4,9%	7,5%	7,9%	4,4%
isiZulu	5,2%	9,7%	6,0%	13,7%	21,3%	11,5%
Sepedi	1,9%	3,9%	11,3%	10%	28%	4,4%
Sesotho	12,9%	5,9%	4,6%	3,9%	21,8%	2,5%
Setswana	9,2%	6,0%	6,3%	7,8%	15,6%	7,5%
siSwati	2,4%	0,9%	3,6%	1,7%	5,8%	1,9%
Tshivenda	3,2%	2,3%	1,9%	2,3%	11,9%	2,2%
Xitsonga	4,8%	2,2%	3,8%	3,0%	12,4%	3,1%
Others	42,5%	32,2%	4.1%	6,0%	9,2%	9,4%

Source: Adapted from (DHET, 2010)

THE HOME LANGUAGE PROFILE AND MISLEADING DATA

The subsection ‘A review on minority rights’ shows that the Ministerial Committee (2005) placed Xitsonga at 1,6%. It seems the 1,6% for Xitsonga and other languages except for isiNdebele figures. Reading the reasons for TUT to choose siSwati as a secondary language one finds the following statement:

SiSwati and IsiNdebele are the African languages spoken most in Mpumalanga. These two languages are more marginalized and underdeveloped than any other indigenous South African language. SiSwati is the language spoken most in Mpumalanga. It is spoken by 30% of the population of Mpumalanga, followed by IsiZulu (26%) and IsiNdebele (12%) (Tyobeka and Matlhare, 2005:8).

Chart 6 outlines the Home Language Profile of Gauteng Province and South Africa.

Chart 6: The Home Language Profile of Gauteng Province and South Africa

Language	Gauteng Province	South Africa
Afrikaans	14,36%	13,3%
English	12,51%	8,2%
IsiNdebele	1,95%	1,6%
IsiXhosa	7,59%	17,6%
IsiZulu	21,52%	23,8%
Sepedi	10,70%	9,4%
Sesotho	13,12%	7,9%
Setswana	8,36%	8,2%
SiSwati	1,39%	2,7%
Tshivenda	1,74%	2,3%
Xitsonga	5,72%	4,4%
Other	1,02%	0,5%

Source: Census 2001 cited in GLPF (2012:12)

The Xitsonga National Figure contradicts the figure of 1,6% provided by the Ministerial Committee (2005). Figures of Mpumalanga languages provided by TUT seem to be inaccurate. Chart 7 outlines another Mpumalanga's figures.

Chart 7: Another Mpumalanga's figures

Languages	Population %
siSwati	29.9%
isiZulu	24.1%
Xitsonga	11.6%
isiNdebele	10.3%
Sepedi	10.2%

Source: Adapted from Burger, Cronje' and Tibane (2004) and Wikipedia cited in

(Nkuna, 2010)

Note that the data in Chart 7 shows that Xitsonga has 11, 6% and is higher than isiNdebele that was said to have 12% in TUT's data. IsiZulu also has 24, 1% compared to TUT's figures of 26%.

XITSONGA AS A MISSING LINK

Higher education institutions seem to retain the Higher Education Extension Act of 1959 on the use and status of indigenous languages. Xitsonga is the case in point. The seven criteria of the Ministerial Committee's Report are in the heart of the Xitsonga missing link on South Africa's Higher Education Language Policies (see Chart 3). For instance:

- *Xitsonga is diminished into criterion 1:* Regional and locality-specific criteria extend apartheid higher education system into South Africa's democracy. The University Extension Act of 1959 promoted regional and locality-specific criteria to discriminate against Xitsonga speakers and the other eight indigenous languages in higher education. This resulted in Xitsonga becoming one of the missing links in South Africa's Higher Education Language Policies.
- *Xitsonga is disregarded in criterion 2:* The speakers and students Concentration criterion does not have minimum or maximum concentration of speakers and students. *The enrolment data of Xitsonga speakers in undergraduate a year before the adoption of LP in each of the six universities* count for more than 2%, and all the 11 official languages cannot claim majority.
- *Xitsonga is not in touch with criterion 6:* The possible linkages and partnerships with English and Afrikaans are similar to the regional and locality-specific criteria, these criteria. This criterion emphasises the extension of apartheid higher education system into democracy. Xitsonga speakers were neither closer to historically English nor Afrikaans university in the past, and it is therefore disadvantaged in criterion 6.
- Criterion 7 is too questionable: How does a university determine the students' rights for their own languages in terms of economic, social and political significance of courses? It is obvious that economic, social and political significance of courses cannot determine the choice of languages. All the universities in the country are national assets, and their course contribute to the economic, social and political development of South Africa.
- *Criteria 3, 4 and 5 place Xitsonga into the notion of practicability.* Availability of expertise, availability of infrastructure and affordability depend on the commitment of a university. Only two of the six universities thought about practicability in their policy formulation, but it is not clear how this practicability will be tested.

CONCLUSION

It is clear that Xitsonga is disregarded by the South African (Gauteng) universities in their language policies with no evident reason. The criteria suggested by the Ministerial Committee (2005) need to be re-examined – it seems they delay the promotion and development of some of indigenous languages, including the Xitsonga language in higher education. A challenging question posed by one of the participants at the Asian Conference on Language Learning in

Japan when this paper was presented was: “Is there any lobby group for Xitsonga and what is the authorities’ reaction to this concern?” This question indicates that the promotion and development of indigenous languages in South African higher education require the commitment of the home language speakers of those languages.

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The logo for iafor (International Association for Applied Linguistics) is centered on the page. It consists of the lowercase letters 'iafor' in a light blue, sans-serif font. The text is enclosed within a circular graphic composed of two overlapping, thick, brush-stroke-like arcs. The outer arc is a light red color, and the inner arc is a light blue color, matching the text. The arcs are positioned such that they appear to frame the text from the top-left and bottom-right, leaving the top-right and bottom-left open.

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ESL Materials Developed By Mongolians and Problems Facing Secondary Schools

Bayarmaa Jamts, Enkhmaa Tsegmid

0065

School of Foreign Languages and Cultures, Ulaanbaatar, Mongolia

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Abstract:

I. Background

The government recognized the necessity of developing an indigenous English teaching capacity. The Ministry of Education initiated a programme to train teachers of English and introduce English since 1992.

II. ELT syllabus design programme

In preparation for introduction the Ministry addressed international community for assistance in developing an English language teaching capacity within the secondary schools, namely the Bell Educational Trust (UK) and ELI (USA). These two institutions started implementation of two separate projects on ELT programme with an emphasis on teacher training and material production.

III. Teaching materials

There have been 3 official textbooks and the latest and first complete series "English" textbooks for secondary schools written between 1999 - 2009 won an award "ELTONS 2009" by British Council.

IV. Cambridge International Education Programmes

Mongolia is now piloting Cambridge English programme at 31 laboratory schools as the Ministry of Education, Culture and Science is planning to introduce the Cambridge International Education Programme officially since 2014. A big challenge is to develop and national curriculum, train teachers, piloting the program and finally developing textbooks along with the policy changes of secondary education. The biggest challenge is to modify or change the current Mongolian secondary school English program which teaches English since grade 5 to 11 (6 years) or 2-3 hours of classroom teaching per week whereas Cambridge programme requires 14 years of teaching with 5-6 hours of classroom instructions. Therefore, the Cambridge programme needs to be fitted within the national curriculum to meet the international education requirements for English language.

I. Background

Language learning is becoming one of the important aspects in human life. It is because of widening international collaboration between countries all over the world. Mongolia is not an exception. Today Mongolia is one of the countries in the world where English is taught in schools of all levels since it has become necessity.

Before transferring to democracy Mongolia belonged to the socialist system and Russian language was the only foreign language, officially taught in schools and universities, except the Mongolia State University. English was first taught at the Mongolian State University as an optional subject from 1956 to 1990.

After democracy in 1990s, Mongolia was extending its relationships with the other countries so there was a desperate need in people with knowledge of a foreign language, English language in particular at that time. Besides, most of correspondence with foreign companies, research on internet, were being done in English. That is why learning English became very important in Mongolia those days.

II. ELT syllabus design programme

Early 1991, the Mongolian Government adopted a policy of “Renewal” which aimed to re-establish a national identity and to develop cultural and educational links beyond the old socialist countries. As a result, the government recognised the necessity of developing an indigenous English teaching capacity. The Ministry of Education (old name) initiated a programme to train teachers of English and introduce English as a compulsory subject into secondary school curriculum starting 1992. In preparation, the Mongolian Ministry of Education addressed the international community for assistance in developing an English language teaching capacity within secondary schools, namely the Bell Educational Trust (UK) and English Language Institute (USA). These two institutions started implementation of two separate projects on ELT programme with an emphasis on teacher training and EL material production.

Most schools and institutions of Mongolia started using English textbooks designed for native speakers or speakers of other languages. Often they were too difficult for Mongolian learners. On the other hand, there was a lack of appropriate English course-books. Therefore, English language teachers had to develop teaching materials themselves.

III. Teaching materials development

Within the framework of the ELI project, a new textbook “Eye of Wisdom” was written by Ms. C. Dirksen (ELI) and Dr. Ts.Sumiya and prof. B.Damdin (School of Foreign Services, Mongolian National University) in 1992 and distributed successfully to schools, but there were still shortage of textbooks and teaching materials. Unfortunately, due to various reasons the project stopped.

In 1991, The Bell Educational Trust submitted an ELT syllabus design programme proposal to the Mongolian Government as well. They intended to achieve the following objectives such as development of syllabus for 6 year course of English; writing of teaching materials in ELT; implementing a new teacher training programme within teacher training as well as re-training ex-Russian language teacher; distance learning. “Blue Sky” 1, 2 English language textbooks were written on the basis of the above mentioned syllabus by Mongolian authors trained in the UK.

These textbooks were officially approved by the Ministry of Education as the core teaching materials for secondary school curriculum. The special workshops on using Blue Sky in a Classroom were conducted for the secondary school teachers.

Early 1996, the Ministry adopted a new policy on foreign language teaching. The new policy changed the amount of teaching hours and year of studying English. Therefore, the Blue Sky team was requested to revise the old edition of the textbook for secondary school. However, due to some reasons, financial ones first of all, the team was not able to work on the revision of the textbooks.

In 1999, the new (international standard) textbook writing project started and it was supported by the Ministry of Education, Culture and Science and the Mongolian Foundation for Open Society. In the team, there were some old Blue Sky team members, and some new members who are lecturers of universities. The British consultant Sue Mohamed worked with them for 9 years. The “English” textbook series were designed for Mongolian learners and written by Mongolian authors who have a lot of experience in English language teaching and teacher training. They are Mongolian oriented materials and reflect both the Mongolian and international life. These textbooks were officially approved by the Ministry of Education as the core teaching materials for secondary school curriculum and still being used now.

The situation of the ELT has slightly improved after printing and distribution of “English” textbooks. The books followed a functional/structural syllabus which aimed to cover the main grammatical structures and communicative functions of the language. Specially designed syllabus is to meet the requirements and needs of Mongolian pupils in secondary schools. In developing the material the authors took into their consideration age, interests, correlated school subjects, life style and needs.

The students’ books are accompanied by workbooks, teacher’s books and CDs. The teacher’s notes contain a step by step guide with detailed instructions for all activities. Tapescripts and answers were also included in the Teacher’s book. The CDs were recorded at the British Studio. These books received the international award ELTON 2009 which was organized by British Council annually.

IV. Changes in the secondary school syllabus

What is Cambridge international standard?

University of Cambridge International Examinations (CIE) is a provider of international qualifications for students between the ages of 14 and 19, offering examinations and qualifications in more than 150 countries. It is an Examination Board under Cambridge Assessment, founded in 1858 as a department of the University of Cambridge.

CIE offers examinations and qualifications. Cambridge qualifications include international A-level, O-level, Cambridge IGCSE and Cambridge Pre-U. Examinations are open to students at registered CIE centres. CIE Examinations are linear in nature as opposed to the modular system used by other GCSE and A Level exam boards.

CIE first developed the Cambridge IGCSE more than 20 years ago for an international student body. Today, CIE offers more than 70 subjects for Cambridge IGCSE, benchmarked to UK

GCSE standard. It also offers more than 50 A-levels. For countries that choose to make use of O Level examinations, Cambridge provides a wide variety of subjects: for example, in addition to examinations in what might be regarded as core subjects, examinations are available in a number of first languages, additional mathematics, additional combined science and many other subjects. CIE qualifications are recognised for admission by UK universities (including Cambridge) as well as universities in the United States, Canada, European Union, Middle East, West Asia, New Zealand, Pakistan, Sri Lanka and around the world.

CIE also offers 'N' (Normal) Levels, which are taken before the O Level in Singapore for some students. It also offers Cambridge Pre-U, an alternative to UK A Level.

CIE has started a primary years programme in about 2004 called the Cambridge International Primary Programme (CIPP) to affiliate primary schools and provide curriculum support to them. (From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia)

Cambridge work in partnership with more than 30 ministries of education around the world, and are increasingly involved in projects to support countries in raising educational standards. This bilingual education programme incorporates Cambridge programmes and qualifications for 5-19 year olds. These programmes and qualifications are taught in over 9000 schools in 160 countries, and are recognised by universities and employers around the world. As well as providing the programmes and assessments, Cambridge Assessment is also supporting and training teachers to introduce bilingual teaching programmes.

Cambridge International Standard in Mongolia

A recent visit to Cambridge by the Minister of Education for Mongolia culminated in the signing of the Mongolia-Cambridge initiative agreement for University of Cambridge International Examinations to deliver educational services and reforms to the country. This initiative aims to introduce Mongolian-English bilingual education into state schools in Mongolia and align the national education system of Mongolia to Cambridge international education standards.

Cambridge is advising and supporting the Ministry on reforming national education policy and develop new school curricula and teacher education programmes. The Ministry has opened the first in a group of new state schools which will offer young Mongolians the opportunity to follow a Mongolian-English bilingual programme of education aligned to international standards. Plans have also been announced to widen participation through the opening of additional schools in the capital Ulaanbaatar and in the regions.

The reform programme also seeks to align the standard of the Mongolian National Education system, taught through Mongolian, and the standard of its teaching to Cambridge standards. Cambridge is currently advising and supporting the Ministry on their work to reform national education policy, develop new school curricula and teacher education programmes.

In addition Cambridge, in partnership with the Ministry, is supporting Mongolian nationals playing a key role in the reform initiative in post-graduate studies at the top rated University of Cambridge Faculty of Education.

It will be a large project to re-train 26,000 teachers in our secondary schools and will take many years. The Ministry will hold such training at Teachers' Development House, which would be ready in 2011. We shall set up 30 schools offering bilingual education.

Within the next three years the total of 30 schools selected from aimags and districts of Ulaanbaatar will run the subjects by Cambridge school curriculum, and at the beginning of the academic year of 2015 all secondary schools will apply the system. Thus, children of Mongolia have the opportunity to acquire an education accepted on the international standard and be enrolled in well-known foreign universities and colleges with no difficulties" said the Minister. Totally, 105 school children for the 9th grade, 80 children each for the 8th and 7th grades will be accepted at those two new schools. The teachers and instructors were selected before August 27, 2011. Also, Mathematics, English, Nature Study, Chemistry, Physics, Biology, Geography, and History are being taught under piloting project by Cambridge school curriculum in 30 selected schools.

We chose to have look at the English language education and syllabus of Mongolia.

Current English language Teaching compared to Cambridge Standard English Teaching

Mongolian English syllabus generally states the content of the English language to be taught at each grade separately whereas the Cambridge standard defines the content of English language to be taught according to the language acquisition levels. There is no strict levels or programme to follow for Mongolian secondary school English programme either in international or Mongolian terms.

On the other hand, Cambridge offers routes candidates can follow from post-kindergarten stage through to university entrance. Cambridge's provision also includes first-class support for teachers through publications, online resources, training, workshops and professional development. The following table shows the Cambridge international education.

Table 1. Cambridge progression

Cambridge Primary (5-11 years)	<u>Cambridge Primary</u> <u>Cambridge Primary Checkpoint</u> <u>Cambridge ICT Starters</u>
Cambridge Secondary 1 (11-14 years)	<u>Cambridge Secondary 1</u> <u>Cambridge Checkpoint</u> <u>Cambridge ICT Starters</u>
Cambridge Secondary 2 (14-16 years)	<u>Cambridge IGCSE</u> <u>Cambridge O Level</u> <u>Cambridge ICE</u>

Cambridge Advanced (16-19 years)	<u>Cambridge International AS and A Levels</u> <u>Cambridge AICE</u> <u>Cambridge Pre-U</u>
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As Mongolia has had no similar programme as Cambridge standard it is a big challenge to change and modify the current educational standard and comply with the above standard.

In addition, aims of English education in two standards are different as shown in the following table.

Table2. Aims of English language education

Aims of English language education	
Mongolian secondary syllabus	Cambridge syllabus
Making students use English as means of communication	
Developing students' learning competences	
Training of students as responsible learners	
specific assessment objectives NO	specific assessment objectives YES

The above table shows that although the main objective of the both syllabus is the same stating to make students use English as means communication, to develop students' learning competences and to train students as responsible learners but the main difference lies in the assessment. There is no specific assessment objective included in Mongolian secondary school syllabus while there is clear objective in Cambridge syllabus.

Table 3. Content of English syllabus compared

Mongolian syllabus	Cambridge syllabus
Content specified grade accordingly	By language knowledge level (3+1)
More writing, reading and less speaking and listening	Four skills with rubrics
Learning objectives related to language skills	Assessment objectives reflected

From the table you can see that Mongolian syllabus content is grade specified with more focus on writing and reading skills while the speaking and listening is neglected as the final exams are usually in the reading and writing form leaving listening and speaking mostly not included.

Mongolian exams of English language are likely to be in multiple choice tests in all levels with few exceptions depending on the schools orientation. Moreover in Mongolian English syllabus content the learning objectives are related to language skills to learn.

On the other hand Cambridge syllabus content is specified according to the Cambridge progression levels including all four Language skills evenly with rubrics as well as the assessment objectives reflected clearly. Cambridge exams include four language skills and require more productive and creative skills to progress. Cambridge programmes and qualifications are progressive and flexible, helping schools develop successful students.

Table 4. Reforms in English Language Teaching

School structure	Year of reform	English Classes	Duration to learn English	Teaching hours of English
10 year school	1992 - 2006	5-10 grades	6 years	655
11 year school	Since 2006	4-11 grades	8 years	666
12 year school	Since 2008	5-12 grades	8 years	766

Mongolia has had several reforms policies in education since the 1990s or the transition period and the final secondary school structure was approved in 2008 and of 12 years of schooling. Presently English is taught since grade 5 till grade 12 or 8 years instruction of English language resulting 766 hours to teach. This clearly proves there have been much reforms in English language teaching and the teaching hours is relatively higher compared to 1992.

Table 5. Mongolian and Cambridge syllabus English teaching hours compared

	Duration	Teaching hours
Mongolia	8 years (grades 5-12)	766
Cambridge	13 years (years 5-18)	1690
Difference of teaching hours is 924		

However, compared to Cambridge syllabus there is still 5 years difference or 5 years shorter English language instructions as Cambridge starts teaching English at the age of 5 till 18 while Mongolia offers 8 years altogether. The biggest difference though is in teaching hours or 924 hours difference of English teaching at state secondary schools throughout Mongolia (private schools offer different hours). Therefore, the National English Curriculum Team (NECT) and Cambridge professionals advised the Ministry of Education, Culture and Science of Mongolia (MECS) to increase the teaching hours of English language. According to the Cambridge curriculum piloting project which started in March hours for English language for grade 5 and 10 were increased from 2-3, 3-4 hours weekly. This is only the starting point and the MECS is planning to increase English teaching hours to eliminate the difference in the future. Age appropriateness is another important factor of implementing Cambridge standard as Cambridge teaches English at the age of 5 while Mongolian children are taught English since the grade 5 or when the children are 11 years old. Therefore, it was important to modify the content and the NECS and Cambridge professionals have recently started modification.

Table 6. Assessment

Syllabus of Mongolian secondary school	Cambridge syllabus
Assess complex language skills	Means of communication and learning skills
General assessment criteria and sample tasks	Assess speaking and reading skills using measurable criteria
Does not assess speaking skills	Assess speaking skills using specific criteria
Assessment types are limited	Assessment types are variable
Assess without regards of language levels	Assess level accordingly using ordinary and advanced options
General Exam for graduates assess only the language knowledge using multiple choice tests	Final results are assessed using creative tasks or rubrics

The above table shows another difference, assessment. In English Exams in Mongolia listening skills not reflected or not fully examined while Cambridge assesses all four skills using variable criteria creatively. Listening skill not examined properly in turn brings problems of teaching listening skills and as well as writing skills making it less important in teaching English language.

Problems facing the implementation of Cambridge International Standard of English language in Mongolia

Although Cambridge Professional team is supporting and advising in implementation of English language syllabus of Cambridge International Standard of English language in Mongolia there is a strong challenge to change teaching methods completely. Traditional learning and teaching methods, strategies, and classroom management need to be moderated greatly.

Textbooks and teachers books were readily supplied to secondary school teachers and they were teach according to the approved plans by the schools using similar methods. The new international English language standard is bringing difficulties for school teachers as it requires a lot of effort, changes, time and methods.

Instead of usual textbooks and teachers books teachers are now supplied with scheme of work for grade 5 and 10 (syllabus piloting grades) which was developed by NECT and the Cambridge along with the cascaded active learning and teaching methods and strategies complete with assessment and resources tips.

Although the above materials and methods are prepared for teachers, they are finding it hard to prepare the resource materials for the active lessons themselves in terms of time, finance and internet availability specially, in rural area.

Official monitoring team studies have found out that active learning and teaching has positive influences such as increasing children's learning and independence allowing them to express themselves (that something they lacked in traditional teaching and learning) teachers are finding the preparation of resource materials and classroom management rather challenging through interviews and observation.

Therefore the NECT is required to develop teachers guidebook for English teachers including ready sample resources as soon as possible. However it is strongly recommended that secondary school teachers are to develop their creativity as well as situation appropriate teaching conditions and resources. Active learning principles require teachers to be active and free to develop their own resources needed for active teaching.

Cambridge International Standard and Higher Education English Teaching

Cambridge International Standard being piloted at Mongolian secondary schools and MECS approved Mongolia is to follow the standard officially since 2015 as the main standard at secondary schools. What will happen with children when they enter higher education institutions? Who will teach them? Will they be taught English by teachers using old traditional methods?

These are the necessary issues facing the higher institutions. As university English teachers we are eager to see what changes would be made to English syllabus at universities. MECS decided with support of Cambridge that curriculum for teacher training universities needs to be changed accordingly and has started preparatory works for reform policy.

Unless the higher education institutes change their English curricula, teaching materials resources, teaching methods there would be gap between secondary school and higher education institutes leading to unsatisfactory teaching of teacher training.

Challenging issues of the higher education English language curriculum:

- No national standard on English language teaching
- Learning and teaching of English language is unsatisfactory
- Teachers employ traditional grammar translation methods
- Bad classroom management or large classes
- Insufficient textbooks, resources, instruments and internet access
- Teacher training for both pre and in service teachers is not well organized
- Assessment system is not different than secondary school system
- Modern English language teaching methods are not introduced or not implemented

There is an urgent need to build skilled team of national curriculum team for higher education institutions with help and support of Cambridge bringing transition from teacher centered teaching to learner centered teaching employing active learning and teaching methods using modern technology, resource and teaching facilities.

In addition, re training of English language teachers is one of the most challenging issues. No active learning of English language would occur without active teaching and appropriate

environment. Textbooks, resources, guidebooks needed to be developed to implement Cambridge International standard in Mongolian higher education institutions.

Conclusion

Mongolian have been writing and publishing various sets of textbooks since the 1990s with support of international organizations and Ministry of Education of Mongolia. The last series textbooks “English” won ELTON 2009 by British Council.

Implementation of Cambridge International Syllabus at secondary school with support of Cambridge University has been piloted successfully with positive results. There are differences between Mongolian and Cambridge syllabus as well as teaching and learning styles.

This shows there is an urgent need to continue the reform at higher institution level bringing changes in English syllabus, teacher training, re train in service English teachers, introducing modern teaching methods as soon as possible. These challenges are parts of the reforms that would bring international standard of education in Mongolia not only at secondary schools bur also at higher institutions.

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Indian Culture and Language: The Globally Reputed Phenomena

Taniya Chattaraj(Chakraborty), Joydeep Banerjee

0070

National Institute of Technology Durgapur, India

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Abstract:

India's language, religion, dance, food, dress and customs differ from place to place within the country, but, nevertheless there is a commonality among them. The influence of Hinduism and the tradition of the caste system have created a culture that emphasizes established hierarchical relationship. Indians are always conscious of social order and their status relative to other people, be they family, friends or strangers. There are some more protocols which Indians deliberately maintain as social curtesy. Some unique gestures like showing reverence for the elders by touching their feet, greeting a guest cordially with 'Pranam' or 'namaste' – a traditional way of greeting with both hands, avoiding left hand for any offering, showing modesty and warmth in behaviour towards others are some general social decorum which Indians follow. Indians create a special code of conduct for women particularly. A woman is supposed to follow her husband in every sphere of her life. A girl is married into a family and she is supposed to adjust seamlessly with the ambience, values, rituals and cuisines of that particular family. The Indo-western fusion reflects most through language. Many Indian words have been incorporated in proper English language and thus the essence of English language is somewhat changed in Indian subcontinent. Indians use a typical kind of English which we can name as 'Indlish', a portmanteau word comprising of two different words- Indian and English. This paper aims to canvass the uniqueness of Indian culture and its reflection through 'indlish' in Indian writings.

Indian culture and language: the globally reputed phenomena

According to many historians Indian civilization is the oldest living civilization on earth. India's language, religion, dance, food, dress and customs differ from place to place within the country, but, nevertheless there is a commonality among them. Indian culture is one of the ancient and rich cultures of the world. Culture is a cumulative concept which tantalises every reader by its range of expanse. Culture is a combination of thoughts, feelings, attitudes, beliefs, values, and behavior patterns that are shared by racial, ethnic, religious, or social groups of people. The term 'Culture' refers not only to those that we are born into (racial or ethnic groups), but also those that we choose to belong to, such as religious or social groups. This literary endeavour is based on the extensive study of Indian cultural ethos and social etiquettes. Along with it there is a minute observation of different genres of Indian writings and their implications. A minute study of the etiquettes and cultural behaviours reflected through Indian writings would enhance the reciprocal communication between India and the rest of the world. The enigmatic charm of the ancient culture would be enhanced by the minute and contemplative study of some Indian writings by some eminent Indian writers.

Indian culture is unique in several qualities that have evolved and survived across time. It is a vast land in expanse which is even diverse in climactic way too. There is an amazing diversity throughout the country. The South, North and North-East regions have their unique cultures and almost every state has carved its own cultural niche. In spite of the apparent diversities in several provinces the holistic aspect of Indian culture has emerged as a unique heritage in the world.

The influence of Hinduism and the tradition of the caste system have created a culture that emphasizes established hierarchical relationship. Indians are always conscious of social order and their statuses are relative to other people, be they family, friends or strangers. All relationships involve hierarchies. Indian society is Patriarchal which means the father rules over the family. He is supposed to be responsible for any decision in the family. Family is of utmost importance for any Indian. Joint-family culture is very unique phenomenon in traditional Indian society. People love to identify themselves by a separate group to which they belong rather than by their individual identities. There are generally very warm relationships maintained among the family members. The extended family creates a myriad of interrelationships, rules, and structures. Along with these mutual obligations comes a deep-rooted trust among relatives. India is a conglomeration of men and women of various castes and creed. Indian culture is a fusion of old traditional values and the modern principles derived from other cultures. There are some protocols which Indians deliberately maintain as social curtesy. Some unique gestures like showing reverence for the elders by touching their feet, greeting a guest cordially with 'Pranam' or 'namaste' – a traditional way of greeting with both hands, avoiding left hand for any offering, showing modesty and warmth in behaviour towards others are some general social decorum which Indians follow. Indians maintain a special code of conduct for women particularly. A woman is supposed to follow her husband in every sphere of her life. A girl is married into a different family and she is supposed to adjust seamlessly with the ambience, values, rituals and cuisines of that particular family.

In different fields of art, dance, music, cuisine, ethnic wear, religion, festivals – Indian cultural heritage is unique. One of the most enduring achievements of Indian civilization is undoubtedly its architecture. Indian architecture is the amalgamation of the indigenous art and the outside influence. The Hindu architecture is seen in the rock-cut temples of Mahabalipuram, in various North and

South Indian temples, in the rock-cut caves of Elephanta and Ellora. The temples speak of various Vaishnavite, Shaivite and Tantric influences. The influence of Buddhism during the reign of king Ashoka is prominent in various Buddhist monasteries and Stupas. One such Stupa is the great Stupa of Sanchi. Due to the repeated foreign invasions Indian art lost its indigenous form and with the influences of other cultures there formed some fusion, the most prominent instance of which is seen as the peerless Taj Mahal. Nevertheless, as a whole, Indian art features spirals and curvaceous lines, vines and tendrils, round-figured goddesses, coloured gemstones etc. Indian sculptures and paintings reflect the diversity of thoughts, flamboyance of colour and spontaneity of emotions of this vivacious country.

Indian classical dance form is also evocative of the nation's rich cultural ethos. The form of dance using the body as a medium of communication is perhaps the most intricate, developed and fascinating art form. It is an elevated mode of expression which celebrates the revelation of spiritual through corporeal. India offers various forms of classical dances, each form of which can be traced to a different part of the country. Each form represents the cultural ethos of a particular region or cult. The most popular classical styles performed on the Indian stage are 'Bharatnatyam' of Tamilnadu, 'Kathakali' of Kerala, 'Kuchipudi' of Andhra Pradesh, 'Odissi' of Odissa, 'Kathak' of Uttar Pradesh, 'Manipuri' of Manipur etc. Beside these, there are several folk dances or semi-classical dances which contribute to the plethora of Indian dances. All Indian classical dances are believed to be based on the instructions in the "Natyashastra" written by Bharat Muni. In any Indian dance form music and drama have a very significant role. Bharat Muni describes various postures, 'mudras' or hand formations and their meanings; various emotions inevitable for 'nritya' (dance) and their categorization. All dance forms are thus structured around the traditional concept of the nine 'rasas' or emotions like 'hasya' (happiness), 'krodha' (anger), 'bibhatsa' (disgust), 'bhaya' (fear), 'shoka' (sorrow), 'viram' (courage), 'karuna' (compassion), 'advuta' (wonder) and 'shanta' (serenity). Most Indian dance forms take their theme of performances from India's rich mythology and folk legends. Therefore, in order to enjoy the ecstatic pleasure of Indian dance, one has to have some knowledge of Indian mythology.

Indian music can be described as having been inaugurated with the chanting of Vedic hymns. The term 'raga' on which Indian music is based was first described in "Brhaddesi" a work from the 10th century attributed to Matanga. In the 13th century, the theorist Sarangadeva, the author of "Sangitaratnakar" listed twenty four ragas. During the Mughal reign, the Muslim rulers extended their spontaneous patronage to music. North Indian music or 'Hindusthani' music was more exposed to the Islamic culture due to the prolonged period of Mughal dynasty. On the other hand, South Indian or 'Carnatic' music faced much intrusions later. These two patron groups of music together constitute the mammoth canopy of Indian classical music which includes both vocal and instrumental.

Clothing in India varies with region, religion and community. The traditional style of clothing in India varies with male and female distinctions. A 'sari' or a strip of unstitched cloth ranging from four to nine meters in length is generally a dress for an Indian woman. It is draped over the body in various styles. Beside Sari, Indian women prefer 'Salwar kameez' and 'Lehenga-Choli'. For men, the ideal traditional cloths are 'kurta', 'pyjama' and 'dhoti'.

Indian cuisine consists of myriads of regional cuisines which date back thousands of years. Indian dishes are characterized by various vegetables, spices, herbs and fruits. Hindu beliefs and culture have played an important role in the evolution of Indian cuisine. Vegetarianism is a significant

aspect of most of the Indians. Indian food varies from region to region reflecting the demographics of the ethnically- diverse subcontinent.

In India, religion is the way of life. Secular India is the serene abode of various religions. Hinduism, Islam, Christianity, Buddhism, Jainism, Sikhism and other innumerable cult doctrines are worshipped unwaveringly by the Indians. Common practices have crept into most religious faiths in India and many of the festivals that mark each year with music, dance and feasting are shared by all communities. Each has its own pilgrimage sites, legends and even culinary specialties mingling in a unique diversity.

India is a land of colourful festivals. Various communities celebrate their respective festivals with pomp and gaiety. Most of these festivals have religious associations such as holi, Dussera, Janmastami, Ganesh Chaturhi, Eid, Mahabir Jayanti, Moharram, Dipawali etc. In each of the occasions all Indians celebrate unanimously forgetting their individual religious beliefs.

In various Indian writings in English the cultural heritage of India emerges. India has faced several foreign invasions which affected the cultural heritage of India. Britishers affect the indigenous culture most as theirs was the longest rule. The Indo-western fusion reflects in food, dress, behaviour and above all through language. Many Indian words have been incorporated in proper English language and thus the essence of English language is somewhat changed in Indian subcontinent. Indians use a typical kind of English which we can name as 'Indlish', a portmanteau word comprising of two different words- Indian and English. Indian writers express their unique cultural traditions through their literary endeavours. Even the English they use is unique in nature as it contains many Indian terms and phrases. The ethnic traditions of the ancient culture ooze out from their efforts.

India as a nation has been developed remarkably in various aspects. It is fast emerging as an economic giant in the 21st century. Though the nation has gained reverence for its rich cultural heritage, diversity of languages and ethnicity since the dawn of civilization, the recent trends in technology and economics have glorified the nation as one of the fastest developing countries in the global scenario. With the changing status of the nation, the Indian English is asserting itself in the area of global communication. Indian English is a typically formed language which originated in England but simultaneously has the flavor of Indian soil. Some critics have termed the language as "Indlish" – a portmanteau word comprising of two different words 'Indian' and 'English. As the term denotes this fusion language bears the traces of two different languages. Indian English has its own colourful history and presence in global communication.

The introduction of English to the Indian Linguistic landscape opened with the dawn of the British colonial era. The purpose of teaching English to the common Indian folk was immensely significant. The colonial masters' mission was to create a 'class of persons'. The class had long been in process of formation and consisted largely of the new urban élite class. Many of them were immigrants with landed property in the interior districts, but they were drawn to the cities by the promise of office jobs in the expanding British administration, the key to which was the knowledge of English language. One consequence of the changes taking place in Indian society during colonial period was that Indians had mastered the coloniser's language. Even Indians during 1920s started to adopt English as their chosen medium of expression. More than one and a half centuries later English has overcome its status as merely the language of the colonial power and has become the integral part of the Indian linguistic mosaic. Contrary to the most popular pre-independence hypothesis that Hindi would dethrone the majesty of English language after Independence, English has not only continued

to flourish in all segments of social network of India but has also become one of the official languages of the nation. Thus it has continued to sustain the patronage of not only the élites but also of the proletariats.

It is an emerging tendency which could be noticed among common Indian folk. People consider English to be the language meant for global communication. Therefore not only affluent people, but the people from middle class and lower middle class want to send their children to “English medium schools” as long as their finances allow. English, in many aspects, is one of the most important keys to make a successful life in India. Apart from whether it is right or wrong, English can be said to be the most important language to educated Indians and has become indispensable for the entire Indian society. Not only in the written form but also in the field of daily communication English has broken through the premises of Indian households. Even the writers who write in English no more feel alienated or deserted for their mode of expression. Shashi Deshpande, an eminent Indian writer opines :

By writing in English, I am again in another small circle, tha’s all. It does not make me non-Indian in any way.... My language just happens to be English, which cannot be called a foreign language at all because it is so much used in India. Pathak (1998, p. 240)

But, the question arises should we speak the way we are taught to write in English or vice-versa? It’s a very controversial issue. At the beginning the English-speaking natives preferred ornamented English in their writings. But, with the advancement of time even the written English has become simple, direct and easily decipherable at least for communication. People felt the idea more rational and comfortable of telling “Stop laughing” instead of ‘Repress the instantaneous motions of merriment’. The writers sought for a language that would be simple and easily accessible to a larger group of audience. Not only language the style should be reflective of their essential Indian Identity. The language in which the Post-Independent Indian Literature is written is far different from its past form. The native English has changed its form through many years’ sagacious journey. The Indian English or ‘Indlish’ reflects the vibrant existence of the entire socio-cultural ambience of an ethnic group of people. Indian authors merge the dialectic language of the average Indian with the established language of the narrative in order to make the artefact flamboyant and vivacious. Thus there is a kind of conglomeration of both written and spoken language.

There is a certain difference between the English the Indians use from that of the Britishers or the Americans. English has lost its colonial rigidness and with the advancement of time, has become just like any other vernaculars of India. We don’t include the minute phonological changes as that would be a kind of pedagogical endeavour. Therefore, we would concentrate our discussion only on the basic grammar and syntactical orientations of Indian English writing.

It is quite natural that non-native English tends to be influenced both grammatically and syntactically by speakers’ mother tongue. English in India, likewise, shows a great influence of Indian languages. English in each region of India can have as many variants as our major regional language dominant in that particular part. In that way we may find ‘Benglish’, ‘Hindlish’, ‘Tamlish’, ‘Marathlish’, ‘Gujlish’ etc. But if we go on finding that way, it would be a kind of joke in a sense. So, we consider ‘Indlish’ as a whole as the focal point of our discussion. How it is different from the native English of a Britisher or any other foreigner.

It is found that no Indian language requires doing anything other than to insert the equivalent of 'why' when we move from a statement to a question. The arrangement of words in a statement remains unaltered in the question, except for such insertion. The word arrangement in Bengali or Hindi "*Tumi Haschho*", or "*Tum hass rahe ho*" (you are laughing) remains unaltered even if we put 'Kyano' or 'Kyun' (why). But this norm deviates in proper English grammar. The auxiliary verb must change its position and precede the subject when we frame a question. Then, 'you are laughing' must change to 'why are you laughing?'

Sometimes in Indian regional languages we use some idiomatic phrases which lend a musical effect to our ears. In such phrases the sound of the first word replicates in the next word but with a change in initial consonants. These phrases are almost impossible to translate in any other language. For example in Bengali, we use *khaoa-daoa* for eating, *khobar-daabar* for anything eatable; in Hindi, *rona-dhona* for crying, *khana-una* for eatable. In English also such terms are there like *hanky-panky*, *roly-poly*, *helter-skelter* etc. But the Indian writers are now using this art of talking in their writings in a novel way. They are mingling the concepts of two extremely opposite cultural ethos with each other. We can have the excerpt of a conversation from a recent novel, "Above Average" by Amitabha Bagchi in which he writes:

'This is Aparna Chachi', Neeraj said.

'No, no!' I had exclaimed. 'She's no chachi-sachi.' Bagchi (2007, p. 265)

The phrase, 'chachi-sachi' is a typical Indian colloquial language which the author puts in the written form. Bagchi uses a kind of unique narrative style which brings forth the typical Indian way of informal talking. To describe another conversation he writes:

'All your stuff packed?' I asked.

'Haan'.

'How many hours at Heathrow?'

'Six or seven.'

'And then direct to Chikago?'

'Haan.' Bagchi (2007, p. 265)

This is a very queer use of 'Indlish' in which the speakers use both Hindi and English simultaneously as their mode of conversation. In another context the author describes his idle moments in a hostel room. There also he uses such kind of language. He writes:

Evenings in the hostel are for hanging out, gossiping, sitting around. It's called paoling, the Hindi verb *palna*, to be nurtured, conjugated in a Hinglish way. It's deployed every evening. The quizzers go quizzing, the debaters go debating, the sporty types go sporting. Everyone else stays in the hostel, paoling. Bagchi (2007, p. 247)

All languages have 'conversational props'. We fall back on when we search for the right word or expression. In Bengali these goes like '*eeaye/eta holo giye*'. In Hindi, these are like, '*yeh/woh/woh kya kehte hain*' etc. In English also, we have many 'conversational props like '*umm.../you know.../well.../like.../kind of...etc.* Indian writers have incorporated such conversational techniques in their creative world.

In all Indian languages it is a very common tendency to add some question tags. For example in Bengali, people generally use, 'tai na' at the end of any positive sentence to assert emphasis. "Meyeta besh valo dekhte, tai na?" (The girl is quite beautiful, isn't she?) In Hindi, it is, 'hai na'. "Wo log gussa lagte hai, hai na?" (They sound angry, don't they?) But in "Indlish" there is a queer use of this Indian way of talking. Now-a-days we use, "You want to go there, no?" "This is correct, hai na?" "You are from Japan, isn't it?" "This is made in Japan, no?" "You are not married, correct?" Sometimes they make an assertive sentence interrogative by adding a question mark at the end of the sentence. This type of 'Indlish' is being used even in recent Indian fictions in English. We can cite an example from Chetan Bhagat's popular novel, "five point someone". We would like to have an excerpt of a conversation between Ryan and Neha:

"You are like this good girl. Like why else won't you let him do anything? Dating for a year, still no kiss even. Just this goody-goody prof's daughter."

"He told you that?" Neha squeaked.

"Of course. You think you are dating a guy or someone asexual? You don't think he has needs?" Bhagat (2004, p. 114)

Indians often recreate in English reduplication which they are accustomed to use in their native languages. For example people often say, "I bought some small small things", "Why don't you give them one one piece of cake?" "Why don't you pay them ten ten rupees each?" This reduplication enlivens the native language and people use them as well in their communicative English.

In order to describe things typically of India, people prone to loan words from Indian languages and use them in English. Generally in any informal tete-a-tete exclusively among Indians they feel it more comfortable to speak English in such ways. This particular characteristic is evocative of the fact that Indian loan words are used hugely in Indian English writings. Sometimes the authors include colloquial spoken languages in order to enhance the Indian flavour in their writings. For example Raja Rao in his novel "Kanthapura" writes:

But Moorthy said, 'No swearing, please. *Mahatma Gandhi ki jai!*', and all cried out 'Jai Mahatma!' and such a crowd had now gathered around us that we felt a secret exaltation growing in us, and we shouted out '*Vandé Mataram!*' – and everybody cried '*Vandé Mataram!*'. Rao (1989, p. 145)

Many such words and phrases are used in Indian English writings. Many of these loan words have enriched the dictionary. We can cite some such loan Indian words which are being used in English writings: **paan** (betel leaf. It is chewed with tobacco, lime, nuts and sold in hotel: restaurant), **mandi** (wholesale vegetable market), **bazaar** (marketplace), **mess** (hostel dining hall. a system in a hostel where the residents arrange to have meals prepared), ...**wallah** (person doing ..., person doing ... as his/her occupation [e.g. **rickshaw wallah** (rickshaw driver), **tonga wallah** (tonga driver, driver of a two-wheeled horsedrawn vehicle), **doodh wallah** (milk seller)], **peon** cf. **chaprasi**, bearer (office attendant, office messenger boy), **ayah** (child nurse, maid servant), **mali** (gardener), **jawan** (soldier), **Akashvani** (indigenous name of All India Radio), **Doordarshan** (television, usually used to mean India's national television), **Lok Sabha** (Lower House of the central parliament), **Rajya Sabha** (Upper House of the central parliament), **chamchagiri** (flattering), **rasta aur rel roko** (stoppage of the traffic in a general strike), **bandh** (stoppage of work), **dal** (lentil, lentil soup), **roti** (cf. dal-roti=bread and butter = bread), **sabzi**, **sabji** (vegetable, vegetable curry), **paneer** (cottage cheese), **pandit**, **pundit** (brahmin), **guru** (teacher. Traditional spiritual master),.. **ji** [e.g. **Verma ji**, **guru ji**

(equivalent to Mr/Ms. Used with familiarity), ... **sahib (sahiba) Sri ...**, **Srimati** ... (equivalent to Mr/Ms. Originally for Muslims, but now used to address the superior), **autorickshaw** (auto- three-wheeled vehicle with a engine. Usually used as a taxi or a lorry), **hill station** e.g. **Ootacamund** (seasonal holiday resort in the hill area), **masala film** (the most popular type of Indian film with fights, songs, dance, jokes and romance), **Bollywood** (=Bombay + Hollywood], Bombay's film industry), **good name** (used when asking a name. Polite usage), **lakh** (a hundred thousand), **crore** (ten million), **dowry** (wife's present to her husband when they get married), **goonda** (rowdy), **SC** (=Scheduled Caste cf. untouchable: non-twice-born Hindus who are considered out of caste and discriminated), **Lathi-charge** (v, for the police to use **lathi** [stave] to break up a mob), **NRI** (non-resident Indians, overseas Indians), **divestment** (withdrawal of investment cf. Divestment).

Nissim Ezekiel, an eminent Indian poet and dramatist ventures in his creative endeavour an emphasis on the amalgamation of linguistic and cultural milieu. In his poem, 'Very Indian Poems in Indian English: The Patriot' he writes:

In India also
Gujaraties, Maharashtrians, Hindiwallahs
All brothers-
Though some are having funny habits.
Still, you tolerate me,
I tolerate you,
One day Ram Rajya is surely coming.
You are going? Mehrotra, (2003, p. 249)

This is the typical 'Indish' way of expression of Indian Life itself.

The following grammatical features distinguish Indian English either from American or British English, i.e., countability of Non-Counts and Addition of Prepositions/particles. Words such as furniture and luggage become furnitures and luggages, respectively in Indian English. There is another tendency among the Indians to add prepositions or particles in or at the end of a sentence. For example, people often say, 'Everyone is dismissing off my proposal.'

The circumstance for the natural evolution of any global Language is that it gives to those who use it enough liberty to make it their own. English as a Global Language unites people because it enables each linguistic community which uses it to feel at home within its fold. Indian English is claiming a dominant position in the world for its unique characteristics. Any language becomes rich by the gradual inheritance from other sources. We always have to be prepared to accept more variations in order to make the language enriched. We should emancipate our minds from any kind of prejudice. Otherwise, 'Indlish' would be lost into oblivion.

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The logo for the International Association for Applied Linguistics (iafor) is centered on the page. It features the word "iafor" in a light blue, lowercase, sans-serif font. The text is enclosed within a circular graphic composed of two overlapping, thick, brush-stroke-like lines. The outer line is a light red color, and the inner line is a light blue color, creating a sense of depth and movement.

Stereotypes as Global Language Unities

Olesya Orlova

0078

Kemerovo State University, Kemerovo, Russian Federation

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Abstract:

Language and cultural globalization demonstrates different tendencies. The main aim of this paper is to discuss some global mental unities which have language verbalizations, i.e. stereotypes. Heterogeneous stereotypes (stereotypes about other cultures) may be analyzed as global (universal) language and mental entities which on one hand help nations to (pre)construct a cross-cultural discourse, on the other hand, are barriers for effective communication between nations and thus need to be researched. Investigations of stereotypes about Russia and Russians in the American journalistic discourse show that the stereotypes are rigid, but dynamic mental unities.

The theses defended in the paper are as follows: 1) Stereotypes have language verbalizations in syntax, lexis and cultural concepts, phraseology, precedent phenomena and pretexts. The stereotypes may be analyzed by means of strict linguistic methods. 2) Stereotypes are the frames terminals. Every discourse has a specific set of frames, which construct and develop ideologies; stereotypes are ideological and associative by their nature, and they represent “resume” terminals of frames. 3) Stereotypes about Russia and Russians in the American political journalistic discourse are grouped in two frames: ‘Russia – country’ and ‘Russia – state’. Different stereotypes (geopolitical, political, social, cultural) group around different subframes. For example, a cultural stereotype ‘moujik’ is a terminal of the subframe ‘people’ and the frame ‘country’. It is verbally represented in the discourse by means of special lexis – a word ‘moujik’ and demonstrates the qualities of a global stereotype.

Language and cultural globalization demonstrates different tendencies. The main aim of this paper is to discuss some global mental unities which have language verbalizations, i.e. stereotypes. Heterogeneous stereotypes (stereotypes about other cultures) may be analyzed as global (universal) language and mental entities which on one hand help nations to (pre)construct a cross-cultural discourse, on the other hand, may be barriers for effective communication between nations and thus need to be researched. Investigations of stereotypes about Russia and Russians in the American journalistic discourse show that the stereotypes are rigid, but dynamic mental unities.

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Let us discuss every position of the abstract delivered above.

1) In foreign and Russian linguistics there are different understandings of a stereotype as a semantic category. One of them is Hilary Putnam’s understanding according to which a stereotype is a standardized description of features of the kind that are typical or normal for a thing of a given kind. A stereotype is a conventional idea of what an X looks like or acts like or is but it is not analytically tied to its associated term. It is a stereotype that gold is yellow, but it is not analytic that gold is yellow; tigers are stereotypically striped, but it is not analytic that tigers are striped (Putnam 1975). The Russian scientist V. E. Chernyavskaya notices that a stereotype is a “mental and linguistic unity, a construction, which is saved in mind by means of a language sign” (Chernyavskaya 2006, p. 53). Thus it is a problem for linguistics to make up a rather full list of these language signs by means of which the stereotypes are saved in mind and culture. We suppose that the stereotypes have language verbalizations in lexis and cultural concepts, phraseology, ‘precedent phenomena’, syntax and pretexts. So the stereotypes may be analyzed by means of strict linguistic methods.

The lexis which verbalizes the stereotypes is the terms to which ideological and cultural concepts are associated, for example: *the Soviet Empire, cold war, communism; samizdat, KGB, troika, banya / veniki, dacha, valenki, samovar, vodka, moujik*. There is lexis which verbalizes the symbols of Russia: *Russian bear, Russian soul*.

Phraseology also may express the stereotypical knowledge, for example: [Russian people] *live hand to mouth*.

‘Precedent phenomena’ is a linguistic term approved by the Russian linguist D. B. Gudkov who meant that a precedent phenomenon is a text, phrase, name or situation widely known in the linguo-cultural society and used in discourses (Gudkov 2000). These phenomena are endowed with a special cultural value. So in the discourse under analysis we found out that Nikolai Gogol’s poem “Dead Souls” is a famous evocation of Russia: «...to remember Gogol’s “Dead Souls” and its famous evocation of Russia as **a horse-drawn troika** hurtling pell-mell through a forest, the world flashing by, ever faster, “the whole road flying, no one knows where, into the unseen distance”» (NW Oct. 13, 2003, p. 36). In this abstract we meet precedent name and phrase.

There is also some lexis which marks a stereotype: verbs *to be regarded, to remain*: “Russia **remains** what it has always been: a nation governed by almost feudal elites, at war with one another, pursuing very different agendas, some casting themselves as reformers, others as something else entirely” (NW Oct. 13, 2003, p. 36); nouns *habit, tradition, reputation, status, style, majority*: “The vast **majority** of Russia’s people live hand-to-mouth, often in near destitution, waiting perhaps fruitlessly for their lives to get better” (NW Oct. 13, 2003, p. 33-36); pronouns *nobody, every, same, we*; adjectives *not uncommon, old-fashioned, traditional, not unusual, true, ordinary, most, many*; adverbs *indeed, always, never, still, everywhere, routinely, usually*.

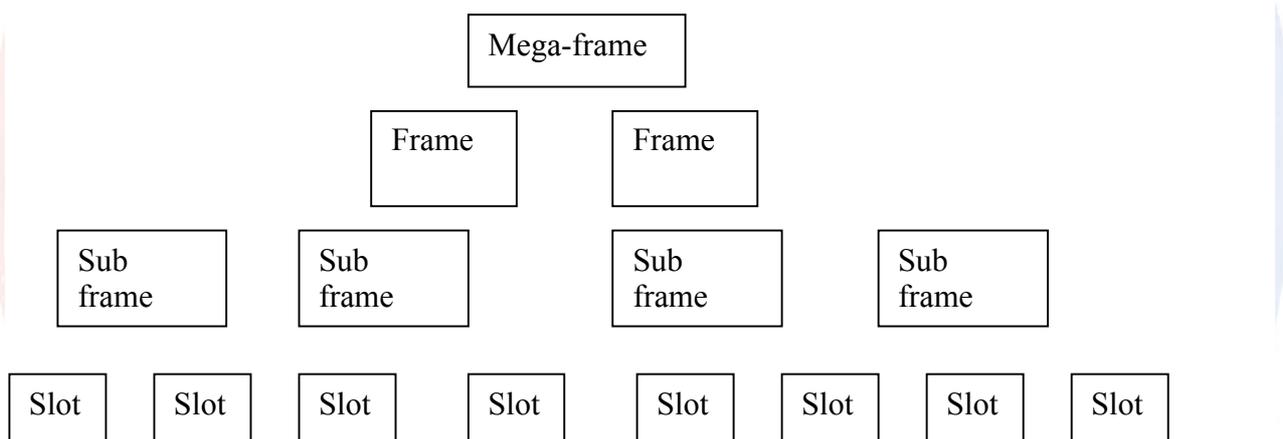
Syntactically a stereotypical knowledge is expressed by means of a simple non-extended sentence expressed by the formula *SUBJECT – PREDICATE*, for example: «Russia is not ready for full democracy» (NW Nov. 10, 2003, p. 35).

Pretext is a term which we use in the meaning as Michel Pêcheux used his term ‘pre-construct’: “a trace of previous discourses which supply work material, in other words, form stocks for discourses and produce the effect of obviousness” (Pêcheux 1969). Presupposition of the sentence may contain a stereotype, and we call these cases ‘pretexts’, for example: “The message: riding an oil boom, **Russia is regaining its lost status as a world player**” (May 5, 2003). The idea is that Russia is renewing its economy with the help of oil trading; the pretext constructed in the previous discourses and the stereotype is that Russia was a world player and wants to be a world player.

2) The discourse which was chosen for the analysis of stereotypes about Russia and Russians is the American political journalistic discourse. More than 1000 texts published in the “New York Times” in the 19th-21st centuries were analyzed. Thus the main discursive topic of all these texts is Russia and Russians. Every discourse is organized around a somewhat ideology. It is a problem to say definitely, what is an ideology that is in the basis of a discourse. That’s why different procedures of a discourse analysis are investigated the main target of which often become most frequently used conceptual and ideological metaphors. In our opinion stereotypes are the signals of ideologies and therefore we distinguish them in discourses and sub discourses. When we say that we studied the American political journalistic discourse we mean that this discourse is also a ‘Russian’ discourse (as the cluster of the texts studied is about Russia and Russians), and the part of it is also a geopolitical discourse (as the part of the texts studied is about the international relations of different countries with Russia), and the part of it is a cultural discourse (because in some texts the Russian culture is discussed), and so forth. In every type of a discourse only particular frames are typically met. For example, if in an article Russian geopolitical behavior is discussed we can conclude that the frame ‘Russia – state’ is used here. The stereotypes concluded

in this frame are called geopolitical as they are met in a geopolitical discourse and they are the minor terminals of the ‘Russia – state’ frame.

3) “Russia” is the word which verbalizes the so-called mega-frame – the frame which organizes all the knowledge about Russia and stereotypes about it. ‘Frame’ is a term which indicates the structural organization of a concept. So we mean that the term ‘concept’ indicates the mental and language entity, the culturally and ideologically marked unit of mentality, and the term ‘frame’ indicates its structure, organization of the elements of a concept. We analyzed the lexis in the ‘syntactical neighborhood’ of the word ‘Russia’ and thus we made up a list of semantic classifiers that somehow category all the knowledge about Russia. These semantic classifiers in other words are the frames and the sub frames of the Russia concept. Some of them are non-metaphoric, some are metaphoric. They are as follows: ‘Russia – state’; ‘Russia – country/territory’; ‘Russia – object’; ‘Russia – animal’; ‘Russia – human’, etc. The sub frames which are included in the frames (the structure has a hierarchal organization) are as follows: ‘Russians – people who live in Russia’; ‘culture’; ‘economy’; ‘government’; ‘emotional qualities’, etc. The sub frames and the slots in their structures are the elements minor than the frames and the mega-frame; the frames and the mega-frame are the elements major than the sub frames and the slots. The minor elements are the constituents of the major structures.



The task was to find out the place of the stereotypes in this structure. To our opinion the stereotypes are the typical associations to the concept enclosed in the frame terminals, so-called ‘pre-constructs’ (Pêcheux 1969) or ‘default values’ (Minsky 1975). They typically arouse in a discourse and represent an a priori knowledge about a concept. On one hand they help nations to (pre)construct a cross-cultural discourse, because they represent objective knowledge. On the other hand, they may be barriers for effective communication between nations because they are emotional, subjective and culturally marked. If in every type of a discourse only particular frames are typically met, then we may call typical associates to the ‘Russia’ concept by the name of a discourse they are met in.

So, the list of geopolitical stereotypes of the ‘state’ frame is as follows: ‘great / giant’; ‘enemy’; ‘cold war’; ‘aggressive’. The most typical and frequent lexis that verbalizes these stereotypes is: *power / giant / gigantic / Empire; bellicose / aggressive; cold war / Evil empire; pressing / expansionist; enemy.*

Political stereotypes are also included in the 'state' frame. Political stereotypes are met in texts in which governments are discussed, the methods of struggle for the power and the ways to keep the power. Among political stereotypes we distinguish the following stereotypes: 'Russian people suffer'; 'Russian people are politically ignorant'; 'no democracy'; 'no freedom'; 'Russia is in ruins'; 'authoritarian'; 'love tsar'; 'nothing changes'. The most typical and frequent lexis that verbalizes these stereotypes is: *no freedom; suffer; ruins; authoritarian / totalitarian / KGB; Czar / Putin*.

In strict terms stereotypes about the representatives of social groups (nations, for example) are called social stereotypes. We use the term 'social stereotype' somewhat differently. Social stereotypes deliver knowledge about Russian society as a whole. So the group of social stereotypes is represented by the following mental units: 'poverty'; 'backwardness'; 'corruption'; 'crime'; 'nationalism'. The most typical and frequent lexis that verbalizes these stereotypes is: *poverty; resourcefulness; corruption; nationalism; crime*.

The 'country' frame includes stereotypes that represent a priori knowledge about the geography and the climate of this country, about the specifics of the territory that belongs to Russia. These stereotypes are as follows: 'snow'; 'singular'. They are verbalized by the lexis *snow / winter; separate / singular*. Other cultural stereotypes describe Russian culture as a whole, for example *barbaric / non-civilized*.

In the 'country' frame we also find cultural stereotypes. Thus we mean that in some texts in which Russian culture is discussed, i.e. cultural discourse, some typical associations to Russia arouse and they describe typically Russian cultural phenomena. Some cultural stereotypes have an artifact origin. We know that some artifacts became the symbols of Russia. That's why we suppose that some stereotypes may be called by their double name: symbol-stereotype. These stereotypes are represented in the discourse under analysis by the loan words *valenki; samovar; Russian troika; dacha; vodka; banya*. Many of these symbols are not only the perceptual images but also the results of philosophical interpretation of Russian life.

Some cultural stereotypes also have symbolic nature, but they are not of artifact origin. We include them into the 'country' frame and 'Russian people' sub frame, because they describe Russians as a nationality with a specific national character. For example, one of these stereotypes is 'Russian character' which symbolizes 'resourcefulness', 'boldness', 'contradictoriness', 'love for motherland' of Russian people. Synonymic to this is the stereotype 'Russian soul', which is well associated with 'Russian moujik'. To this group also belong such stereotypes as 'red', 'Russian troika', 'Russian bear'. They are verbalized by the lexis: *Russian bear; moujik; Russian character / Russian soul (love for Mother Russia; hospitality / generous; open-hearted / large-minded; make do with less; no seat belts; tolerance; narrow / chauvinistic)*.

So we agreed that a stereotype is contained in a frame as its terminal. Let us consider a cultural stereotype 'moujik'. It is a terminal of the sub frame 'people' and the frame 'country'. It is verbally represented in the discourse by means of special lexis – a word 'moujik'. Whether it's global – international – or not is a question. We know however that there is an English word equivalent to the Russian one – peasant. Stereotypically all Russians are imagined to be peasants or look like peasants but not all of them are. The origin of this stereotype is in the history of

Russia and in the specific Russian character. Nevertheless the association ‘peasant / moujik – Russian’ is very strong. «*Tolstoy soon returned, wearing the characteristic **moujik** costume*» (NYT March 12, 1905). If somebody doesn’t know that the man on Ilya Repin’s picture “Leo Tolstoy barefooted” (1901) is the great Russian writer Leo Tolstoy (who, by the way, was count) he still could say that the man is Russian. The stereotypical moujik’s costume is a strong association to Russians living in the minds of people of all nations; this proves the global nature of a stereotype as a language and mental unit.

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Factors Affecting Job Enabling English Proficiency (JEEP) Program Students' Willingness To Communicate In English

Annie Mae Berowa

0095

Mindanao State University, Philippines

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Abstract:

This study investigated the relationship between willingness to communicate (WTC) in English and the personal profile, linguistic self-confidence, motivation, attitude and personality of the respondents who were the college students of the Job Enabling English Proficiency (JEEP) Program in the Mindanao State University (MSU), Main Campus in the Islamic City of Marawi. It also tried to know the frequency of English language use among the respondents in the different speech situations and domains in the university and the extent of their willingness to use the target language. In the Philippines, the MSU Main Campus is the “Melting Pot of the South” since it caters students who have different cultural, religious, and linguistic backgrounds. This study combines both quantitative and qualitative data collection and analysis procedures. It consists of a questionnaire, 16 Personality Factors (16PF) Test and focus group discussion (FGD).

First, the questionnaire was administered to 129 randomly selected Job Enabling English Proficiency (JEEP) Program students who served as respondents. Second, 16 Personality Factors (16PF) Test was administered to know the different personality types of the respondents. Lastly, the focus group discussion (FGD) was conducted to extend and elaborate the quantitative results. Results indicated that majority of the respondents sometimes use and are sometimes willing to use English language in most of the identified speech situations and domains in the university. It was also found out that there is a significant relationship between the respondents' willingness to communicate in English and their sex, linguistic self-confidence, motivation, attitude and personality.

Introduction

Professionals in the field of language teaching agree that affective factors like attitude, anxiety, and motivation have an effective role in language achievement and proficiency. One of these affective factors is the willingness to communicate (WTC), a variable which affects authentic communication in L2 and has been considered as a good predictor of frequency of communication.

Since the purpose of teaching English is communication, the issues on whether the learners will communicate in English when they have the chance and what factors affect their willingness to communicate gain importance. As the proverb goes, “Where there is a will, there is a way.” This means that even not so proficient learners may communicate in English as long as they are willing. On the other hand, highly proficient learners may not be willing to communicate since “where there is no will, there is no way.” However, the researcher has witnessed cases where there is both a will and a way (sufficient proficiency), but there is no communication in English.

In the context of the Mindanao State University Main Campus, based on the observations made by the researcher, normal conversations inside and outside the English classrooms are characterized by a high prevalence of code switching. To illustrate: “*Sino ang absent ngayon? (Who is absent today?) Ano ang gagawin natin sa English? (What are we to do in English?) Magsusulat pa ako ng report ko sa History. (I will be writing my report in History.) Ma’am may test ba? (Ma’am do we have a test?)*, and so on.

A few of the common utterances which are normally heard inside and outside the classrooms when analyzed could be uttered in simple English and yet the students still prefer not to. Confirmation of what used to be mere observation came from one of the researcher’s Oral Communication classes in which only one question was asked “Why don’t you speak in English?” Most of the given responses were: *Hirap eh! (It’s hard!) Tinatamad ako eh! (I feel lazy!) Tagal eh! (It takes time!)*. There were more of such instances of conscious reverting to the native tongue.

Majority of the students confirmed that saying things in English takes much of their time. They even admitted that they were not used to speaking in English; they were more comfortable using Filipino. Besides, they hate being reprimanded or even insulted with such words as “Tagalugin mo na lang!” (Just say it in Tagalog!)

These observations could imply only one thing: their peers, their environment, the people around, and their very own attitudes hinder them in manifesting their desire to communicate in English orally; hence, their WTC in the second language suffers. If there is one opportunity that language learners should find necessary and desirable, it is the pleasure of engaging in an ordinary conversation with others using the target language. Such opportunity unfortunately seems widely spaced and far apart.

Given that language development can occur through oral communication interaction, it can be asserted that more interaction leads to further language development and learning. Hence, in order to develop proficiency in English, learners ought to take every opportunity to practice this skill. In the scenario involving majority of the students in MSU, how can they possibly develop their English proficiency when they do not practice the skill? How can they be linguistically

competitive in the world of work when they are not confident in using the target language which is now recognized world-wide as the international lingua franca?

To address the needs regarding English language proficiency in the University, the MSU, Main Campus, has launched the Job Enabling English Proficiency (JEEP) Program in June 2009. The aim of JEEP is to help Mindanao graduates secure and retain jobs in highly-favored sectors which require proficiency in English.

However, competence in the second language may not be enough (Dörnyei 2001). Students need to be willing to communicate in the second language. Research works have found that students, who are willing to participate in communication in the target language, exhibit greater gains in second language proficiency compared to those who play a passive role in language interaction.

It is in this context that this study was undertaken to examine the factors that influence students' willingness to communicate in English. For this purpose, Job Enabling English Proficiency Program (JEEP) students in the Mindanao State University Main Campus were chosen as respondents. This study also tried to determine the different speech situations where students communicate using the target language.

The Willingness to Communicate Construct

The concept of WTC was developed from Burgoon's (1976, pp. 60-69) concept of unwillingness to communicate which was first hypothesized as a personality characteristic and a trait-like predisposition to account for individual differences in L1 communication. Based on the findings of Burgoon (1976), Mortensen et al. (1977) and McCroskey and Richmond (1982, 1987, 1990) proposed WTC to be the individuals' tendency to initiate communication when they are free to do so. They proposed WTC to be a trait-like predisposition.

Based on this view, researchers have investigated the influence of an individual's variables on WTC. Among all variables, perceived communicative competence and communication apprehension were found to be the best predictors of WTC (Baker and McIntyre 2000; McIntyre 1994; McIntyre et al. 2001; McCroskey and Richmond 1991).

In 1998, McIntyre, Clement, Dörnyei, and Noels discussed that it is not necessary to limit WTC to a trait-like variable. They conceptualized WTC as a situational variable with both transient and enduring variables. They defined L2 WTC as "a readiness to enter into discourse at a particular time with a specific person or persons, using a L2." They provided a pyramid model of the variables affecting WTC as shown in figure 1.

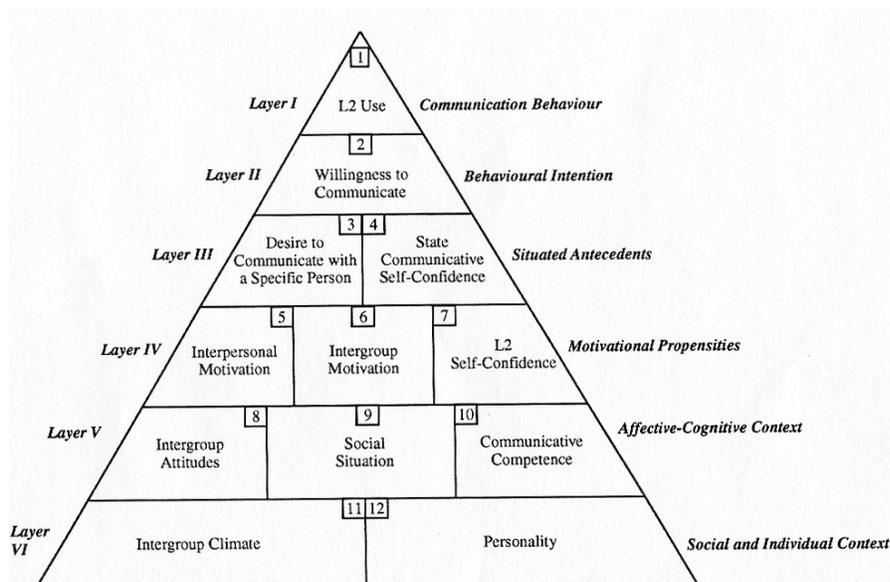


Figure 1. Heuristic Model of Variables Influencing WTC

There are six layers in the pyramid model. The first three layers of the model refer to those variables which have situation-specific effect on individual's WTC, and the next three layers include those variables with enduring influence on WTC. The first layer of the model is authentic communication in the second language. This includes activities like reading a book or speaking in second language in the classroom. In second language, there is WTC as the immediate variable behind communicative use of language. Layer three of the pyramid depicts the desire to communicate with specific persons and state communication self-confidence as the situated antecedents of communication. State self-confidence refers to the feeling of having the capacity to communicate effectively at a particular moment. Layer four shows the role of motivational propensities which tend to be stable individual variables: interpersonal motivation, intergroup motivation, and second language self-confidence. Interpersonal and intergroup motivation are the basic factors affecting desire to communicate with specific persons in the third layer. The fifth layer is devoted to those variables that are to some extent remote from language learning and communication context. The variables mentioned in this layer are intergroup attitude, social situation and communicative competence. Variables in this layer affect WTC by having influence on the variables discussed in the preceding layers. The last layer of the pyramid is the layer of social and individual context. Here, social context alludes to intergroup climate. And individual context refers to those personality variables related to communication.

Several studies have emerged to identify the different factors that can influence second language learners' willingness to communicate in the language classroom.

The most recent study conducted in the field of willingness to communicate was made by Scott Charles Aubrey in 2010. The study investigated factors which contributed to willingness to communicate (WTC) as it manifested from moment-to-moment in a Japanese EFL classroom for three different sized class types: a one-on-one classroom, a small group classroom, and a large group classroom. A classroom observation scheme, participant interviews (including stimulated recall) and a questionnaire were adopted as methods to examine factors which predict state-like

WTC behavior in each class type. Inter-group analysis between class types revealed that class size was a very strong factor affecting WTC. In addition, the approach of communicative language teaching (CLT) was found to increase WTC only if students had a positive attitude towards CLT. The attitudinal construct of international posture was also found to be a significant factor which motivated students to communicate more using English. A number of other factors were revealed in interviews: topic relevancy, group cohesiveness, anxiety, perception of teacher participation, and level of activity difficulty. However, the influence of each factor was found to vary in significance depending on class size. These findings, although tentative, contribute to an understanding of WTC behavior in different class sizes and point to future research that can be done in this field. By considering implications on L2 pedagogy, suggestions are made on how teachers can improve their students' WTC in larger classes.

In the Philippines, Glendora Tiu (2011) conducted a study about willingness to communicate. The study sought to analyze the classroom opportunities provided by Chiang Kai Shek College (CKSC) to the first year high school students in relation to the latter's willingness to communicate (WTC). It employed the descriptive research design to find out what these opportunities are. Likewise, it examined if these opportunities could provoke in the students the desire to communicate, as well as the manner by which students react and respond to the opportunities given them. Data were gathered from 320 first year students through the use of the researcher-made questionnaire/checklist. Informal interviews and observations were also done to enrich the study.

Findings showed that all the opportunities provided by the school were intended to move students to speak; however, not all opportunities were found to provoke in the students the desire to communicate orally in the target language. It was also discovered that practical speaking or a normal conversation was one of the best opportunities the language students could experience inside and outside the classroom. Furthermore, the study showed that ordinary speech, talk or dialog is of big assistance to a language learner in the context of confidence, fluency, and competence. The researcher concluded that one's WTC is not solely dependent on the students' attitude and motivation, but also on the opportunities provided them and the manner by which these opportunities are administered.

Reflecting on these studies, the researcher decided to investigate the relationship between the respondents' willingness to communicate in English vis-à-vis their linguistic-self confidence, motivation, attitude and personality.

Statement of the Problem

The present study examined the factors which affect the Job Enabling English Proficiency (JEEP) Program students' willingness to communicate (WTC) in the English language in the Mindanao State University, Main Campus. It also attempted to establish the relationship between the respondents' profile and their willingness to communicate in English, and the relationship between the respondents' linguistic self-confidence, motivation, attitude and personality vis-à-vis their willingness to communicate in English.

Specifically, this study sought to answer the following questions:

1. What is the profile of the JEEP students' in terms of:
 - 1.1 Gender;
 - 1.2 Age;
 - 1.3 Course;
 - 1.4 Year Level; and
 - 1.5 Ethnicity?
2. How is English often used in the following speech situations in the University: English classes, non-English classes, libraries, dormitories/cottages, canteen/cafeteria, commercial center, banks/money sending agencies, terminal, and churches/mosques?
3. How willing are the respondents to communicate in English in the different speech situations?
4. What are the factors which contribute to the respondents' willingness to communicate in English?
5. Is there a significant relationship between the respondents' profile and their willingness to communicate in English?
6. Is there a significant relationship between the respondents' linguistic self-confidence, motivation, attitude and personality, and their willingness to communicate in English?

Null Hypotheses

1. There is no significant relationship between the respondents' profile and their willingness to communicate in English.
2. There is no significant relationship between the respondents' linguistic self-confidence, motivation, attitude and personality vis-à-vis their willingness to communicate in English.

Research Design

This study used the qualitative-quantitative research paradigm to probe into the factors affecting the respondents' willingness to communicate in English. The quantitative aspect of the study involved the use of questionnaire to describe their linguistic self-confidence, motivation and attitude of the respondents toward English and how it affects their willingness to communicate. On the questionnaire the speech events or situations where students would speak in English were included or enumerated.

On the other hand, the qualitative aspect of the study involved semi-structured interview to expound and elaborate the quantitative results. The data gathered from the questionnaires were cross-checked and verified through interview to determine the veracity of the data gathered. The data collected both from the questionnaire and interviews were then analyzed to find out the factors affecting the respondents' willingness to communicate in English.

Locale of the Study

The study was conducted in the Mindanao State University, at its Main Campus in Marawi City, Philippines.

The MSU-Marawi campus is home to many Christian, Muslim, and Lumad youths (from indigenous communities) alike who are aspiring to acquire knowledge, skills, and other opportunities for better lives. Since students in MSU are coming from different regions in the country, they also bring with them their different regional dialects, making Tagalog the lingua franca of the campus. As a residential campus in a non-metropolitan setting, MSU is a social laboratory where young and old people, Muslims, Christians, and Lumads or members of indigenous/cultural communities from all over Mindanao converge to learn with and from each other. MSU students live and learn together. Although they speak different regional languages, they understand one another; live in harmony and peace amidst diversity.

The JEEP Program

The Job Enabling English Proficiency or JEEP was launched in June 2009. JEEP is a new project established by GEM (Growth with Equity in Mindanao), a USAID-funded program which has been active in Mindanao for over 13 years, working in infrastructure development, business development, governance, and workforce preparation.

Through the engagement in workforce preparation, GEM has increasingly observed that one of the most significant barriers to acquiring favored employment is the lack of sufficient proficiency in the English language. Accordingly, in November 2008, USAID commissioned a survey of English language development at higher education institutions in Mindanao and a design for a project that would match identified needs and circumstances. The result was an employment-focused English project designated as *JEEP: Job Enabling English Proficiency*.

The aim of JEEP is to help Mindanao graduates secure and retain jobs in highly-favored sectors which require proficiency in English, such as international nursing and allied health, call center and other Business Processing Outsourcing (BPO) employment in these areas. For example, while nursing graduates are very successful in passing the licensure exam, around 50% fail to achieve the required score on the IELTS, the main test of English required by international health-sector employers. In turn, the figure for call center employment is much lower, with just 4% of applicants meeting the employers' standards for English proficiency.

As a response to these compelling real-world needs, JEEP has been designed as a focused, practical, skills-based program. It is a two-year program which is offered as an elective to third year students. The first year of the program, designated as JEEP-Start, is based on Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL), using the highly regarded American software DynEd. JEEP-Start focuses on developing General English skills, while the second year, designated as JEEP-Accelerate, offers a range of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) courses focused on preparation for employment in the target sectors.

The JEEP-Start includes the English 11 and 12. The English 11 is a semester course which equips students with skills for interacting with English speakers in their community and beyond. These will be, for the most part, taught using CALL (Computer Assisted Language Learning) utilizing the DynEd Software, namely New Dynamic English (NDE), English for Success (EFS),

The Lost Secret, and Clear Speechworks. This course will not only foster the development of a functional command of spoken and written English; it will also help prepare the student get ahead in school and in future workplaces. On the other hand, the English 12 is designed to present the essence of effective speech and oral communication. This presents explicit array of effective communication theories paired with practical application suited for pre-conditioned and conditioned environments, which is reinforced by intensive 5-hour JEEP laboratory training.

This course is highlighted with lessons magnified on the following: Speech Communication Process, Intrapersonal and Interpersonal (dyadic, small group, and public speaking) communication, and enhancement of the communicative competencies.

The JEEP-Accelerate is composed of English 13 and 14. The English 13 is English for employment. This interactive course is designed to improve the level of English used by non-native English speaking students with specialized vocabulary areas, functions and skills related to the use of English in the profession as well as in life skills to help students in their daily lives. The English 14 is English for Employment 2. This course emphasizes the practical application of hospitality and tourism industries through simulated activities and actual experiences. This combines General English with the specialized vocabulary areas, functions and skills related to the use of English in this field of specialization. English 14 was not yet offered during the conduct of this research.

Respondents

The respondents of the study were the students of the Mindanao State University, Main Campus who were enrolled in JEEP courses in the first semester of school year 2011-2012. Specifically, the JEEP courses were English 11 (Skills for Interacting with English Speakers in their Community and Beyond), English 12 (Effective Speech and Oral Communication), and English 13 (English for Employment). The students enrolled in the JEEP Program are those who come from the College of Hotel and Restaurant Management, College of Health Sciences, and the College of Business Administration and Accountancy.

Sampling Procedure

This study used the Sloven's formula in order to identify the correct number of samples for this study.

$$\text{Sloven's Formula: } n \text{ (sample)} = \frac{N}{1 + Ne^2}$$

Where:

N – the total population

e- error or level of significance (0.05)

There were 206 active students of the JEEP Program in the first semester of the School Year 2011-2012. There were 56 students enrolled for the English 11, 41 students for the English 12, and 9 students for the English 13. Using the Sloven's formula, it was found that 136 (135.97) was the needed number of sample units. To compute how many students would be drawn from

each subject/course, the researcher used stratified random sampling. Stratified random sampling subdivides population into subgroup.

Total Population for each Subject/Course
Total Number of Enrollees of the JEEP Program X Needed Sample

After computing or determining the needed number of respondents for each subject, the simple random sampling was applied in identifying those students who served as respondents for this study. Simple random sampling is a sampling strategy that selects the respondents at random from a list of the population.

Research Instruments

The researcher used 16 Personality Factors Test, questionnaire and interview questions.

The 16 Personality Factors Test (16PF) was used to determine the personality of the respondents that might or could have influenced the respondents' willingness to communicate in English. The 16 PF factors can be thought of as "facets" of the more global Big Five dimensions. The test questionnaire contains 16 bipolar scales (called "primary factors") and several validity scales, with fifteen (15) of the factors measuring personality traits and one (1) factor measuring cognitive ability or reasoning ability.

The questionnaire was designed to measure the willingness to communicate in English among the respondents, the domains where respondents speak in English, and the factors influencing their willingness to communicate in English. The first part of the questionnaire includes relevant descriptive facts such as sex, age, course, year level, and ethnicity. The second part consists of the domains and situations where the students speak in English, followed by the respondents' linguistic self-confidence, motivation and attitude toward English.

Interview questions were used to verify the results of the questionnaire. In order for the researcher to remember the answers given by the respondents during the process of interviewing which were used as transcripts, the researcher used a voice recorder.

Statistical Tools

Contingency coefficient (C) was used to determine the significant relationship between two categorical or nominal data. If the *p-value* of the test statistic is less than $\alpha=0.05$ level of significance, then the formulated null hypothesis is rejected and is significant.

The formula is:

$$C = \sqrt{\frac{\chi^2}{\chi^2 + n}}$$

Where: χ^2 is the chi-square
 n is the sample.

To find significant relationship between linguistic self-confidence, motivation, attitude and personality vis-a-vis the respondents' willingness to communicate in English, the test statistic used was the **Pearson's r** .

The formula is:

$$r_{xy} = \frac{n\left(\sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i\right) - \left(\sum_{i=1}^n x_i\right)\left(\sum_{i=1}^n y_i\right)}{\sqrt{\left[n\left(\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2\right) - \left(\sum_{i=1}^n x_i\right)^2\right]\left[n\left(\sum_{i=1}^n y_i^2\right) - \left(\sum_{i=1}^n y_i\right)^2\right]}}$$

Where: n is the number of pairs in x and y .

Findings of the Study

1. Out of the 129 respondents, most of the respondents were females which constituted one hundred one (101) or 78.3% , ages 16-17 with a number of sixty-eight (68) or 52.8%, from the College of Health Sciences who were seventy-five (75) or 58.1%, first year students with a number of seventy-two (72) or 55.8%, and Meranaos with a number of sixty-four (64) or 49.6%;
2. With regards to the frequency of English language use in the different speech situations in the university, it was found that respondents sometimes use the English language in English classes, Non-English classes, in the library, with college officials, with college personnel and staff, with university officials, with the university registrar, among university administrative staff, and in the dormitories, while they seldom use English language in the cafeteria/canteen and in the commercial center;
3. Concerning the willingness to communicate in English in the different speech situations, respondents disclosed that they were sometimes willing to communicate in English in English classes, with classmates and friends outside English classes, with a librarian, and to the staff of money sending establishments. They were never willing to speak or talk in English to the manager of the canteen/ cafeteria, with acquaintances in the golf course, to a stranger in the golf course, with friends and classmates while standing in a money sending establishment, to the manager of the dormitory/cottage they were staying, to the dispatcher and driver in the terminal, and to the priest/pastor/imam outside the church/mosque; and were rarely willing to communicate in English among friends and classmates in the canteen/cafeteria, to the staff of the canteen/cafeteria, with friends and classmates in the commercial center and with other people while shopping or dining in the commercial center;

4. Regarding respondents' linguistic self-confidence, speaking in English during admission interview ranked first (4.527) and speaking in English when having a field trip ranked last (2.860);
5. Regarding the overall average of the respondents linguistic self-confidence, it turned out that they are linguistically confident sometimes with a mean of 3.539;
6. On the respondents' motivation and attitude, they strongly agreed that they must learn English which ranked first (4.977) and were undecided in terms of spending 5-6 hours in a week studying English which ranked last (2.830);
7. Overall, the respondents were motivated and have positive attitude toward learning English language;
8. Male and female respondents were both average in terms of their sociability, dominance, conscientiousness, adventurousness, tender-mindedness, group dependency, self-control and tenseness/excitability; they are above average in terms of their sophistication and insecurity; and below average in terms of emotional stability, enthusiasm, and practicability; males were found to have an average level of intelligence while females were below average, and males were average in terms of their suspiciousness while females were above average;
9. Overall, the respondents who were found to be normally extroverted, have an average level of anxiety, moderately strong-willed, independent and have an average self-control;
10. Among the demographic factors, only gender had the significant relationship affecting students' willingness to communicate in English; and
11. It was found that linguistic self-confidence, motivation, attitude and personality were significant to the respondents' willingness to communicate in English.

Conclusions

Based on the analysis and interpretation of the data elicited from the respondents in the various speech situations on the factors affecting their willingness to communicate in English language, the following conclusions were inferred:

1. Females are more willing to communicate in English.
2. Familiarity to the speech situations and communication object enhances students' willingness to communicate in English.
3. Respondents prefer authentic communication situations for them to use the English language.
4. Willingness to communicate in English is affected by their linguistic self-confidence, motivation, attitude and personality.

5. Respondents were passive English language learners.
6. Some students find the use of English language “absurd.”
7. Learning English and using it is almost completely limited to the respondents’ instrumental or utilitarian motivation.
8. Some English teachers as well as non-English teachers do not help in the development of students’ English proficiency. They themselves have been derelict in the area by inconstant good modeling and neglect of the Bilingual English Policy.
9. The domain of English is shrinking.

Implications

Based on the findings and conclusions, the following implications were drawn:

1. Gender affects the degree of willingness to communicate in English.
2. The shrinking of the domain of English language is brought by lack of social support from English teachers, non-English teachers, and peers. There is a problem in the application of Bilingual Education Policy in the University.
3. Lack of linguistic knowledge and self-confidence hinder WTC.
4. The motivation and attitude of the respondents toward English language is based on the idea that it is necessary to be successful in life.
5. The JEEP Program helps in fostering willingness to communicate in English.

Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study, the following recommendations can be made.

1. Teachers should try to create a favorable learning environment to help and promote motivations of various learners’ and increase learners’ class participation. Students with internal motivation have stronger sense of participation than those without. Their attitude is more positive and they are more eager for the communicative opportunities in class. Students with strong internal motivation are more willing to take the initiative to communicate and their English is better. A well-organized class setting is likely to help promote students’ motivation. Students with mixed motives have more enthusiasm in class participation than those with external motivation, and they focus their attention on class participation better. When coming to cooperate with teachers, students with mixed motives have a better performance than those only with external motivation.
2. Students with strong self-confidence often grasp the nettle, and show initiative in class discussions; and students with less self-confidence tend to perform a fear of hardship and

hold a passive attitude. Confident students also have good control in their own studies, have a sense of competence and easily achieve accomplishment in class; students with less self-confidence fear to speak English in front of the whole class. As they explain, facing so many classmates, they fear they can not find the appropriate words to express their ideas and worry about other students' ridicule. Rather than to face the "possible" embarrassment, these students would choose to keep silent during most of class time. These students' self-confidence to a large extent has influenced the degree of their class participation. Therefore, in English classes, teachers should strive to create a harmonious environment of "psychological security" and "psychological freedom", so as to reduce the anxieties among students and help to enhance their confidence to integrate into communicative activities in classes.

3. Acknowledge, praise, and commend students speaking in English particularly in class discussions, recitations, and the like, so as to motivate them to learn, speak, and love the language.
4. Familiarity with the culture and ethnic background of the students and an awareness of their previous language learning experiences can also assist language teachers to understand and decode anxiety-related behaviors in some students. In a class of mixed cultures, teachers should specifically make the effort to create a sense of friendship and cooperation among the students. This will help them to speak more confidently and with less anxiety in the class, that in turn, will result to their willingness to communicate using the target language.
5. Instructors should be able to provide realistic situations wherein the students would be able to communicate in English. Instructors can use the American Corner to contact their friends or colleagues, foreigners or not, abroad which enable students to interact in English via videoconferencing. Since computer-mediated communication is believed to promote speaking, increase student motivation, and self-esteem (Compton 2004), having online communication would, not only enable students to communicate in English, but also motivate them to learn English and increase their self-confidence.
6. The JEEP Program should stay in the University for Good. The Mindanao State University as a premier institution of higher learning and as a chartered University must keep abreast with recent development and need to be at the frontiers of new modes of teaching and current trends and strategies in the delivery of classroom instruction. Specifically, in teaching communicative competencies, there is a shift from traditional classroom and/or the Speech Lab approach to CALL (Computer-Assisted Language Learning) where certain specific skills are addressed to respond to the needs in the industry and in work settings. The JEEP is a special program based on the DynEd Software that provides for innovative ways of teaching and learning English to help make MSU graduates globally competitive. The program provides teaching and learning English in a more interesting approach through animated graphics, problem solving techniques and others. Teaching software and a variety of audio and video equipments provide extra means in language teaching. Vivid courseware can stimulate students' learning interest and enable teachers to grasp students' attention and get the timely

feedback from them. As a consequence, there will be an increased sense of class participation and an enhanced willingness to communicate.

7. Administrators should strengthen the English language program in the University. While the university places more emphasis on Peace and Development programs, they should realize that Peace could not be attained if people are hungry, jobless, and poor. English has become the premier language of the global market. One of the functions of education is to foster “graduate employability.” English proficiency is a crucial factor for hiring, retention and promotion in any organization. The university needs to promote and elevate the value of English to further its clientele’s personal and professional development and open up for them opportunities to achieve a much better life. Proficiency in English language is not just about the elite or globally competitive individuals, but about people acquiring necessary tools to get good jobs leading to their economic sustainability.
8. Further investigation is recommended to further explore the other possible factors that influence L2 learners’ WTC, particularly in the context of the Mindanao State University in Marawi City.

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Beyond Collaborative Learning: The Application of Social Software and Social Networking Sites

Shu-Fen Tseng, Chien-Lung Chan

0099

Yuan Ze University, Taiwan

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Abstract:

An increasing number of school education experiments are beginning to combine e-learning/m-learning education delivery with social software and social networking sites (i.e. blog, wiki, social bookmarking, Facebook, Twitter, Plurk). Scholars suggested computer-supported collaborative learning can be enhanced by web 2.0 tools because of three reasons: it creates a personal learning environment; it supports knowledge networking and community building; and it emphasizes a knowledge-pull model. Recently, there has been an increasing focus on social software applications on knowledge sharing and collaborative learning. However, current evaluation on educational benefits associated with the use of social network sites and software are limited. The objective of this study is to employ case-study comparative research to collect and compare worldwide experimental projects to explore the relationship between new social software applications and collaborative learning. In particular, three projects were selected to explore the relationship of new technologies and collaborative learning: the iCamp project launched by the European Union, the Futurelab project supported by the British Education and Communications Technology Agency, and the Future School Promotion Project launched by the Japan Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications. Results of these cases comparison suggested that without comprehensive design in learning process and carefully arrangement in these tools usage onto goals, collaborative learning would not materialized in web 2.0 platform. Moreover, participants who have shared cultural or domains of interest in a newly formed team are important to ensure members to interact with others and to keep high motivation. Finally, a user-generated reputation system to monitor and sanction actions is necessary for motivating further interactions and community building during collaborative process.

Keywords: social networking sites, collaborative learning, e-learning

1. Introduction

Social networking site and software has gained its recognition as a major component of the web 2.0 movement. One of the world-leading learning 2.0 advocates, Lance Dublin suggested the array of web 2.0 social software tools, such as blogs, wikis, podcasts, video-casts, games, simulations, etc., are giving us powerful new options to collaborate, extend, enhance and enable learning in an accelerated mode (Dublin, Consultant, and Consortium, 2008). Social networking site and software creates a personal learning environment. It takes a bottom-up approach and enables people to organize themselves into a network based on their preferences. These tools provide a powerful way to foster community building as users share, organize, discover, look for what others have tagged and find people with same interests. There has been an increasing focus on social software applications and services on knowledge sharing and collaborative learning.

Recognizing the potentials of web 2.0-based educational tools for self-directed learning, collaboration and social networking, many countries are committed to the development of a new generation of e-learning. In particular, three projects were selected to explore the relationship of new technologies and collaborative learning: the iCamp project launched by the European Union, one of the Futurelab project called Mobimission, supported by the British Education and Communications Technology Agency, and the Future School Promotion Project launched by the Japan Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications. The main purpose of this study is to review these projects and clarify the reasons why these trials show limited outcomes of collaborative learning in a web 2.0 environment, and employ case-study comparative research to collect and compare worldwide experimental projects to explore the relationship between new social software applications and collaborative learning.

2. Literature Review

2.1 The Emerging Learning 2.0

Dublin (2008) has coined the concept of learning 2.0. He suggested that by using social software includes blogs, wikis, podcasts, video casts, games, simulations, virtual worlds, and social network tools, the learning 2.0 world accelerated the development of formal instructional design process and environment. These tools and technologies give us a new approach to collaborate and enhance learning mode.

Learning 2.0 is characterized by five elements: rapid, mobile, immersive, collaborative and non-formal learning. Internet-based application provide faster learning mode, the application tools combine audio, video and text into program and curricular which lead the contents more contextualize, easier find and quickly create or be adapted. Mobile Learning is a type of learning style with the explosion of mobile device such as smart phones, tablet and pad, these devices make us access the information and lesson via internet more easily and faster, people may learn lessons, information, resources in small, manageable formats that they can access on a handheld device. Games provide an effective way to support and accelerate learning. From multiplayer online games (MMOGs) to sophisticated computer simulations to virtual worlds, it is now possible to create and deploy truly immersive learning environments that accelerate learning and innovation. Collaborative learning is based on the model that knowledge can be created within a population where members actively interact by sharing experiences and take on asymmetry roles. Nonformal learning in Web 2.0 environment combines clear intention with the support of this new array of powerful and effective nonformal tools, technologies, and approaches to enhance learning activities.

2.2 World-wide Collaborative Learning Cases

2.2.1 The iCamp Project

iCamp is a research and development project funded by the European Commission under the IST (Information Society Technology) programmed of 6th Framework Program (FP6). The project aims to create an infrastructure for collaboration and networking across systems and countries in higher education. Several objectives are fulfilled through three validation trials, which have different foci and scales and involve different higher education institutions in Europe (iCamp Consortium, 2006).

Three trials had been conducted, the first one, from October 2006 to February 2007, was aiming at understanding the cross-cultural computer-supported collaborative learning activities in the iCamp Space environment. There were four European higher education institutions involved and totally thirty-six students as participation. The students organized themselves into four- or five-member groups, and there was one facilitator within a group. Each group was to co-create a questionnaire with different tools, including blogs (WordPress), emails, IP telephony (Skype), shared web-based workspace (Google Docs and Spreadsheet), instant chat (MSN messenger), and videoconferencing system (Flashmeeting). Generally speaking, the

result of the first trial was not as well as expected. The evaluation report suggested some students were unprepared, unmotivated or lacked relevant knowledge/experience to engage in self-directed learning. Even those peers who interacted most were generally using the e-mail rather than others web 2.0 tools. And concluded that participants should be fully informed about the availability, strengths and limits of individual tools and systematic training of tool uses to attain certain threshold is also necessary (iCamp Consortium, 2007).

The second validation trial was conducted from April 2007 to February 2008, aims to validate how self-directed learning (SDL) can effectively be supported with the use of social software in online cross-cultural collaborative learning settings, and further advance students' SDL competencies. Four European academic institutions were involved in the second trial, bringing together twenty-four students and divided into seven groups. Each group was required to accomplish a project collaboratively on a selected topic and supervised by a facilitator. Students were required to create, reflect on and revise their personal learning contract (PLC) under negotiation with their facilitators and peers. Seven project groups with different topics under the overarching theme "new media" were formed. The main evaluation instruments during this trial employed were surveys, interviews, digital archives (i.e. blog messages, email archives, videoconference recordings), and automatic data logging (i.e. Weblog feeds, myDentity). Unfortunately, the purported function of personal learning contract for the students to self-regulate their learning process was not fulfilled. Weblog was most popular tool in this trial. It was attributed to the students' familiarity with this tool and its assigned function in trial 2 for documenting learning contract. Nevertheless, similar to trial 1, the students tended to fall back on e-mail once again. The conclusion of this trial suggested that an unstructured open environment might scare off a number of students. On the other hand, both students and some facilitators had vague concepts about self-directed learning. Finally, as in previous trial, the success of this online collaborative learning course depends on the motivation of the participants (iCamp Consortium, 2008).

The third validation trial was conducted from April 2008 to July 2008, with the primary aim to validate how self-directed learning and social networking (SNW) can effectively be supported with the use of social software in entirely online cross-cultural collaborative learning settings. One of the main objectives of trial 3 was to improve the students' competencies in collaboration, social networking and self-directed learning. Compared to the first 2 trials, trial 3 was the largest trial involving seventy-six students from eleven countries registered for the course. They were divided into ten different groups; each was supervised by a facilitator. Each

group was required to develop an online course on the topic of their choice. In addition, they were also required to prepare a personal learning contract. Weblog was the main tool for students to record their learning condition in both individual and group learning activities. There are plenty other tools (i.e. Objectspot, Videowiki, Scuttle...etc.) have been used by rested groups. Despite this, although the number of registered students was very high, only a few students in each group were really active. In fact, some students remained silent most of the time or just disappeared. The results pointed out that the facilitator plays an important role in the process, which means the activeness of the students depended heavily on the facilitating styles of the related facilitators. Moreover, there are apparently cultural differences in the student cognition for self-directed learning (iCamp Consortium, 2009).

2.2.2 UK Futurelab: Example of the MobiMissions Project

Futurelab is an independent not-for-profit organization in UK, dedicates to transform teaching and learning by innovative practice and technology, some of its projects was supported by the British Education and Communications Technology Agency. Currently, there are around 70 ongoing projects in the Futurelab. We selected one of the experimental projects-MobiMissions to elaborate their learning 2.0 attempt. MobiMissions, is based on the concept of creating and responding to Missions on a mobile phone, it is a new location-aware mobile phone game prototype created in partnership between Futurelab and the Mixed Reality Lab (MRL) at the University of Nottingham. It was conducted over five weeks in late 2006 to identify and explore significant factors affecting young people's participation in a locative and communicative mobile phone experience. 17 volunteers, aged between 16 and 18 years old were participant in the project. The final game centered on the creation of "missions" consisting of photographs and text on a mobile phone, which were then released into the players' current cell, where they remained until discovered by another player. On finding a mission, players were able to pick it up, respond to it and drop the mission in their current location, where it would remain. As a player's phone moves from one network cell to another in the course of a normal day, different missions become available to that player. Players were awarded points for creating and responding to missions, as well as for the quality of their missions and Responses. All missions and their responses were available to be viewed on a website.

Players earn points by creating and responding to missions, with more points given for creating missions, a more time-consuming and difficult task. Each time a player's mission is responded to, they earn another point. Of the 17 volunteers, 11

played throughout the trial. Making Responses was more popular than creating new missions, with players creating 123 Responses and only 73 missions during the five weeks of play and nearly all players creating more Responses than missions. However, of the 73 missions that players made, only 31 (42%) were responded to by anyone other than the author of the mission (Futurelab Consortium, 2006). This means that a relatively few number of missions attracted a great deal of the responses. The missions that had most responses included those “floating” missions that had been used at the beginning of the trials to “seed” the game, which were not fixed to location and therefore would have been found more frequently.

Some key findings in the MobiMissions project were suggested by the Futurelab Consortium (2007):

1. Reaching critical mass: for sustainability, enough players create and respond to one another’s content is needed to create a viable long-term experience.
2. Community building on supporting social play: acknowledging and reciprocating in a way that reaffirmed their knowledge of one another and reinforcing their social ties. Furthermore, most players did not share their experiences among them, they felt no social obligation to reciprocate to Missions.
3. Creating compelling content: create different “types” of missions, enable players to find the type of content that interests them, and to find people with similar interests and tastes.
4. Located interactions: Matching interest groups and technology. Which groups would find location-based interactions more relevant? i.e. people who are interested of wildlife, outdoor photography, oral history or tourism.
5. Conversational learning: avoid one snap shot interaction. Create progression between Missions, where players need to work together, reflect on what they’ve learnt in order to create and respond to further Missions.
6. Social exchange and motivation: linking reward and feedback to the intrinsic, emerging goals of the game is important.

2.2.3 Japan: The Future School Promotion Project

The Future School Promotion Project is a part of the “Haraguchi Vision II” in Japan Ministry of Internal Affairs. It includes a concrete plan to distribute digital learning material (digital textbook) for each primary and lower secondary student by 2015. The project was launched in September 2010. It aims at adding “coordinated education” whereby young people can use ICT to teach and learn from one another. To promote beneficial use of ICT in the field of education, this project provide tablet PC for each student, and every classrooms are equipped with interactive whiteboards, setting up portal sites for information sharing, and building a cooperative educational platform for delivering education material by means of education cloud. Most of all,

the virtual white sheet of paper embedded could make student able to exchange ideas and promote student learning through observing other's behavior, attitudes and outcomes. The system in the Future School Promotion project equipped with social community mechanism and providing function of highly social interactions is expected to foster the manner of self-directive learning.

Like other cases reformed e-learning, the Future School Promotion project extends the formal learning education, providing for new collaboration education by making use of ICT, there are three ways to implement for students to share information and materials: 1. Intra-school: tablet PCs and interactive whiteboards could be use in Intra-school cooperative education; 2. Inter-school: information could be shared between different places and at different times to realize classes that cooperate with other schools; 3. School-home cooperative education: supporting school activities in which the state of children's learning is shared with their parents to foster a feeling of trust between the parents and the school and get parents more involved in children's home learning. CollaboNote could not only link students in the classroom but also gather students from distance places, it collecting the pupils as a social community then allowing them to discuss and foster collaboration.

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3. Projects Summary

Table 1. Projects Summary

	Future School	FutureLab	iCamp
Period	2010.9~2011	2002~	2005.10~2008.10
Participants	Primary & secondary students	Teenager students Adults	Cross-nation college students, facilitator
Partnership	MIC, Fujitsu, Toshiba, NTT, JR Shikoku, 10 primary schools	UK 8 Policy deliberation Organizations · 11 Business Partner · 23 School & Educational institutions (primary school · Secondary school · University LAB).	Universities from 11 countries of EU (Bulgaria, Croatia, Czech Republic, Estonia, Finland, Holland, Lithuania, Poland, Romania and Spain)
Objective	Cooperative education	Teaching with games	Cross-cultural collaboration, Self-directed learning, and Social networking
Instruments	Toshiba CM1, Fujitsu tablet	Cellular phone, PDA, PC & software	Most on PC
Non-Formal	Formal	Formal, Informal, Non-Formal	Non-formal
SNS tools	Software(Virtual white sheet of paper)	Using software on PC, cellular phone, or computer games	Several Web2.0 tools (blog, wiki, SNS...etc), e-mail
Immersive	No	Games	No

Source: (iCamp Consortium, 2007; 2008; 2009; Futurelab Consortium, 2007; Market Intelligence Center Consortium 2008; Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications, 2011)

In all, three projects and their features are summarized in table 1. Both the MobiMissions project and Future School Promotion project used mobile devices to attain the learning goal of “just in time, just for me”. Nevertheless, we found just in time learning cannot be accomplished in a one snap shot game design, continuously

reciprocal interaction among members to maintain high degree of motivation is necessary. The low sustainability in the MobiMissions project revealed an evident lack of social exchange among members. Immersion learning could be found in the MobiMissions project design. However, players reported low interactivity with other members in the game. The score point design in the game was irrelevant in motivating players' involvement. Although both iCamp and MobiMissions projects intended to enhance collaborative learning, their collaborative activities were found lower than expected. The establishment of community is very important in the collaborative learning environment, however, neither the iCamp nor the MobiMissions group has built up sense of a community during the projects, and group members failed to collaborate with each other.

Furthermore, the reviews of iCamp and MobiMissions projects only show limited results illustrates that social media tools would not automatically solve learning problem without a careful design. A structured setting with clear instructions of using web 2.0 tools to accomplish task objectives is necessary to prepare participants a better engagement.

4. Conclusions and Suggestions

Social media tools are well recognized for their providing network-based community building in collaborative learning. The iCamp project launched by the European Union was designed to create an open, virtual learning environment with web 2.0 educational tools that support self-directed learning collaboration and social networking for higher education across Europe; the MobiMissions launched by the Futurelab was designed to create a mobile, local-based learning environment with web 2.0 tool on mobile device; the Future School Promotion project launched by the Japan Ministry of Internal Affairs was designed to adding "coordinated education" whereby young people can use ICT to teach and learn from one another.

In all, despite some results indicated potential for social media tools, the iCamp project failed to yield empirical evidence of multifarious impacts of building and involving in the intercultural virtual knowledge community. The Mobimission project used mobile gaming and scoring system to let user immersing in the mobile learning process also reported limited outcome. While the iCamp space and the Mobimission had created a web 2.0 intercultural environment for collaboration and social networking, main question is why designated tools for joint work were not used as much as expected?

After three cases demonstration and comparison, following conclusions could be made: First of all, these experimental trials in these cases yielded limited and inconsistent results. We suggest more empirical studies are needed, social networking software application on collaborating education benefit need to be further empirical verified. Secondly, social media tools would not automatically solve learning problem without a careful design. A structured setting with clear instructions of using web 2.0 tools to accomplish task objectives is necessary to prepare participants a better engagement. Without comprehensive design in learning process and carefully arrangement in these tools usage onto goals, collaborative learning would not materialized in web 2.0 platform. Thirdly, social networking community building is as important as using web 2.0 tools in a learning environment, which is beneficial for collaborative learning environment. In order to build up a learning community, the whole learning process should be more bottom-up assigned, which concludes user-generated topics and shared interests among members. Participants who have shared cultural or domains of interest in a newly formed team are important to ensure members to interact with others and to keep high motivation. Besides, the task design to link reward and feedback to the intrinsic, emerging goals of the task is important to encourage active collaboration. Finally, social exchange and sustainability is an important consideration for participants to keep interacts with others in the e-learning environment. A user-generated (peer to peer) reputation system (reward and feedback) to monitor and sanction actions is necessary for motivating further interactions and community building during collaborative process.

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The logo for 'iafor' is centered on the page. It consists of the lowercase letters 'iafor' in a light blue, sans-serif font. The logo is partially overlaid by a large, stylized graphic of two overlapping circular arcs. The upper arc is light blue and the lower arc is light red, both with a soft, feathered edge.

*Willingness to Communicate: The Effect of Conference Participation on Students' L2
Apprehension*

Rieko Matsuoka

0109

National college of Nursing, Japan

The Asian Conference on Language Learning 2012

Official Conference Proceedings 2012

Abstract:

The purpose of this study is to examine the lived experiences of Japanese college students majoring in nursing who reduced their levels of communication apprehension and eventually enhanced the level of willingness to communicate through their volunteering as interns at an international conference. Data were obtained from the focus group meeting of nine students who worked as interns at the international conference in 2008, complemented by participation observation by the author and individual semi-structured interviews for gaining the participants' personal backgrounds. A 120-minute meeting was audio-recorded and transcribed. Borrowing a content analysis approach (Krippendorff, 2004), the utterances from transcribed data were coded into meaningful units, which were categorized into factors of concepts representing the participants' socio-anthropological attitudes towards English. The factors elicited from coded units such as self-efficacy, and other-directedness were discussed as the possible causal factors of communication behaviors. In this study, the hypothesis 'the participation as an intern at the international conference can reduce the level of communication apprehension' was examined. As previous studies (e.g., Matsuoka, 2009) suggest, communication apprehension is regarded as the strongest negative antecedent to willingness to communicate, and some studies (e.g., Klopff, 1984) revealed that the Japanese communication apprehension is the highest amongst many nationalities including other East Asian countries; therefore, the teaching professionals should find on micro level the ways of reducing the Japanese learners' levels of communication apprehension in order to raise their willingness to communicate. Therefore, this study has important pedagogical implications in reducing students' communication apprehension in English.

Introduction

English has become an international ‘lingua franca’ and has been regarded as a necessary language for being a member of the international community (e.g., Jenkins, 2007); however, the high degree of communication apprehension has generated the lower level of willingness to communicate and consequently impeded the communicative competence among Japanese learners of English (Matsuoka, 2009).

Communication apprehension, the mental construct defined as “an individual’s level of fear or anxiety associated with either real or anticipated communication with another person or persons” (McCroskey, 1977 p.78), has been identified as the strongest factor in reducing the level of willingness to communicate among Japanese college students (Matsuoka, 2009). In cross-cultural apprehension research (Klopf, 1984), the Japanese were shown significantly more apprehensive than all other groups in the Pacific basin. As the high levels of communication apprehension may be regarded as one of the main causes for lowering the communicative competence in English, the efforts of reducing communication apprehension might enhance the communication behavior in English. Some literature (McCrosky, Gudykunst, & Nishide, 1984), on the other hand, revealed that Japanese learners of English projected high communication apprehension not only in English but also in their mother tongue, which might be caused by socio-anthropological factors. In the similar token, Berger and McCroskey (2004) reported that a great number of pharmacy students have high communication apprehension and the program developed for reducing their high communication apprehension turned out to be effective.

In this study, using content analysis approach (Krippendorff, 2004), meaningful codes or units were elicited from the data composed of their lived experiences (Brown, Dewey, Martinsen, & Baker, 2011) and they were categorized into concepts. These categorized concepts consisting of codes or units may explain the ways in which Japanese learners may have built their sense of self. The focal point of this study is to find out the way in which the experiences of being interns at an international conference were successful in reducing the levels of communication apprehension of serious learners of English.

Methods

Participants

Nine students majoring in nursing at the national college participated in this study.

From more than 400 students, they volunteered to help the conference as an intern. The announcement calling for this was posted on students' bulletin board and also was sent to all students via email text message individually. Although the conference was held in Tokyo, seventy to eighty participants were native speakers of English, and the participants of this study were expected to be exposed to English-speaking environment and to use English during the conference sessions. Five of them were females and four are males. Five of them were the third year students, whose age ranged from 20 to 21; four of them were the first year students whose age ranged from 18 to 19. Their average age was 19.67.

Four participants out of five third year students volunteered to work as interns at the same international conference in 2007, and they knew what they were expected to do. One first year female student (Hereafter **A**) was a returnee and lived in the UK for two years while her father conducted his research in dentistry; the other first year female student (Hereafter **B**) is not a returnee but her aunt is a professional interpreter who travels overseas frequently and has given her motivation to learn English. One of the first year male students (Hereafter **C**) is from a high school designated as a 'super English language high school' where most English teachers were native speakers, and only around third of the students were so-called regular students who have no rigorous foreign experiences. The other first year male student (Hereafter **D**) is from one of the top high schools where English education was highlighted. All three female third year students (Hereafter **E**, **F**, & **G**) have had some experiences of traveling overseas and are interested in international nursing. One of two third year male students (Hereafter **H**), whose father is an English teacher, pronounces English native-like though he has never been abroad and did not have any experiences of contacting native speakers. The other third year male student (**I**) does not seem to be motivated to learn English but is always helpful, and he said his English worked well enough for the communication with English speaking attendees. Table 1 below shows the participants' backgrounds gained from interviews and observation.

Procedure

Nine participants joined a 120-minute meeting, and the conversation there was audio-recorded and transcribed. As all of them are Japanese and their native language is Japanese, the meeting was conducted in Japanese. The questions asked at this meeting

included a) whether they had any changes in their communication behaviors in English, b) what sorts of difficulties or problems they had during the conference sessions, and c) how they felt in speaking English. In a relaxed condition with food and drinks, they were free to express their feelings, reflecting their experiences.

Findings: lived experiences

A is a returnee student and proficient in speaking English. She is an outgoing and sociable girl and has been able to get along with other students in spite of her different background of living in the UK for certain amount of time. As she is a native-like speaker, she was assigned to work as a helper on the equipment team with **B**. She said she enjoyed helping the conference attendees with some problems in a technical area such as the case of being unable to use the computer in their presentation rooms. However, she said that she was surprised to find herself overly nervous in speaking English when another conference intern who is a good speaker of English was around her. **A** seems to be a carefree person from the observation but she stated clearly that she felt highly apprehensive in speaking English in that person's presence. When I asked her why she thought she felt that way, she tried to analyze her behavior and said that she might want to speak better English than the other intern and concerned about what she looked like.

B has no experiences of living abroad but she said she has had a great influence from her aunt who travels a lot and has worked as a translator. According to **B**, her aunt in mid-forties, with dyed hair in blond color and a very short skirt, looks different from other so-called ordinary Japanese women. Her aunt is capable of speaking not only English but also Spanish and Portuguese, and her boyfriend is a Portuguese. **B** looks happy and even proud when she talked about her aunt. When she meets her at a family gathering for instance, her aunt speaks English or other foreign languages on phone with her foreign friend. She said that she felt from her aunt's deed she could expand her world through communication when you can speak foreign languages starting from English. Her good English pronunciation might be from her hearing her aunt as well as her motivation of being like her. She said she enjoyed working as an intern with **A** on the tech team. In her case, instead of feeling overly nervous in speaking English at other interns' presence, she gained practical strategies in speaking English. In working at emergency, such as when the presenter was desperate in being unable to use their prepared slides, she learned she does not have to construct the grammatically precise English. She confessed that using some words without contracting a proper sentence

worked well enough to help people in need all through the conference sessions and she felt happy and was able to feel confident.

C is from a special high school with a mission of encouraging English Education, named 'Super English High School'. He said that he felt inferiority complex when he was the first year student at that high school as majority of his classmates were good speakers of English. He was better in other subjects such as mathematics and chemistry and his self-esteem was kept by his strength in these subjects instead of English. Through the education gained from native English speaking teachers and influence from returnee students who experienced overseas, he became interested in learning and speaking English. In fact, he tried to find some opportunities of using his English when calling for the conference student interns was announced. In spite of his eagerness of speaking English, he confessed that he was overly conscious and unable to speak it sufficiently when he was seated between two good speakers of English at the information counter where he was assigned. He said he was surprised to find himself nervous in speaking English there, and tried to conquer this anxiety. He felt more nervous in speaking English when other Japanese interns heard his speaking. Noticing that he was overly afraid of making small errors, he tried to relax himself in speaking it. Surprisingly, he found himself able to speak it when the other interns were not there. Once he felt comfortable in using English, he started to feel more relaxed and felt confident as well. He realized that he does not have to worry about being perfect in communication, and also he does not have to compare with other interns. He concluded that he could do just what he could do without worrying about what he thought other persons expected him to do.

D is from a local high school located in Tohoku area. He is from one of the top high schools and seems to feel proud of it. He is a close friend of **C** who is highly motivated in learning English, and decided to work as an intern. As he was not confident in speaking English, he tried to work with **C** who is a good speaker. However, because of the job assignment at the conference site, he was obliged to work alone at the publisher's corner. He said he was happy as there were not many visitors at his assigned corner but he was bored. In the process of being there he started to feel he wanted to speak English more. He said he felt great when his simple English made himself understood. He confessed he felt thankful when the English-speaking conference attendees were patient in trying to understand his English. He added that he was reluctant in being an intern first but he really enjoyed working there and would like to

be assigned at the place where more chances of speaking are available.

E helped as an intern in the previous year and worked as a helper for conference committee members. Indeed, some committee members wanted her to be an intern again as she was helpful. She does not command a high level of English proficiency but she seemed to know some strategies already at the time of conference in 2008. **E** said that she has a strong desire of working overseas as a midwife as her future plan, and she was aware of importance of communicating in English. She said in the meeting that we do not have to be perfect in speaking and emphasized using her own repertoire in communication. She said that she usually does not worry about what other people may think of her, adding that the important thing is to believe in herself and to try her best whenever possible.

Although **F** is a better scorer in English proficiency test than **E**, it seems that she became more nervous in speaking it. She has been a good student and she said that she tried her best not to make any errors. At the meeting, **F** talked about the good experience of having dinner with some conference committee members who are native speaking professors. According to **F**, she met them while working as a guide with **G**, and they were invited to have dinner together. There, **F** said, they could speak English and enjoyed the company a lot. She seems to be a very careful person and she said that she had been afraid of making any errors, but that she felt more relaxed in speaking English through this experience. She helped as an intern in the previous year, but she said that she enjoyed being an intern this time better because of this dinner and also the nature of her assigned work.

G is quite proficient in using English and seems less nervous than other participants. She said she has a pen pal who she met on the plane back from India. In emailing exchanges with this pen pal, she uses English. **G** seemed to have enjoyed doing so. At the conference, she helped as a guide with **F**, and she also mentioned about the dinner with some committee members, adding that this experience was the best during being an intern at the conference. She also said that helping the attendees using her English succeeded in making herself confident and was able to assure that her English was functional.

H has no experiences of living or visiting foreign countries; however, he is motivated in learning English and his English pronunciation is native-like. In a similar case to **B**, he

also has a family member who is good at English. In fact, his father quit working as an English teacher at a public school and he has worked as a taxi driver as a bread earner. He said that his father preferred to work independently and in his spare time he teaches children in his neighborhood, adding that he was proud of his father. **H** helped the conference in the previous year when he worked mainly in the backstage as he is good at computer related stuff. This year he worked as a guide who helped the conference attendees who were lost. He said that he enjoyed more than the previous year because he was able to use his English. He confessed that it was a great experience to find his English good enough to function in the communication with English-speaking people.

I is outgoing and sociable, and seems good at being a leader as well. Different from other participants, he has not shown a strong eagerness of speaking English, but he worked as an intern with **H** for two years. Together with **H**, he helped as a backstage stuff in the previous year and worked as a guide this time. The author thought **I** felt comfortable in working at the backstage but his impression was almost the same as **H**'s. He said that he had a better time being an intern than the previous year as he enjoyed communication with English speaking attendees. He confessed that he felt confident when he managed to make himself understood in English. Through the experience as an intern he said his willingness to communicate was obviously raised. He said that he started to feel like learning English harder.

Analysis

The following five concepts were elicited from the codes provided by the data of lived experiences of nine participants.

Competitiveness

Some codes leading to the concept of 'competitiveness' were elicited from the conversation with good speakers of English, as Bailey (1983) reports from the diary data. The code [to be afraid of being evaluated as a poor speaker of English], was elicited from reflections of **A** and **C**. Because these participants have been serious students and hard workers, they are more conscious of the other person's evaluation. It is also possible that they have been serious students and hard workers because they are more conscious of the other person's evaluation.

As shown in the previous section, interestingly, **A**, who is a returnee student, confessed that she was overly conscious of her English when she was with another intern who is great in speaking English. She emphasized that her communication apprehension

became higher when talking in front of this student. Knowing that she is a returnee and sounds like an almost native-like speaker, the author was surprised to hear what she said and kept on asking why she thinks she was nervous. She said she was more conscious of Japanese speakers of English, adding that she did not feel uncomfortable in speaking English with native speakers. She clarified that she felt competitive against the other intern who is good at speaking it.

The similar reflection was made by **C** from Super English Language High School said that he was overly conscious of speaking English when sitting between two interns who were seemingly professional interpreters (Japanese) at the information desk where he was assigned to help the conference participants. **C** said that hearing good English spoken by two ladies sitting in his both sides made him nervous in speaking English and more conscious in doing so. Both said that it took some time to get over this anxiety but once they learned strategies in controlling their mindsets they felt more comfortable and confident in speaking English. From these two participants, the code of [to be overly conscious of other Japanese speakers of English] was elicited. This code can be subsumed into the notion of ‘competitiveness’.

Perfectionism

Another code [to try to complete English sentences] is from **B** who also helped in the equipment section. She said that at first she tried to give a complete English sentence in clarifying the presenter’s needs but the interaction did not work well against her expectation. So she started to focus on content words and the communication went smoothly. The same code is also found from **D** who said he has been always trying to make complete English sentences and failed to express himself in English in time. He said that he has an inferiority complex in speaking English, and his efforts in completing English sentences seem not to have worked. This feature can be subsumed into ‘perfectionism’, and also indicated the relationship of learners and learning contexts as Norton (2000) points out. **B** said that the situation of requiring her quick response did not allow her to take time in completing the grammatically correct sentence, and she learned how to negotiate her language resources. **E** on the other hand, with some overseas experiences said that she was already aware that trying to make complete sentences in speaking is not useful in communication, as discussed in other studies (e.g., Gregersen & Horowitz, 2002).

Other-directedness

These concepts are accordingly categorized into a viable factor of ‘other-directedness’

that are projected as competitiveness and perfectionism, as indicated in prior studies (e.g., Matsuoka, 2006, 2009). The notion of ‘other-directedness’ was based on two sources; one is Kuwayama (1994) who argues that Japanese sense of self is embedded in the reference other orientation because it is relational, interactional, interdependent, situational, contextual, relative, collective, group-oriented, and socio-centered, and the other is Lebra (2004) who postulates that Japanese people sense their self as ‘subject I’ – the unique individual self – and as ‘object me’ – the social self, which is affected by others. Lebra (2004) quoted Athen’s ‘soliloquy’ as the self, from George Mead who asserts that self emerges only through the internalization of others’ perspectives and expectations by linking two sides of self, self as subject I and self as object me. As George Mead did not limit this nature to the Japanese sense of self, all humans should have this sense of self. However, the Japanese society is featured as ‘SEKEN’, the society or world embedded by people outside, theorized as a particular feature describing the Japanese society (Abe, 2001). The notion of SEKEN has been built up in the Japanese social and cultural context and is thought to be deeply embedded in the Japanese society. This feature can function in a positive manner, as the case of A’s lived experiences. Based on what we perceive other people expect us to be, we may feel like making efforts in order to meet the expectations. Therefore, ‘other-directedness’ can function both in negative and positive ways.

Self-efficacy

Several meaningful codes elicited from the data seem to work on reducing the communication apprehension levels. They may lead to the concept of ‘self-efficacy’ (Bandura, 1997). The frequent codes from the participants were [to gain many more opportunities to use English than in their usual lives], [to understand the importance of communication even when the communication skills are not good enough], [to gain confidence of speaking English after making themselves understand themselves], and [to feel confident and happy in speaking English]. These codes are in contrast with ‘competitiveness’, ‘perfectionism’ ‘other-directedness’ i.e., the Japanese being overly conscious toward outside world, or other people (Kuwayama, 1992; Lebra, 2004), these elicited codes may build up their ‘self-efficacy’, reducing their communication apprehension levels.

The code [to gain many more opportunities to use English than in their usual lives] is based on the factual experiences that they had during the conference sessions, and this code was heard many times from all nine participants. **H** and **I**, in particular, expressed their happy feelings when they had many opportunities to use English compared with when they sat behind the backstage working as a tech intern which does not require

communication with native speakers, which may lead to the third code in this category. **H** does not look sociable and outgoing from my observation though he can command good English with good pronunciation. **I** is a sociable and outgoing but he seemed to have avoided the occasion of using English from his lack of confidence in English competence. Therefore, what they said was surprising, and this may function effectively for reducing the level of communication apprehension, which indicates that conference participation affected the participants effectively. Through gaining many opportunities to communicate, people feel more confident and comfortable and less apprehensive in communication, as shown in the program for pharmacy students (Berger & McCroskey, 1982).

The code [to understand the importance of communication even when the communication skills are not good enough] is a cognitive one generated from their own experiences in an effort of overcoming being an unnecessary perfectionist, the nature of which might partly be attributed from other-directedness as mentioned earlier. The Japanese education may have encouraged a negative evaluation for students in such a way that they have been criticized negatively when they make any errors in their school days instead of being admired positively. Consequently, they are afraid of making errors and have tried unnecessarily to make a perfect sentence even in their oral communication. It seems that this attitude may have discouraged Japanese people from expressing themselves in English even when they are able to. The code here indicates the process by which the participants **B**, **C**, **I**, and **F** conquered the impeding attitudes for communication. They confessed that trying to be perfect did not work in case of helping the attendees, and the motivation of helping them facilitated them to communicate with them without hesitation, which may show the nature of language as a local practice (Pennycook, 2010). In the classroom settings as well, provided by Gergersen and Horwitz (2002), perfectionism turned out to be an impeding factor for the learners' oral communication behaviors, though the real language use is outside of the classroom as Norton (2000) points out.

The code [to gain confidence of speaking English after making themselves understand themselves] comes from the participants who experienced the previous code. **F**, in particular, confessed that she felt confident in speaking English and this confidence made her more communicative competent, comparing her experience in the previous year when she volunteered as an intern of just organizing the line of registration which did not require impromptu communication. In the different context, **E** shared their experiences overseas. **E** went to Kenya when she was a 2nd year student, and through

this experience she said she learned how important to try to communicate in English overseas and gained confidence of speaking English after managing to make herself understand herself during the difficult trip to Kenya. As stated earlier, **G** made an English speaking friend on board from India, and she continued the email communication with him. Email text communication is different from oral communication, but prompt email exchanges, similar to oral communication, are vital to keep their friendship going. She felt more confident in each email exchanges. In addition to their positive attitude towards speaking English, their confidence in communication became stronger through this experience at the conference.

The code [to feel confident and happy in speaking English] is closely related to the above code; the participants experienced happy feelings after being confident in speaking English. These experiences have led to reducing their communication apprehension. Once the learners have a chance of feeling positive in speaking English, they are naturally more willing to communicate, based on both observation and their data. During the conference sessions, the participants **F** and **G** were invited by the conference committee members, all of whom are native English speakers, and had the chance of eating dinner together. They said that they had a happy time with them while eating dinner and talking in English and that this experience encouraged them to speak out and to build up their confidence in speaking English.

Strategy

Some gained codes were categorized into a concrete strategy helpful for pedagogy.

The first elicited code is [to compromise oneself in using English instead of trying to reach their idealized expectations. They discussed the differences between English as subject and English as communication, and they argued that they have to compromise themselves in order to make their English resources usable in the real communication settings. What they noticed from their experiences seem to be closely related to the features of languages both Norton (2000) and Pennycook (2010) argue; that is, we should notice the relationship between language learners and social world where that language is in use, and the language is located in the given space in a dynamic way and in the historical time. In other words, language learning occurs in certain context as suggested in Brown et al. (2011) who use an ecological approach.

The second strategic code is [to adjust oneself in the given context]. Communication is the bilateral relations of interlocutors, and in the process of interacting with the other party we need to adjust ourselves in the given context using our possessed resources. **A**

and **C** discussed the interesting features of discourse in our social life, and their points may fit the notion of language as the social instead of the individual in Pennycook (2010). These participants regard language as a local practice.

The third code [to cut and try/ to test and fault] is suggested by the participants **C** and **D**. Even if the trial does not work, we can try it again by modifying it. They said that by doing so they started to feel more confident in speaking English during the conference sessions. Once they tried to do so, they learned how to modify their language and felt less apprehensive in talking.

The fourth one is [to use one's resources in the optimal way]. All the participants said that it was great when some expressions they were not sure about worked well in a real communication site. Then they said that they gained sufficient courage in trying other resources again in the different context. By doing so, they had more opportunities in using English, and each time they felt more confident.

Concluding remarks

The data of lived experiences from nine participants provided five concepts described above; competitiveness, perfectionism, other-directedness, self-efficacy, and strategy. The participants aware of impeding attitudes for communication succeeded in gaining useful strategies through positive experiences enhancing their self-efficacy. Therefore, this study indicates that the participation at the international conference can reduce the levels of communication apprehension and enhance the levels of willingness to communicate, and suggest that the Japanese sense of self manifested as the 'other-directedness' could be positively utilized should the optimal occasions of using English and experiencing the self-efficacy be given. Furthermore, the concrete strategies from the participants in this study who experienced the modification in their innermost of their sense of self provided the valuable implications which will be useful in our pedagogy. The codes derived from their lived experiences seem to be more rigorous as they are from language learners themselves.

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Applying DEA to Assess English Writing Progress of University Students Using “My Access” in Taiwan

Bernard Montoneri*¹, Massoud Moslehpour*², Huey-Nah Cindy Chou*¹

0110

*¹Providence University, *²Asia University

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Abstract:

Being aware of the fact that Taiwanese students' English proficiency was falling behind those of many Asian countries, Taiwan's Ministry of Education unprecedentedly funded its three Regional Teaching/Learning Resource Centers (i.e., Northern, Central, and Southern) in 2011 for planning and launching intensive English programs (IEPs) with goals of enhancing university graduates' academic and career competitiveness by increasing their English proficiency from Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) B1 to B2 as measured by standardized English proficiency tests.

This study aims at assessing English writing progress of university students using an automated writing evaluation system, *My Access*, in Central Taiwan Teaching/Learning Resource Center. The study data comes from the Foreign Language Centers of two universities located in the center of Taiwan. This research will analyze the progress in writing and the motivation of students registered for an intensive English program of one month during the summer vacation in 2011. We will use data envelopment analysis (DEA), a robust and reliable quantitative method, to calculate students' relative learning efficiency in English writing. As far as we know, this is the first time DEA is used to evaluate the learning performance of students using *My Access*.

1. Introduction

Being aware of the fact that Taiwanese students' English proficiency was falling behind those of many Asian countries, Taiwan's Ministry of Education unprecedentedly funded its three Regional Teaching/Learning Resource Centers (i.e., Northern, Central, and Southern) in 2011 for planning and launching intensive English programs (IEPs) with goals of enhancing university graduates' academic and career competitiveness by increasing their English proficiency from CERF B1 to B2 as measured by standardized English proficiency tests. Each regional center could decide, based on its accumulated advantageous instructional resources, the learning orientation toward either an academic or a career goal. The learning goal of the IEP of the Central Taiwan Teaching/Learning Resource Center (CTIEP hereafter), with a career orientation, to help the students reach a CEFR B2 level of workplace English skills as measured by Business English Testing Service of Cambridge ESOL (Bulats hereafter) that would enable them to meet the language requirements of future careers. Fees of tuition, accommodation, and meals were fully funded by the MOE for the one-month program. The classes were from 8 am to 5 pm with a 2-hour lunch break, Monday through Friday for four consecutive weeks, with the total curricular time adding up to be 140 hours. Of the seven class periods, five were aimed to the development of workplace English skills instructed by native-English-speaking instructors, and two hours were designated for Bulats preparation. Writing practices using an automated essay scoring system, *My Access*, was allocated four self-study sessions after supper time with teaching assistants' guidance and consultation.

The purpose of the writing component was twofold. First, the rationale underlying the self-directed writing sessions was based on the notion of *writing as process*, which views writing as "a reproduction of previously learned syntactic or discourse structures" and "a process of developing organization as well as meaning" (Matsuda, 2003, p. 21). In light of the process-based approach, invention strategies, multiple drafts, and formative feedback become important in writing development. Second, the CIEP writing component based its design on multiple-draft approach to writing instruction, which sheds light on the effect of teacher and peer feedback on student writing prior to asking students to revise their work. Researchers have agreed that "teacher feedback is most effective when it is delivered at intermediate stages of the writing process, when students can respond to feedback in subsequent revisions and may thus be more motivated to attend to teacher suggestions" (Ferris, 2003, p. 123). Moreover, previous research has reported that students do attend to and utilize teacher feedback, feedback on grammar problems in particular, in their revisions (Hedgcock & Lefkowitz, 1994).

In the self-study online writing session of the CTIEP, a web-based writing program, *My Access*, was implemented to aid self-directed writing practices assisted by the various editing and writing functions including Graphic Organizer, My Editor, Word Bank, and Thesaurus. In the first week of the program, four pre-selected prompts: (a) Effects of Technology, (b) Job Skills necessary for

Success, (c) Society's Biggest Problem, and (d) Top Vacation Place, were assigned to the students and due by the last day of the program. That is, the students could have numerous opportunities to revise their drafts according to the online feedbacks until they considered their work final for submission. During the evening self-study sessions, the students first undertook on-line writing practice individually and then peer-editing lead by teaching assistants.

This study plans to conduct a study concerning the learning efficiency in English writing of students using *My Access* in Taiwan. A non-parametric assessment approach, data envelopment analysis (DEA), with management concept, will be mainly employed in the project to measure the learning progress in English writing and to identify key indicators contributing to students' learning efficiency. It will explore the static learning efficiency by analyzing test scores and questionnaires concerning students' learning motivation in English writing. The empirical results expect to develop suitable learning and teaching strategies for both students and teachers using *My Access* in English writing, to establish a learning role model for inefficient students and to find out their own core strengths and weaknesses to improve their learning efficiency and to enforce their English writing in the future career market.

2. Literature review

2.1. Literature related to English writing and *My Access*

According to Stern and Solomon (2006), effective writing skill is a foundational goal for most universities, but grading papers can be stressful and time consuming. They conducted an analysis on faculty comments from 598 graded papers written for hundreds of courses from 30 different departments in an American university. They found that most comments were technical corrections (spelling, grammar, word choice, and missing words); comments addressing paper organization and quality of the ideas contained in it (support/evidence for claims, paper structure/organization, voice, and creativity) were absent. Connors and Lunsford (1988) had already found that spelling errors were the most common form of mark on a paper. They also showed that teachers only marked between 30% and 50% of the errors on the papers. However, marking every single error might be counterproductive and discourage students. Teachers should also include compliments and positive comments.

Automated scoring systems can help teachers to correct and to grade essays. *My Access* is relatively popular in Taiwan, even though there is no Chinese version of the program so far. Using *My Access* can increase teachers' motivation to teach writing courses in the sense that this type of course is time-consuming and exhausting. Writing classes are very big and improving students' writing skill involves correcting multiple drafts (Hyland, 2003; Kroll, 2003). Scoring engines can at least correct some of students' mistakes and ease teachers' working load. As a result, instructors will have more time to focus on logic and organizational aspects more than on vocabulary and grammar. Various studies also showed that *My Access* significantly improves

student academic achievement (Yang, 2004; Yeh, 2004; Wang, 2005; Huang, 2006). Elliot and Mikulas (2004) demonstrated that *My Access* helps students to make better revisions. Students' motivation is also influenced by teachers' mastery of the technology. When the instructor appears to be ill at ease with the scoring engine, it affects students' learning (Carroll et al., 2001). The role of the instructor is to guide students and to provide post-grading consultation to students (Cheng, 2006). In fact, Yang (2004) showed that when the instructor was able to provide assistance and guidance to students, their motivation was significantly higher.

2.2. Literature related to efficiency assessment using data envelopment analysis

Efficiency can be assessed by applying various quantitative evaluation methods such as stochastic frontier analysis (SFA), regression, statistics, ordinary least-squares (OLS), structural equation modeling (SEM), data envelopment analysis (DEA), and multi-level modeling (MLM). Which method is more appropriate depends on the research environment (Ferrier and Lovell, 1990). DEA is an attractive tool because it can measure the performance of educational institutions, departments and courses. There is a large body of literature concerning DEA. Among the most influential studies, Førsund and Sarafoglou (2002) cite Farrell's seminal 1957 paper on concepts of efficiency and the study published by Charnes, Cooper, and Rhodes (1978), which was particularly influential in developing and expanding Farrell's work. Their model, called the "Charnes-Cooper-Rhodes (CCR) model" or "CCR model", notably includes the function and concept of benchmarking.

Many studies assess the efficiency of universities (Ng & Li, 2000; Abbot and Doucouliagos, 2003; Johnes, 2006; García-Aracil and Palomares-Montero, 2008; Zhou and Wang, 2009) and university departments (Madden, Savage, & Kemp, 1997; Johnes & Johnes, 1993; Colbert, Levary, & Shaner, 2000; Martin, 2006). There is a growing trend to use DEA to assess the efficiency of courses and students (McGowan & Graham, 2009; Ismail, 2009; Montoneri et al., 2011; Montoneri et al., 2012). For example, Montoneri et al. (2011) used an output oriented model of DEA to assess the performance of English writing courses in a university of Taiwan and selected 4 indicators, such as: preparation of teaching contents, teaching skills, fair grading, and students' learning performance. They showed that some evaluated classes with higher actual values of inputs and outputs have lower efficiency because the relative efficiency of each evaluated class is measured by their distance to the efficiency frontier. According to our knowledge, this is the first time DEA is applied to assess the relative learning efficiency of students using *My Access*.

3. Methodology

3.1. DEA and CCR model

This study plans to apply data envelopment analysis (DEA) to calculate students' relative learning efficiency in English writing. DEA, a non-parametric assessment approach, has been

applied in various fields for performance benchmarking and relative efficiencies measurement among evaluated units, commonly called decision making units (DMUs). This approach can also provide analysis of inputs/outputs' contribution in calculating efficiencies. DEA was initially introduced by Farrell's (1957) and improved after several modifications by Charnes, Cooper, & Rhodes (1978) and Banker, Charnes, and Cooper (1984). Charnes, Cooper, and Rhodes (1978) converted Farrell's efficiency measurement concept of multiple inputs and single output to the multiple inputs and multiple outputs. They assumed that the change in inputs will equally and positively reflect to the change in outputs; this model is called constant returns to scale (CRS). The modified version is now so called "Charnes-Cooper-Rhodes (CCR) model or CCR model". Linear programming approach is used to find out the frontier curves of a group of evaluated units. DMUs inside the frontier curves are inefficient; their relative efficiency value is calculated by the ratio of the DMUs' distance to that of frontier curves. Consequently, DMUs located on frontier curves are considered as efficient and become role models for the inefficient ones.

3.2. Data source

The study data comes from the Foreign Language Centers of two universities located in the center of Taiwan. The Foreign Language Centers are in charge of planning and offering university-level foreign courses for university students in the center of Taiwan. Their main mission is to enhance students' foreign language skills in order to prepare for their academic and career goals. In this paper, we study the learning efficiency of 54 students coming from different departments of 15 universities; 28 followed the training offered by University A and 26 by University B. They were qualified for enrolling in the intensive English program and will be considered as evaluated units, called decision-making units (DMUs).

3.3. Characteristics of the research object and of the data source

Subjects of this study were students enrolled in a one-month intensive English program in the summer of 2011 with a primary goal for development of workplace English skills and a secondary goal for improving English writing skills. To be eligible for applying for this intensive English program, university students nationwide must meet requirements of: (a) sophomore or above, (b) non-English major, and (c) English proficiency level of CEFR B1 or above. Here are the characteristics of the data source:

1. Part of the data is based on questionnaires filled out by the students before and at the end of English intensive course.
2. Another part of the data is based on students' grades, the number of drafts they wrote during the training and their English proficiency level before and after the training.
3. 4 indicators are selected, 2 inputs and 2 outputs. The data concerning the selected indicators is

fed in the software Frontier Analyst to calculate the efficiency values of each evaluated student.

3.4. Selection of input and output indicators

Input indicators:

11. The rank of student's average total final score in his/her class in academic year 2010: 1. within the top five, 2. front level, 3. before and near middle level, 4. middle level, 5. after and near middle level, 6. low level.
12. The level of confidence to upgrade students' English proficiency one level within a month: 1. extremely low, 2. low, 3. high, 4. extremely high.

Output indicators:

- O1. Satisfaction of course content (such as: course themes, content, materials, etc.): 1. extremely high, 2. high, 3. no opinion, 4. low, 5. extremely low.
- O2. Satisfaction of student's self-evaluation of the target achievement in improving his/her English proficiency within a month: 1. extremely low, 2. low, 3. high, 4. extremely high.

4. Empirical study

This paper uses Frontier Analyst to calculate the efficiency values of each evaluated student. The data concerning the 2 inputs and 2 outputs is fed in the software.

4.1 Overall relative learning efficiency analysis

Table 1 is listing the learning efficiency of 54 evaluated students (called DMUs), named from D1 to D54. The DMUs are ranked according to their efficiency, from the highest to the lowest. The average efficiency of 54 DMUs is 0.740. The efficiency of the DMUs D2, D5, D67, D9, D12, D14, D22, D23, D32, D40, and D49, which represent 20.37 % of the evaluated units, have the best performance with a value of 1. Their scores are all on the Frontier curve. It means that these 11 DMUs do not need any improvement in the input items or in the output items because they have reached the optimal state. The other DMUs with efficiency inferior to 1 need further improvement or adjustment in the input or output items. The average efficiency of the inefficient DMUs is 0.673.

Table 1. Learning efficiency and rank of evaluated students

DMUs	Efficiency	Rank	DMUs	Efficiency	Rank	DMUs	Efficiency	Rank	DMUs	Efficiency	Rank
D2	1.000	1	D10	0.900	12	D13	0.667	23	D8	0.640	42
D5	1.000	1	D27	0.900	12	D16	0.667	23	D41	0.640	42
D6	1.000	1	D11	0.889	14	D17	0.667	23	D42	0.640	42
D9	1.000	1	D34	0.889	14	D18	0.667	23	D45	0.640	42
D12	1.000	1	D15	0.800	16	D19	0.667	23	D35	0.583	46
D14	1.000	1	D29	0.800	16	D21	0.667	23	D37	0.583	46
D22	1.000	1	D44	0.800	16	D24	0.667	23	D33	0.533	48
D23	1.000	1	D51	0.800	16	D25	0.667	23	D38	0.533	48
D32	1.000	1	D20	0.700	20	D28	0.667	23	D39	0.533	48
D40	1.000	1	D43	0.700	20	D30	0.667	23	D50	0.533	48
D49	1.000	1	D52	0.700	20	D31	0.667	23	D53	0.533	48
			D1	0.667	23	D36	0.667	23	D26	0.500	53
			D3	0.667	23	D47	0.667	23	D46	0.500	53
			D4	0.667	23	D48	0.667	23			
			D7	0.667	23	D54	0.667	23			
CCR score average (all DMUs): 0.740											
CCR score average (inefficient DMUs):0.673											

4.2. Study cases

Study case 1

D26 has the penultimate lowest efficiency, 0.500. It means that this student has a relatively low satisfaction of course content and is disappointed by his/her improvement at the end of the training. To obtain a higher efficiency, this DMU needs to make much more effort in order to become efficient. The actual value of D26 concerning 01 (Satisfaction of course content) is 5.00. The target value is 10.00. This DMU needs a 100 % improvement. The actual value of D26 concerning 02 (Satisfaction of having improved at the end of the training) is 2.00. The target value is 6.00. This DMU needs a 200 % improvement.

Concerning the four pre-selected prompts, D26 wrote a total of 10 drafts: 3 on Effects of Technology, 2 on Job Skills necessary for Success, 3 on Society's Biggest Problem, and 2 on Top Vacation Place. The average of drafts per student for the 54 DMUs is 9.6; the maximum number of drafts is 32. It means that D26 is not inefficient because of a low number of drafts.

The level of D26 was B1 before the training and still B1 at the end of the training. Therefore, D26 does not feel satisfied of the training and believes he/she has progressed little (O2 score is 2: low satisfaction).

Study case 2

D35 has a relatively low efficiency, 0.583. To obtain a higher efficiency, this DMU needs to make much more effort in order to obtain double result from 0.500 to 1 in O1 (Satisfaction of course content) and O2 (Satisfaction of having improved at the end of the training).

Concerning the four pre-selected prompts, D35 wrote a total of 32 drafts: 9 on Effects of Technology, 6 on Job Skills necessary for Success, 4 on Society's Biggest Problem, and 13 on Top Vacation Place. It is certainly disappointing for this D35 to write 32 drafts and to obtain one of the lowest efficiencies (D35 is ranked 46 out of 54). However, the level of D35 was B1 before the training and B2 at the end of the training (but the test score was 61 at the beginning and 60 at the end). Therefore, D35 feels satisfied of the training and believes he/she has progressed a lot (O2 score is 4: high satisfaction). It could be interesting to determine in a further study what the optimal number of drafts is in order to obtain a learning efficiency of 1. Surely, in the case of D35, writing the biggest number of drafts is not resulting in a high learning efficiency.

5. Conclusion

The paper applies DEA to explore the relative learning efficiency in English writing of students using *My Access* in universities in the central region of Taiwan. The average efficiency of all the 54 DMUs is 0.740. 11 DMUs do not need any improvement in the input items or in the output items because they have reached a state of relative efficiency. 43 DMUs with efficiency inferior to 1 need further improvement or adjustment in the input or output items. Users' satisfaction is the key factor to determine whether incorporating *My Access* into writing instruction is successful. The example of D35 shows that if a student writes a comparatively high number of drafts, it does not necessarily result in a better learning efficiency. It would be interesting to know the average number of drafts which would improve the most students' motivation and progress in writing. For example, after writing 3 drafts on one topic, do students show a clear increase in their motivation and measurable improvement in their writing? Is their third draft much better than the two previous ones? If students write a fourth draft, is there any significant improvement? Further studies could help answer these questions.

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The logo for the International Association for Foreign Language Research (iafor) is centered on the page. It consists of the lowercase letters "iafor" in a light blue, sans-serif font. The text is enclosed within a large, stylized circular graphic composed of two overlapping, thick, brush-stroke-like arcs. The upper arc is light blue and the lower arc is light red, creating a circular frame around the text.

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Redefining English Language: The Existing Reality

Mukesh Yadav

0117

Al-Jouf University, Saudi Arabia

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Abstract:

Redefining English Language: The Existing Reality

The extensive spread of the English language has been ascribed to processes of globalisation which developed after World War II and to the (re-)distribution of the language in the post-colonial context. This paper attempts to redefine and understand the shift in the conception of the language in academic disciplines, particularly in the field of applied linguistics. The ongoing debates about the problem of hegemony of English, namely neocolonialism and globalism and a counter strategy for addressing linguist pluralism have still not been completely resolved. Moreover, the field of English language teaching has been greatly changed by increasing academic recognition of postcolonial varieties of English and emphasis on the importance of English as a tool of resistance. As a result, problems have arisen how to best describe the current state of English language and educators have become increasingly concerned about which english should be taught? This paper will redefine the shifting perception of the English language and will get tuned towards establishing consensus about what is meant by the word 'English' in the age of globalisation and highlighting the existing reality.

Key Words: Globalisation; Postcolonial; Applied linguistics; English language teaching

Introduction

“English is probably changing faster than any other language,” says Alan Firth, a linguist at the University of Aalborg in Denmark, “because so many people are using it.” If you ask someone “Why are you studying English?” They mention that the world is getting smaller because of communication technology and they need to remain abreast to the latest developments. These developments require proficiency in English for getting a good job, study at university, traveling around the world and stay tuned to news, literature, music and other cultural trends. More than 1 billion people are believed to speak some form of English. Three quarters of the world’s mail is in English and four-fifths of electronic information is stored in English. No one can deny the dominant role of English in the world today, characterized by the phenomenon called globalization.

Part I: Taming Globalization and The Role of English

Globalization is a word that is commonly heard in academic circles. In both social science and humanities, the event has been the subject of much contemporary investigation. The fields of Applied linguistics and English language teaching (ELT) is no exception to it. In addition, the term 'global English' came into being as a result of the current state of the English language developments. This term means that English is not the language of a particular country or people, but a code that links people from all over the world. And the most worrying question is “Is the world taking English by storm or is English taking the world by storm?”

Several recent academic works which explore globalization makes it clear that this is a result of vast spread of English. The reasons can be many like the increase in mobility among people; rise of transnational organisations; emergence of communication technology that allows seamless communication; and reducing importance of countries and territories. Moreover, media and cultural industries have overpowered the consumer market and played an important role in the spread of English. To understand the spread of English as globalized affair we need to examine the aspects of global trends. However, who works in the process of globalization theories gives the impression that there is no adequate description of all its implications. To meet the local and global discourses and practices and harmonization, it is important to consider each place to their specific, historical, cultural, political and linguistic situation to evaluate different results. Research is needed which "geopoliticiz [es] national and locat [es] it in large and diverse history and geographies of global power and structure (Shome and Hegde, 2002:253). As Fishman (2002) suggests English is now used in so many domains by varied users that it is difficult to provide a definition of the language that can account for all of its global aspects. Tom McArthur, editor of Oxford Companion to the English Language says the spread of English can't be halted. The globalization of the world, mostly driven by economics, is inevitable. “It's the [world's] need for a unified language of trade, politics, and culture. We're going to lose a lot of languages around the world, but if it's not English, it would be something else.”

English is a widely pluralistic language with as many owners as speakers so the whole concept of the English language is in question. Some ambiguities have arisen, for example, about the English standards and criteria of different contexts, where language is taught. Because of the ambiguity surrounding the discourse of English, contemporary perceptions of the English language search is dedicated to the establishment of consensus within the discipline. At the first level, the paper attempts to capture the global use of

English and use of English as lingua franca to use it as guideline for inspection of various proposals. Many scholars suggest that the changing perception of the English language must comply with the new academic standards. The ideology of scholars like Jennifer Jenkins and Barbara Seidlhofer, Marco Modiano entails that L2 speech community should no longer be 'norm-dependent' but 'norm-developing' and perhaps someday 'norm providing'.

In an attempt to find the broad definition of English in times of globalization, it seems there is a lack of consensus in all of the following: a suitable name for the English language as it is used all over the world, the language describing a proper theory of how it should be taught. Here are some definitions to build a consensus:

1. There is no 'native -speaker custodian' for English (Widdowson 1994) and the language is owned by the different communities who use it. Therefore, norms of use should be loosened or expanded to include L2 uses;
2. English is not a 'neutral' language, as some have claimed, but it is also not a language that is irrevocably linked to any particular world view. Therefore language educators should encourage learners to appropriate the language and use it as a channel of resistance (Canagarajah 1999).

However, once it is established, there is still ambiguity about the way the English should be taught in the world. More importantly, it is not clear whether the theoretical description of English match the actual uses of English as a global language and the motivations and attitudes held by those who are using it as a lingua franca.

In a highly technologized global world, with information collectively owned and managed among their users, there is a need to understand the strengths and limitations of the newer technologies for meaning making and information exchange. As Farrell (2003) argues, the differences in the users' relationship to these new technologies (e.g., technology savvyness, education, gender, religion, ideology, culture, or identity) and in their ways of appropriating such tools for communicative purposes will both enrich and challenge communication and information exchange within and across communities of practice. In other words, the ways of appropriating and communicating with new technology tools in one culture, one context, one language, or one medium are not going to be necessarily the same in another culture, context, language, or medium. This is because technology users from different cultural, ethnic, economic, ideological, and social backgrounds are likely to differ substantially in both their understanding and use of these tools for communication and information exchange. Such differences are often reflective of the sociocultural and technological milieus where their members get socialized into the ways of thinking and being around technology that are characteristic of their own culture, ideology, resources base, and other idiosyncrasies shaping their unique digital societies.

Uncovering such differences among the members of a global community, learning to collaborate and co-develop collective knowledge, understandings, and experiences, as well as respecting and celebrating their diverse contributors' ideas and perspectives will need to become the core principles of online and offline global communication, information literacy, and digital world citizenship within the English classroom and beyond. Fostering such principles in innovative English teaching and in our increasingly

global virtual environments will help our students be accountable to the global community through a commitment to high quality communication and lifelong learning.

Following from this discussion, we can say Globalization is a multi-dimensional, highly complex process with contradictory forms and a complex mix of effects, everywhere it has influence. Robbie Robertson (2003:229) states that “globalization is a dynamic component of human experience” and that “it is not and has never been a single event, let alone a single process of change.” Globalization involves economics, politics, technology, communication and culture. It is also a word used to describe the world economic market and transnational movements of capital, people, ideas, beliefs, knowledge and news. Rita Raley (1998) recognizes that globalization is not only a social, political, economic and cultural phenomenon, but now also an academic one. The globalization of academia can be seen in the intensified interaction between scholars, universities and disciplines.

Part II: Global Responses

The names Crystal and McArthur have been widely associated with the study on the global uses of English. Crystal’s book *The English Language* (1988) looks at the population of global English speakers and gives now oft-cited estimates of how many millions speak the language: over 300 million as a mother tongue and anywhere from 400 million to a billion as a foreign language. With these figures he emphasizes that “it is not the number of mother-tongue speakers which makes a language important in the eyes of the world..., but the extent to which a language is found useful outside its original setting” (Crystal 1988:7). Seven years later, Crystal published *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language* (1995), a thorough account of English, including the history of its spread and the resulting plethora of global uses and users. This work is celebrated on the book’s cover as being “the most comprehensive general reference book on the history, structure and worldwide use of English ever written.” Indeed Crystal extensively covers regional variation in both L1 and L2 English-using contexts and establishes that English has become an important language for international business communication, diplomacy, tourism, science and technology.

Graddol’s book *The Future of English?* was sponsored by the British Council in order to inform policy concerned with the promotion of English language teaching and to speculate about the future of English in the 21st century. Although he does not commit to any estimates—as the future of English is complex and unpredictable—Graddol (1997:10-11) suggests that nonnative speakers of English will play an important role in the language’s future, since the number of people who speak English as a second or foreign language outnumber native speakers three to one. Graddol then questions whether this important role of English is creating reduced linguistic diversity. Finally, he considers global inequalities and how proficiency in English is used as a gatekeeping mechanism to professional and financial success: for example, he reports that a growing number of courses in universities are being taught through English and that up-to-date text books and research articles are often only available in that language, a phenomenon that is particularly relevant to the context of this study.

Like Graddol, McArthur has played a vital role in documenting the spread of English as a consequence of globalization. In 1992, he first published *The Oxford Companion to the English Language*, “an A to Z survey of the language over all its centuries, as used by all manner of folk, in all kinds of places, for all sorts of purposes” (McArthur 1992:vii). This reference work, which includes contributions from the most prominent scholars in

English language studies, takes into account the uses of English throughout the world with all of its variation as well as pedagogical concerns involved in teaching English as an international language. In a later work, *The English Languages*, McArthur (1998) provides an overview of academic discussions about English which have taken place since the 1980s. In view of the several models of the language that have been proposed, he considers whether English is a language or a family of languages. He then concludes that the traditional view of English is too restricted: “The subject is in reality too large to fit one model—any model, revered or radical, singular or plural—and benefits from our having a wide and flexible range of descriptions available to us” (McArthur 1998:xv). Considering the global uses of English, McArthur (1998:46) also analyses how people come to terms with the increasing mobility of all English speakers and the fact that no matter where they are, “they cannot predict the accent, grammar, vocabulary, rhythm, idioms, or level of internationally manageable fluency of the next English-speaking stranger they encounter—face to face or on radio, television, or the telephone.” He then notes how this diversity within English presents problems for the language-teaching classroom. In the end, McArthur (1998:213) resolves that “there is one English, used by untold millions, a vast mass lit with flashes of standardness that blends at many points with other languages, some also world languages, some of more modest range, and some barely clinging to life. And there are so many Englishes...” Herewith McArthur promotes a plurality in the language which has henceforth been embraced by most contemporary linguists. In his most recent endeavour, McArthur’s *Oxford Guide to World English* (2002) inspects—amongst other things—the use of English as a global lingua franca, the growing use and accommodation of English in Europe, the global English language

In response to the call for research which examines English use in various international contexts, three academic journals evolved in the early 1980s: *World Language English*, which then became *World Englishes: The Journal of English as an International and Intranational Language* (edited by Kachru and Smith), *English Today: The International Review of the English Language* (edited by McArthur) and *English World -Wide* (formerly edited by Manfred G rlach and currently by Edgar Schneider). Additionally, several books set out to document other varieties of English, such as J.B. Pride’s (1982) *New Englishes* and John Platt, Heidi Weber and M.L. Ho’s (1984) *The New Englishes*. Works such as these attempts to document English as it is used as a second and foreign language around the world.

With the emergence of postcolonial Englishes, mainstream studies about the English language soon had to acknowledge the existence of models or norms of English that were offered from places outside the ‘traditional’ sources of the languages—the UK and the US. For example, the volume *The English Language Today* (edited by Sidney Greenbaum 1985) takes into account the diverse uses of English in various social contexts and deals with language attitudes, evaluations and beliefs about the language. Although the volume mainly deals with native varieties of English, Greenbaum (1985:3) recognizes that “Indian English and Nigerian English are beginning to gain recognition as independent national varieties, rather than as deviant versions of British English, because of the changing attitudes of their speakers to their own varieties.” He then questions whether it makes sense any more to talk about the English language. Likewise, the collection *English as a World Language* (edited by Bailey and G rlach 1982) contains papers which describe various forms of English that have developed outside of Britain and North America and reflect on the diverse circumstances in which English is used. G rlach

(1991; 1995; 1998; 2002a) has continued to play an important role in recording the various uses of English around the world. In works such as Greenbaum's and Bailey and Grlach's, an increasing recognition of the cultural and symbolic capital of postcolonial varieties of English can be detected.

As the plurality of English was increasingly recognized throughout the 1980s and into the 1990s, questions were raised about codification, standardization, the concept of 'deviation' or 'error', the validity of the native speaker and problems in the choice of a teaching model—issues which have still not been completely reconciled. Such discussions first appeared in volumes like Peter Strevens's (1980) book *Teaching English as an International Language: From Practice to Principle*, which considers the expansion of English, the emergence of localized forms, international and intranational forms of English and teaching local forms. Similarly, Randolph Quirk and Henry Widdowson's (1985) volume, *English in the World: Teaching and Learning the Language and Literatures*, is a collection of the proceedings from a conference about how English should best be taught and learned worldwide; this collection launches a debate about the maintaining of standards versus the plurality of Englishes.

Part III Different English(es)

Englishes/New Englishes/World Englishes

The term Englishes was first used extensively in the 1980s with the emergence of Kachru's pluralistic conception of English. This term refers to all varieties of English collectively. Kachru (1997a:212) argues that "the term symbolizes the functional and formal variations, divergent sociolinguistics contexts, ranges and varieties of English in creativity, and various types of acculturation in parts of the Western and non-Western world." He also insists that this term most succinctly and accurately characterizes the many global functions of English.

The label New Englishes generally refers to emerging and increasingly autonomous varieties of English, especially in non-Western, former colonial settings such as India, Nigeria or Singapore (McArthur 1992:688). According to Platt, Weber and Ho (1984:2-3), a New English is a variety developed through an education system where English is a medium of instruction but it is not the main language spoken by most of the population. Additionally, a New English is used for a broad range of varied functions (in literature, government, the media, or as a lingua franca among those speaking different languages). Moreover, it has become 'nativized' by its users who have adopted some linguistic features which vary from British or American norms, such as varying pronunciation and intonation patterns; a slight difference in grammar and sentence structure; and, most noticeably, different words and expressions, which include borrowings from contact languages. Some of the first linguists to record New Englishes were Akere (1982), Bamgbose (1982) and Jibril (1982) in Nigeria; Kachru (1966; 1976), Das (1982) and Mehrotra (1982) in India; Crewe (1977) Platt (1975) and Richards (1982) in Singapore; and Craig (1982) and Haynes (1982) in the Caribbean.

The term World Englishes has been in use since the early 1980s in direct relation to the journal *World Englishes: The Journal of English as an International and Intranational Language (WE)*, edited by Kachru and Smith. The label world Englishes entails a wide conception of English and includes places outside postcolonial regions. The use of the term world Englishes implies not only awareness of the multiple varieties of English in

the world, but also of the fact that all varieties of English, native and nonnative, “belong equally to all who use them and merit serious and consistent study both individually and collectively” (McArthur 1998:61). This label has gained popularity as the journal *WE* continues to thrive and as Kachru’s conception of world Englishes is increasingly recognized.

Nuclear English

The growing recognition of global varieties of English caused problems in the realm of ELT. For example, Quirk became concerned about the diversification of varieties of English and loss of intercomprehensibility in the face of the use of English internationally. He feared that English would face the same fate as Latin:

The fate of Latin after the fall of the Roman Empire presents us with such distinct languages today as French, Spanish, Romanian, and Italian. With the growth of national separatism in the English-speaking countries, linguistically endorsed not least by the active encouragement of the anti-standard ethos..., many foresee a similar fissiparous future for English (Quirk 1985:3).

As a reaction to the international variability within English, Quirk proposed a simplified variety called ‘Nuclear English,’ a core form of English structure and vocabulary, not dissimilar to Ogden and Richard’s plan for Basic English. This form of English eliminates features that he considers ‘dispensable’ in the sense that the language has alternative means to express them. Quirk argues that when all such options are removed, in both grammar and vocabulary, only the obligatory minimum of the language —its communicative ‘nucleus’—remains.

International English

One term that has dominated much of the literature about the global spread of English is international English (IE), which, McArthur (2001:6) notes, dates in print from around 1980. This label has been used in several different, even contradictory, ways. Robert Johnson (1990), argues that IE is not defined by a geographical space or a territorial border. It is a variety whose users are not bound by political or cultural ties but by the domain of a certain occupation or functional application (Johnson 1990:304).

World Standard (Spoken) English

In his model of English as a medium of both individual and international communication, McArthur (1987) conceives of English as a wheel with a hub, spokes and rim; he calls the hub ‘World Standard English’ (WSE). This central core consists of an internationally comprehensible variety, those features of the language that are common to all varieties of English. As one moves away from the centre, the varieties become more localized, moving from national to regional varieties of English.

McArthur (1998:95, *his italics*) explains that this hub is surrounded by an encircling band of regional varieties, such as the standard and other forms of African English, American English, Canadian English and Irish English. Beyond these, but linked to them by spokes marking off eight regions of the world, is a crowded (even riotous) fringe of subvarieties such as Aboriginal English, Black English Vernacular, Gullah, Jamaican National Language, Krio, Singapore English, and Ulster Scots.

General English

Samuel Ahulu (1997:17) argues that the word English is “too restrictive a way of referring to the language.” He is dissatisfied with the label standard English, as it is neither sensitive nor precise enough to encapsulate “the educational and social reality of English as an international language” (Ahulu 1997:18). This dissatisfaction stems from the fact that Standard English is associated only with British and American standards and the international use of English has resulted in forms that diverge from these norms. Therefore, Ahulu proposes General English as an alternative name for a broader sense of the language. In changing the name of English, Ahulu also conceives of an accompanying shift in the linguistic reality of English. He criticizes the fact that features which have been codified in New Englishes have not been incorporated into standard English; thus, English has become an international language, but it lacks any codification or description that adequately reflects its international character. Ahulu (1997:18) therefore claims that barring these features from the centre is tantamount to ethnocentrism and imperialism. He then suggests that variations in English as it is used internationally should be subsumed within the concept of standard English. In his opinion, this would produce a standard that is common to both L1 and L2 speakers of English.

Literate English

Catharine Wallace’s (2002:105) means of ‘de-hegemonizing’ English is to propose what she calls ‘literate English’—English which is elegant and eloquent, but not necessarily produced by a native speaker and “does not necessarily emanate in any direct way from the centre.” She argues that in a world where the majority of users are L2 English speakers, English language teaching should be less preoccupied with learners’ abilities to engage in informal spoken interaction and more interested in developing ‘literate English,’ a primarily written variety which can also be used in spoken communication. Wallace (2002:107-108) explains that this type of ‘transnational English’ should not be a reduced or simplified lingua franca model of English which restricts communication to immediate utilitarian contexts; on the contrary, it should be elaborated to serve global needs, the most crucial one being “a tool for resistance.” She argues that “global literate English needs to embrace a range of settings and bind diverse periphery and centre communities together” and once this is established, “it can be put to critical and creative use, challenging and dismantling the hegemony of English in its conventional forms and uses” (Wallace 2002:112).

English as a Lingua Franca (ELF)

Since Smith’s proposal for EIAL, English has come to be commonly known as the global lingua franca. The language is noted for its international use and for the fact that nonnative speakers of English outnumber native speakers three to one (Graddol 1997). Moreover, Walker (2001) estimates that there are now more linguistic exchanges between nonnative speakers of English than between nonnative speakers and native speakers. Because of the wealth of L2 English interactions, research in English as a lingua franca has blossomed in the new century. Likewise, English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) is often the terminology preferred by contemporary scholars (e.g. House 1999; Jenkins 2000; Modiano 2001a; Seidlhofer 2001a), as it seems to aptly describe the use of English during globalization.

A lingua franca is concisely defined in the Microsoft Encarta World English Dictionary (2000) as “a language used for convenience” and by Crystal (1995:454) as “a medium of communication for people who speak different first languages.” But McArthur (2002b) notes that the sense of the phrase has been extended to include “a language common to, or shared by, many cultures and communities at any or all social and educational levels, and used as an international tool.” Modiano (2001a:170) adds that a lingua franca is “a mode of communication which allows people to interact with others without aligning themselves to ideological positioning indicative of specific mother-tongue speech community.”

Because lingua franca communication often does not involve L1 speakers of the language at hand, communication norms may be different. In fact, studies by House (1999), Jenkins (2000) and Seidlhofer (2001a) have found that in the world of global communication, relying on native speaker norms (or near-native norms) cannot guarantee that communication will be successful. Therefore, these scholars promote the use of a type of English that is not based on any particular national linguistic standard, i.e. the teaching of ELF instead of English as a native language (ENL). Moreover, scholars such as these argue that this form of English will better prepare learners to communicate with L2 English speakers from all over the world, will be more “neutral with regard to the different cultural backgrounds of the interlocutors” and will therefore take place on “some kind of common intercultural basis” (Gnutzmann 1999a:163).

Conclusion

We conclude saying that there are a plethora of terms available to describe the contemporary use of English in the so-called globalized world. As can be clearly seen, the proposals for a new name for English seem to add unnecessary complications to an already complex discussion. In the hope to avoid further confusion I will resist the temptation to produce another label for English. While terms like global/international/world English may describe the language as it is used internationally, they do not represent a new linguistic entity. Moreover, the use of such terms recognizes the multiple varieties of English in the world and implies an open-minded attitude to the use of these varieties in global communication and education. At a time when English speakers are located around the world and L1 and L2 speakers alike command the language, the traditional conception of the English language needs to be accommodated to include the multiple uses of English in the world. Because of the complex situation in the world where English means so many things to so many different people, there is a need to examine the use of English in particular contexts.

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*Efficacy of the Use of Electronic Peer Feedback with Mixed Ability Students in the EFL
Writing Class: Language and Cultural Barriers*

Raveewan Wanchid

0127

King Mongkut's University of Technology North Bangkok, Thailand

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Abstract:

This study examined the efficacy of the use of electronic peer feedback in the EFL writing class. The perceptions of the perceived value of providing and receiving feedback from mixed ability classmates were also explored. The study was conducted using a single group pretest-posttest design to investigate the students' writing achievement. Facebook, the social networking site was used as a channel for peer feedback activities. The electronic peer feedback was an independent variable, whereas the students' writing achievement score was the dependent variable. In total, 36 college students were randomly selected and assigned to the study. In order to ensure the quality of peer feedback, they were trained for 6 hours on how to provide useful feedback at the beginning of the course. The students provided feedback to their friends by using guidelines focusing on both content and grammar. A writing achievement test and a close-ended questionnaire were used for the quantitative data collection. Descriptive statistics and one-way ANOVA were used to analyze and explain the data. The qualitative data were also gathered from the interview. The results revealed that the students' writing achievement scores on the pre- and post-tests were significantly different. Although the students expressed highly positive attitudes towards the value of the peer feedback process, some Thai cultural traits and students' language ability seemed to be the significant barriers for students to succeed. However, it could be said that there is a promising place for implementing technology-integrated peer feedback in the EFL writing curriculum.

Introduction

Although English is a compulsory course at King Mongkut's University of Technology North Bangkok (KMUTNB), the students' general English proficiency is not satisfactory. Most students are still unable to communicate in English competently although they have studied English for many years. The students' significant communicative problems such as inappropriate language use, incomprehensible passages, and disorganized text have been found in the writing course. These problems may have been a result of insufficient feedback, the teacher's heavy workload, large-sized class, mixed proficiency levels of students, variations in motivation, and negative attitudes toward English.

Writing is a process of thinking. The composing process involves a number of activities: setting goals, generating ideas, organizing information, selecting appropriate language, making drafts, reading, reviewing, revising, and editing (Hedge, 2000). It seems impossible for novice or even proficient writers to write a perfect draft without following those steps.

Peer feedback is a writing activity in which the writers work in groups collaboratively and provide information on each other's writing, either in a written, oral, or computer-mediated mode (Liu & Hansen, 2002). Through feedback, the writer learns where he or she has misled or confused the readers by not supplying sufficient information or with illogical organization, lack of the development of ideas, or inappropriate words choice or tense. This supports Vygotsky's zone of proximal development, where skills are extended through the guidance and response of others. It is believed that feedback from more advanced peers can provide scaffolding and can reduce problems associated with peer feedback, such as the lack of credibility of peer evaluation and reluctance to use feedback from peers.

As a result, in order to solve the problems mentioned above successfully, peer feedback via Facebook was considered as a worthy activity that possibly could help the teachers and students overcome these constraints in the teaching and learning context at the workplace. It is believed that providing peer feedback via Facebook not only increases the students' learning motivation but also enhances the interaction among the students' classmates and teacher in a virtual context where the target language learning is not limited in a traditional classroom. It is also expected that the use of Facebook possibly reduces the language and cultural barriers in the EFL writing class.

In this article, the author describes how the research was conducted, followed by the results of the study, and concludes with the discussions and recommendations for further research.

The differences between written, oral, and online peer feedback

Table 1: Common Features and Differences in Oral, Written, and Online Peer Feedback

Adapted from Tuzi (2004) cited in Wanchid (2010)

Criteria	Oral peer feedback	Written peer feedback	Online peer feedback
1. Mode of communication	Oral /Two-way communication	Written/ mostly one-way communication	Written/ two-way communication
2. Pressure to respond	Pressure to immediately respond	Pressure to respond by next class	No pressure to immediately respond
3. Place and time dependence	Place and time dependence	Place and time dependence	Place and time independent
4. Components of communication	Nonverbal components	No nonverbal components	No nonverbal components
5. Personal distance	Less personal distance/ more intrusive	More or less personal distance depends on the situation	More personal distance
6. Level of cultural barriers	Greater cultural barriers	Greater cultural barriers	Fewer cultural barriers
7. Involvement	Greater sense of involvement	Greater sense of involvement	Greater sense of involvement
8. Frequency of meaning negotiation	More negotiation of meaning	Less negotiation of meaning	More negotiation of meaning
9. Delivery effort	Less delivery effort	Greater delivery effort	Less delivery effort
10. Other facilities	Not available	No cut & paste	Cut & paste
11. Message permanence	Not available	Fewer feelings of message permanence due to unpublished messages	Greater sense of message permanence due to the visible online messages

With regards to applying CMC as an alternative means to providing feedback in writing instructions, the differences of oral feedback, written feedback, and online peer feedback are summarized in Table 1.

Apart from the difference in communication mode, the online environment allows two-way communication between readers and writers without time or place dependence. This feature increases the degree of social interaction and negotiation of meaning, and offers potentially unlimited participation unlike traditional modes, where group conversation, work submission, and feedback exchange are held during limited class time. This unavoidably creates pressure for immediate response from students.

The level of cultural barriers is considered as another important feature which has significant impact on the nature of communication and the effectiveness of peer feedback activity. The online environment can eradicate some of this cultural impact, such as group harmony and face preservation, since there is little pressure of the sort imposed on an individual by another's physical presence (Macleod, 1999). This would encourage students to be more honest in

responding and in stating their true thoughts because the peer reviewers could criticize the writers without having to face them.

In the online environment, peer feedback activity is greatly facilitated by computer functions that allow students to compose, revise, and edit their writing more conveniently. Students do not have to waste time repetitively writing the entire paper for the peer feedback process.

Another feature that differentiates the three types of peer feedback is the permanence of the message. For online peer feedback, the message is immediately visible and thus may encourage a feeling of permanence about the message from the writers (Todd, 2003). Moreover, this can yield potential feelings of the “publicness” of the posted message, but this feature cannot be found in traditional peer feedback.

In sum, it can be said that the features of the online modes are not completely different from the other two traditional modes, although written and oral peer feedback have their own distinctive functions. As Baron (1998) cited in Xu, (2007) has stated, electronic dialogues reside somewhere in between speech and written communication in formality and style.

Research Objectives

1. To investigate the effect of the use of peer feedback via Facebook on the students’ writing achievement.
2. To survey the students’ attitudes toward the use of peer feedback via Facebook.

Research Questions

1. Is there the significant effect of the use of peer feedback via Facebook on the students’ writing achievement?
2. What are the students’ attitudes toward the use of peer feedback via Facebook?

Methodology

Subjects

The subjects were 36 Thai second year undergraduate Engineering students who enrolled in Writing I as an elective course at KMUTNB in the second semester of academic year 2010. The students’ age range was 19-21. All of them passed Foundation English I and II, and they had different levels of general English proficiency (high, moderate, and low). Stratified random sampling technique was used for subject selection and assignment.

Instruments and Data Collection

A writing achievement test, a questionnaire, and a semi-structured interview were used in the study. The test was adapted from Wanchid (2007), and it aimed to measure the students’ writing ability before and after taking the course. It was composed of 3 main parts: error identification, completion, and paragraph writing. The test was validated by 3 experts, and the Index of Item Objective Congruence (IOC) was 1. The Classical Test Item Analysis and Grading (Sukamolson, 1995) was used to analyze the test items. The result of the item analysis showed that on average, the difficulty index was 0.66, and the discrimination index was 0.54. Moreover, the reliability coefficient was 0.76.

The students had to complete all of the test tasks within 3 hours. For the paragraph writing section, the assessment criteria for writing were based on Pavlik and Segal’s writing profile (2007). The profile is divided into five majors writing components: content, organization, vocabulary, language use and mechanics with each one having three rating levels of *poor*,

average, and excellent. The analytic scoring was applied as the rubric of evaluation because of its outstanding usefulness, high validity, and washback (Hyland, 2003).

The questionnaire was designed to elicit the students' responses regarding their attitudes toward peer feedback by using five point Likert scales ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). Both of the instruments were distributed to the students at the end of the course. A t-test and descriptive statistics were used to analyze the data. Semi-structured interviews were applied to gain more in-depth information. It was noted that the instruments were validated by 3 experts, and the Index of Item Objective Congruence (IOC) was 1. The reliability of the questionnaire calculated by Cronbach Coefficient Alpha, SPSS version 11.5 was 0.79.

Experimental Process

In order to ensure that the students could provide effective peer feedback, they were trained at the beginning of the course. The writing achievement test and close-ended questionnaire were used for the quantitative data collection. The t-test and descriptive statistics were used to analyze and explain the data. The qualitative data were gathered from the interview. The following table describes the experimental process in the study.

Table 1: The Experimental Process

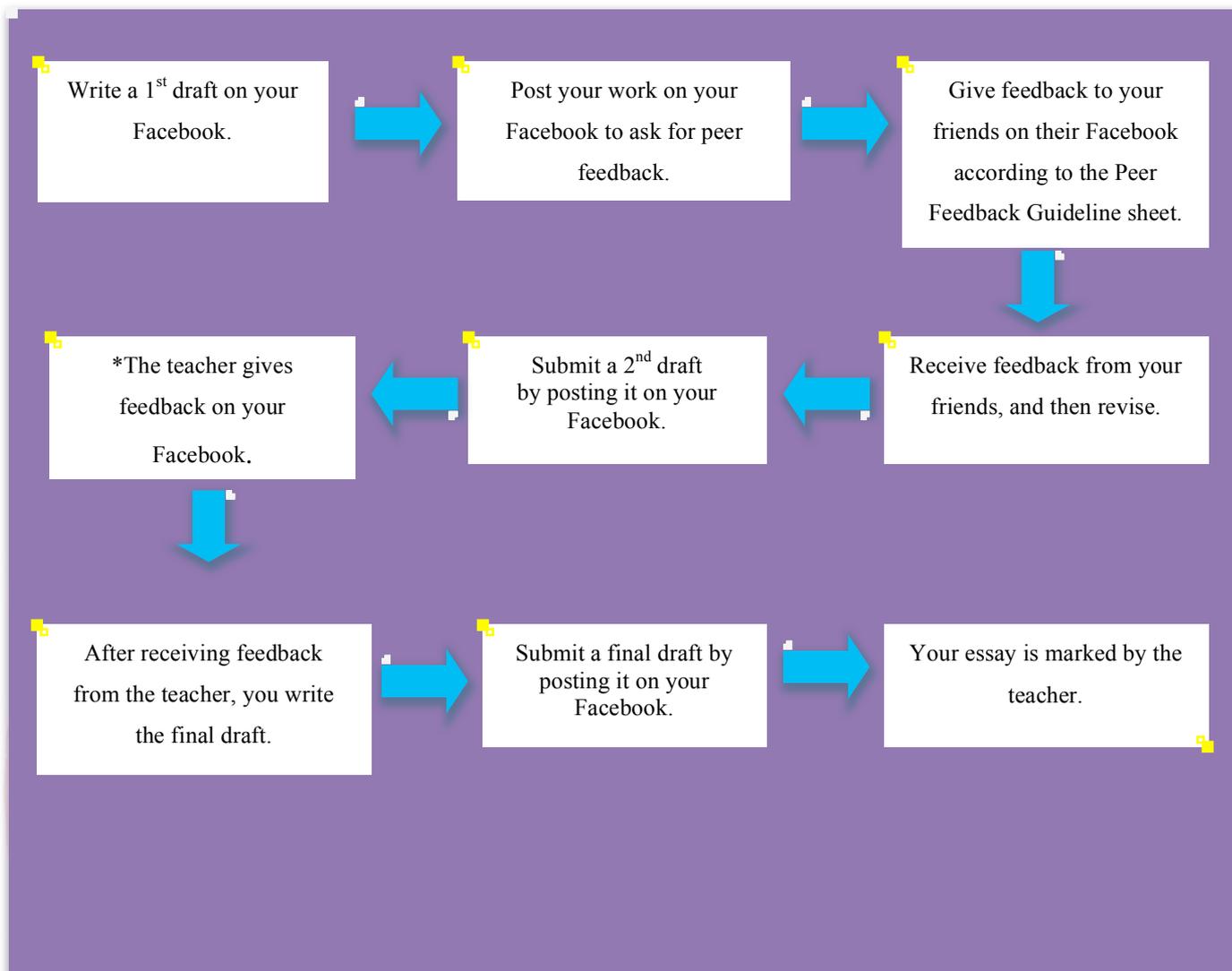
Phases	Activities	Weeks (1-15)
I	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The students took the pre-test. 	1
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The use of peer feedback activity was introduced to the students. The objectives, contents, and scoring rubric were also discussed. The students were trained how to provide effective peer feedback and how to provide feedback by using Facebook. 	2-3
II	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The students did four writing assignments and four journal writings assigned by the teacher. The students provided feedback on their friends' writing assignments. 	4-14
III	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The students took the post-test and questionnaire. Further, 12 students were randomly assigned to the interview session. 	15

Procedures of Peer Feedback Method

At the beginning of the course, the students were trained in how to provide useful comments on their friends' paper for 6 hours in order to ensure the quality of the peer feedback. Moreover, in order to ensure their ability to distinguish between the helpful and not-so-helpful comments from their peers, group consultations were arranged out of class time at the beginning of the experiment, at least 2 times for each subgroup or 30 minutes per time.

The students had to write four essays of different rhetorical focuses. They had to post their work on their Facebook, and then their friends who were in the same subgroup of six read the work. Therefore, each student was assigned to give feedback on five papers of their subgroup members by using the peer feedback guideline. They had one week to do the task and they had to post their feedback to their friends before the next class. After the students received the feedback from their peers, they had a weekend to revise their first draft outside the classroom before submitting the second draft on their Facebook. Next, the teacher provided feedback on the students' second drafts using the same guideline. After that they had to revise and then post the final work on their weblogs by the due date. The diagram of the peer feedback procedure is shown below.

Figure 1: Diagram of the Peer Feedback Activity (Wanchid, 2010)



Results

1. Regarding the first research objective, which was to investigate the effect of peer feedback by using Facebook on the students' writing achievement, the results from the t-test in Table 2 illustrated that the students' post-test score was significantly higher than that of the pre-test after the e-mail peer feedback had been used in the writing process ($t= 11.43, p<0.05$).

Table 2: Results of the pre-and post-test scores of the students from the t-test analysis

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	POST - PRE	28.25	14.83	2.47	23.23	33.27	11.43	35	.000

2. In order to answer research question two, investigating the students' attitudes towards the use of peer feedback via Facebook, 15 questionnaire items were analyzed, as presented in Table 3. A five-point Likert scale, ranging from Strongly Disagree (1) to Strongly Agree (5), was used. To make the data more clear, the students' attitudes were interpreted by using the evaluation criteria described below:

0.00-1.50 means that the students had very low positive attitudes toward the use of peer feedback via Facebook.

1.51-2.50 means that the students had low positive attitudes toward the use of peer feedback via Facebook.

2.51-3.50 means that the students had moderately positive attitudes toward the use of peer feedback via Facebook.

3.51-4.50 means that the students had highly positive attitudes toward the use of peer feedback via Facebook.

4.51-5.00 means that the students had very highly positive attitudes toward the use of peer feedback via Facebook.

Table 3: Students' attitudes toward the use of peer feedback via Facebook

Statement	Mean	S.D.	Meaning
1. I think peer feedback by using Facebook is useful when applied in the writing course.	4.44	0.50	High
2. I would like to learn writing by using peer feedback via Facebook.	3.89	0.75	High
3. Peer feedback via Facebook helps me recognize errors better.	4.31	0.75	High
4. Using the peer feedback method via Facebook encourages me to acquire English knowledge in order to give high-quality feedback.	4.39	0.60	High
5. I think peer response from Facebook is helpful.	4.28	0.88	High
6. I didn't feel embarrassed sharing my thoughts/writing with my group via Facebook.	4.31	0.95	High
Statement	Mean	S.D.	Meaning
7. I am not frightened by the group interactions due to my weak language skills.	3.11	0.67	Moderate
8. My writing improved after getting peer feedback via Facebook.	3.78	0.59	High
9. I find that comments from peers via Facebook are usually vague or not clear.	2.83	0.65	Moderate
10. I am not sure whether or not I can rely on peer comments via Facebook because my friends might have been afraid to point out weak points in my papers directly.	3.33	0.68	Moderate
11. Some criticism from peer feedback via Facebook is too harsh.	2.94	0.63	Moderate
12. I find that reading friends' work via Facebook is useful for me in improving my own writing.	4.44	0.56	High

13. I am not afraid to comment on papers or point out mistakes via Facebook for fear that my friends might be offended.	3.89	0.75	High
14. I can give feedback via Facebook to my friends effectively.	3.78	0.59	High
15. I enjoy giving comments on my friends' papers via Facebook.	4.28	0.88	High

The results illustrated that the students seemed to have highly positive attitudes toward the use of peer feedback, as they highly agreed with most of the positive items. For example, the use of peer feedback was considered to be useful when applied in the writing course (item 1, M= 4.44, S.D. = 0.50), and reading friends' work via Facebook was considered to be useful in improving the students' writing (item 12, M= 4.44, S.D. = 0.56), as it encouraged the students to acquire English knowledge in order to give high-quality feedback (item 4, M= 4.39, S.D. = 0.60) and helped the students recognize errors better (item 3, M= 4.31, S.D. = 0.75). However, they moderately agreed with item 7 (I am not frightened by the group interactions due to my weak language skills), item 9 (I find that comments from peers via Facebook are usually vague or not clear), item 10 (I am not sure whether or not I can rely on peer comments via Facebook because my friends might have been afraid to point out weak points in my papers directly), and 11 (Some criticism from Facebook is too harsh).

Discussion

1. Why does the use of peer feedback via Facebook have an effect on the students' writing achievement?

There are three main reasons for this. First are the benefits of the peer feedback. The students gained advantages of peer feedback, as seen in the reviewed literature, in spite of using with a low homogeneous group of students. For example, peer feedback encourages active learner participation, an authentic communicative context, and audience awareness, offers a nonjudgmental environment, reduces writing apprehension (Hyland, 2003), helps to develop students' critical and analytical skills, promotes learner independence (Celce-Murcia, 2001, Keh, 1996), and helps students to learn from friends' strengths and weaknesses (Tsui and Ng, 2000). Moreover, the results from the interview also revealed that the students considered peer feedback useful both as readers and as writers. Most of them thought that the comments they received from peers could help them improve their writing, especially regarding organization and content. Although they had to spend a lot of time on rechecking their peers' grammar correction since their friends might not have had sufficient grammar knowledge, the task was quite challenging for them. It motivated them to review what they had studied in the class and to acquire new knowledge from other grammar books.

Additionally, using a social networking site as a medium of communication in the peer feedback activity yielded a number of benefits (Kabilan, Ahmad, and Abidin (2010). The characteristics of the electronic mode can increase student-student interaction without time or place restrictions and promote negotiation of meaning since the students can raise questions for more explanations and clarifications on the points that they might not have understood. The results from the interviews illustrated that all of the students expressed their appreciation in applying e-mail peer feedback in the writing process because their writing was facilitated by computer functions that allowed them to compose, peer edit, and easily revise their writing. Moreover, the students stated that it was more convenient for them to provide and receive feedback from their friends in the same subgroup.

The results conformed to Wanchid's (2007) study, which found that the students in the electronic peer feedback group had higher writing achievement scores than those of the students that were in the paper-pencil peer feedback group. It is clear that such benefits could not be applicable in the traditional classroom. The findings also support the results of Bump's (1990) study, which pointed out that the students that received electronic peer feedback produced a greater volume of written output, unlimited space for comments, more revision, and more improvement in fluency than the students that participated in the traditional oral or written peer feedback. As a result, such striking characteristics which the electronic mode provides lead to more learning engagement, more exposure to the subject out of class time, and eventually helps the students to improve their writing skills.

Intensive peer feedback training may be another possible reason to explain why the students gained significantly different pre- and post-test writing achievement scores. According to Hyland (2003), peer response practices are most effective if they are modeled, taught, and controlled. Previous research studies have conceded that the success of peer feedback training tends to lead to positive effects on students' cumulative writing development, their ability to provide significantly more and significantly better comments on each other's writing, and on their level of confidence (Mcgroarty and Zhu, 1997; Mittan, 1989; Stanley, 1992; Nelson and Murphy, 1993, Berg, 1999; Hui - TzuMin, 2005); and when peers are trained, the feedback of lower-level writers is not less effective (Berg, 1999).

What can be concluded from the above discussion is that peer feedback training is necessary for students and even more essential when used with the students that exhibit low English proficiency because it might be one an important factor that leads to the success or failure of writing instruction and the students' writing development.

2. Why do the students have highly positive attitudes toward the use of peer feedback via Facebook?

This may be due to the fact that the students in the study were trained in how to generate more specific comments and provide suggestions on their peers' work at the beginning of the course in a cooperative learning environment. The role of peer feedback in the writing process, and the benefits of having peers respond to student papers as opposed to teacher feedback, were emphasized and discussed. The students were also encouraged to believe that they could trust their peer group's assistance. As a result, it could be said that such training possibly increases the students' self-confidence in their ability to provide useful feedback to their friends. It also promotes positive attitudes toward the use of the peer feedback strategy in their writing process. This is because they were provided with opportunity to learn how to effectively respond to their peers' writing, and the benefits that they would gain from the peer feedback process were clearly emphasized during the training.

The findings corroborate the studies of Wanchid (2007), Chinnawongs (2001), Padgate (2001), and Thongrin (2000), who revealed that Thai students seemed to have positive attitudes toward the use of the peer feedback strategy, as they considered peer comments useful to their writing improvement. Although Chinnawong's (2001) study revealed that peer comment was the lowest ranked as a useful corrective strategy comparing to teacher feedback and self-correction, the mean of peer evaluation was considered very high. Such findings also suggest that the peer feedback strategy has a role to play in the EFL writing class.

However, if we focus on details, it was found that the students had moderate attitudes toward items 7, 9, 10, and 11. This may be caused by the influence of Thai culture. Many researchers have found that the students' culture has a significant impact on the effectiveness of peer feedback groups (Allaei and Connor, 1990). Thailand is considered to be a collectivist culture (Hofstede, 1986), and it has to be accepted that Thai culture, including the notion of face, ego orientation, maintaining harmony, and *Kreng Jai*, influences the students' response performance and perceptions. That is, they tended to say what the writers wanted to hear rather than provide frank, helpful comments to the writers, fearing that such negative feedback would humiliate their peers and cause a loss of face and discordant personal relationships afterwards (Thongrin, 2002). These problems seem to downgrade the value of peer feedback.

Conclusion

In conclusion, it could be said that use of peer feedback via Facebook can be used with mixed ability students, as it can enhance writing performance, encourage students to be independent learners who take charge of their own learning, increase critical skills in feedback evaluation, and make the students highly engaged in the course. However, the effectiveness of peer feedback training should be paid even more attention to when applying the activity with students with low competency. Teacher feedback on the grammar correction on the students' second draft is still considered important because of the students' insufficient grammar knowledge.

Recommendations for Further Research

1. Other crucial factors that might affect the results of the study, such as gender, age, learning styles, learning strategies, technology apprehension, computer literacy, and group integrity, should be taken into consideration.
2. In order to strengthen the reliability of the study, the use of a control group is recommended for further studies. In addition, this research was conducted with engineering students in a writing course; consequently, students in other faculties and in other content courses would be interesting to research.
3. Replication of the study is suggested for a longer period of time to strengthen the results of the study. Moreover, it would be interesting to explore further whether the study will yield the same results if the study is carried out with the subjects in other settings, such as private universities or with subjects at other educational levels.

The Author

Raveewan Wanchid is currently a lecturer at King Mongkut's University of Technology North Bangkok. She obtained a Ph.D. in English in the International Language (EIL) Program at Chulalongkorn University, Bangkok, Thailand in 2008.

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The logo for 'iafor' is centered on the page. It consists of the lowercase letters 'iafor' in a light blue, sans-serif font. The text is enclosed within a large, faint, circular graphic element that appears to be a stylized 'i' or a similar shape, rendered in a light blue color. The background of the page features a large, faint, circular graphic element in a light blue color, which is partially obscured by the 'iafor' logo.

English Language Teaching: New Challenges, New Problems and New Solutions

Asiya Usmanova

0130

Moscow State University, Russian Federation

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Abstract:

The paper is devoted to the analysis of the main problems and challenges concerning English language learning and teaching in Russia as seen from the perspective of globalisation. Although globalisation affected most languages, it is of paramount importance to study these issues in the context of the English language education because English has the status of a global language, or lingua franca. Over the past twenty years the principles in language education in Russia have been undergoing constant review and reconsideration because both language learners and teachers have faced new challenges which stem from the global changes in the sphere of communication, which in its turn has been influenced by the rapid progress in computer-based technology. The following aspects will be touched upon in the paper: changing attitudes towards English in Russia over the past three centuries; globalization and its influence on language acquisition - introducing EFL into the syllabus; traditional methods and approaches towards language education in Russia, their advantages and disadvantages; new communicative approach and the challenges that Russian adult learners of English have faced; communication and communicative errors typical for the Russian learners of English. The research is based on the author's own twenty years' experience in language teaching. Numerous examples are provided to illustrate the main points of the research.

The English language has gained a special status over the past sixty years – that is the status of a global language, or the language of international communication. According to Pr. D. Crystal English has developed as an international language due to economical, political and cultural factors: Great Britain and the USA were the countries which largely determined the economy of the world over the 20th century. Besides, rapid progress in computer-based technologies has led to rapid progress in communication means, transport, information, which in its turn promoted the growth of international contacts in business, politics, culture, science and tourism. English has become the language which helped the people all over the world to communicate with each other. Many languages borrow English words in order to denote new items and notions. English is studied as number one foreign language at schools in most countries because proficiency in English is the requirement for a successful career. As research shows, the situation with English is basically identical in all languages, yet there are certain specific features in the way English affects and interacts with other languages. This paper is about the English language in Russia and in the Russian language.

Attitudes

The attitudes towards English in Russian society have been changing significantly over the past 200 years. They have always been mixed. English has not always been as popular in Russia as it is now. The popularity of any language in any environment, as I see it, can be measured by two factors: the number of loan words from the English language and the number of learners of English especially among the adults.

English words have been coming into the Russian language since Middle Ages in different quantities at different periods. The first contacts between the two nations brought the first English words to Russia, mainly from the spheres of shipbuilding, trade and diplomacy. In the 19th century Russian borrowed English words for denoting new objects and realia in sports, technology everyday life.(e.g. *football*, *roastbeef*, *beefsteak* [bif'steks], *dandy*, *budget* [bud'ʒet], *jury* [ʒu'ri], *tourist*, etc). Pr. A. Pavlovskaya in her book *England and English People* says that until the 19th century learning of English in Russia was not wide-spread because English was considered to be very difficult and not very beautiful. French was more popular in Russia throughout the 18th-19th centuries: it was fashionable with aristocracy to speak French and some aristocrats could talk only French, they never learned and used Russian!

The 20th century was marked by the greatest ever inflow of loan words from English. Even before the collapse of the Soviet Union and the socialist system there were quite a number of English words penetrating into the Russian language. This was due to the fact that British and American culture, namely music, was extremely popular among younger generation of the Soviet Union. The popularity of the culture in its turn triggered the love for the language. Many of the English words were used in Russian youth slang (e.g. *flat*, *to ask*, *hair*,

shoes, girl - in Russian pronounced as [flet], [ˈasknutʲ], [hair], [fuˈzy], [gerˈla]).

In the early 90-s with the change of political system the number of loan words increased enormously practically in all spheres of human life; economy, mass media, business, culture, fashion, everyday speech, youth slang, etc. It became fashionable to use occasionally English words in colloquial Russian. At that time the English language was associated with everything that is new – new political power, new lifestyle, new relations, and new culture.

The main reasons for borrowing the words from English into Russian are:

- new realities, new objects, new concepts in Russian social life due to economic, political and technological changes, e.g. *brand, business, blender, mixer, summit, briefing*;
- changes of notions due to social and political changes – some Russian words are substituted by the English ones because the latter sound more up-to-date, fashionable or even prestigious, e.g. *office* is used instead of former Russian word *kontora, manager* instead of *rukovoditel, computer* instead of *EVM*. Also, some English words are used as synonyms to the existing Russian words, but with different shades of meanings, e.g. the borrowed word *image* is used in business and political contexts, while the Russian word *obraz* can be found in art, literature, or music.
- the influence of British and American culture. This includes various words from the fields of music (*rock, beat, etc.*), fashion (*must-have, glamour*), food (*cheeseburger, hotdog*);
- comparative shortness of English words, e.g. *sprinter* is used instead of Russian *runner at short distances*.

The loan words can be classified as follows:

1. the loan words which remain virtually unchanged, that is, they do not change basically their phonetic features. Although they are pronounced as Russian words, they still can be recognized by the native speakers of English in the Russian flow of speech. The majority of the borrowed words are nouns that is why they practically always acquire grammatical characteristics of Russian nouns – gender (mostly masculine), number, and declension.

Examples:

Бой-френд (boy-friend)

Офис (office)

Менеджер (manager)

Тинэйджер (teenager)

Провайдер (provider)

Дизайн (design)

Лифтинг (lifting)

Фитнес (fitness)

Ресепшин (reception)

Слоган (slogan)

Дедлайн (deadline)

2. There are some English sounds which do not exist in Russian, e.g. [ð], [θ], [æ], [w]. When words with such sounds are borrowed, they are substituted by Russian sounds with the most similar phonation.

Examples:

Sound [θ] in the words *Bluetooth, thriller* is pronounced as [Z]; sound [æ] in the words *second-hand, action* - [E]; sound [w] in the word *western* - [v].

3. the loan words which retain their meaning but their pronunciation is assimilated with Russian words with completely different meanings.

Examples: The English word *email* is assimilated with the Russian word *мыло (mylo)* which means soap; *button* – *батон (baton)* with the stress on the last syllable) which means *loaf*; *driver* – *дрова (drova)* meaning *firewood*.

4. the loan words which developed derivatives with the help of Russian prefixes and suffixes and which now function according to morphological norms of the Russian language. This process could be explained by the frequent use of the words in all spheres of public life. For the most part it is the verbal forms that are derived from English nouns and verbs.

Examples:

The most vivid example is the English abbreviation PR, or public relations. Since no adequate Russian equivalent to this notion was found and since it was too complicated to pronounce the transliterated variant of this word, it was soon contracted to the more convenient one – PR – which is not written as an abbreviation but as a word *пиар* and pronounced as [pi'ar].

The word *пиар* has developed many derivatives with different shades of meaning. Below are the most frequent ones with back translation into English and some comments on word formation.

Verbs:

Пиарить – [pi'arit'] - to PR;

Отпиарить- [otpi'arit'] – to PR but prefix *от-* adds a slightly negative shade of meaning;

Распиарить – [raspi'arit'] – prefix *ras-* has the meaning of intensity of the action;

Пропиарить – [propri'arit'] – prefix *pro-* shows the perfect aspect of the word;

Noun:

Пиарщик – [pi'arshchik] - a colloquial word for a person who deals with PR campaign

Самопиар – [samopi'ar] – *self-PR*, or PR-campaign of oneself;

Adjectives/Participles:

Пропиаренный – [propri'arenniy] – formed from the verb *пропиарить*

Распиаренный – [raspi'arenniy] – formed from the verb *распиарить*

This is the most interesting category of the loan words because the English words start completely new life in the Russian language and in most cases original English words cannot be recognized by the native speakers. Some more examples of the derivative words which are mainly used in Internet communication:

Юзать - [juzat'] – to use;

Поюзанный – [po'juzanniy] – *being used* (with a slightly negative meaning – worn out, shabby);
Зафрендить – [za'frendit'] – *make friends in Life Journal*;
Бэкапить – [bek'apit'] – *to back up*
Ангрейдить – [ap'greidit'] – *to upgrade*.

Unfortunately, there is no accurate statistics as to the exact number of loan words in Russian at certain period of times. No research has been made regarding the statistics of the loan words. The conclusions made are purely empirical. Actually it is impossible to calculate all the words entering the language at a certain period of time. If we analyse the dictionaries of foreign words in the Russian language over the past 20 years we will see that some loan came into the Russian language and “settled” there forever, others just “paid a short visit” and disappeared. The language itself is able to choose what lexical units are necessary and important for the language users in certain situations at a certain period of time.

The attitude of people towards the loan words is different among different age groups. For the older generation it is sometimes difficult to understand the meanings of words; there are fighters for purity who think that the inflow is too great and that the use of foreign words should be banned. The younger generation is more tolerant and more open to everything that is new. Besides, most young people in Russia are fond of learning English, so they have no difficulty understanding and using the loan words. There were fears that English can oust the native language. The linguists, however, proved that there is no reason for these fears as in most cases English influences only the vocabulary of the language without affecting the structure as a whole.

Approaches

The approaches towards teaching and learning English have also changed greatly. The regular teaching of English started approximately in the 18th century and was developed in the 19th. The basic approaches towards teaching languages at that time were as follows:

- Grammatical and Translation Method
- English was taught as a classical language
- Samples of language were taken from English classical literature

These approaches were further developed in the 20th century. In the 20th century before the Second World War the German language was more popular in Soviet secondary and higher educational establishments, English was the second popular language, while French lost its ground. In the second half of the 20th century the correlation was different – English dominated in most secondary schools' curriculum – more than two-thirds of all secondary schools in the Soviet Union taught English. Learning foreign languages was obligatory for everyone in secondary schools for 6 years and in Universities for 2-3 years. So before getting a degree people had studied a foreign language for 9 years. However, this does not mean that they could speak, or communicate effectively. The focus was on

passive acquisition of grammar. The tradition of the 19th century with its grammar and translation method and descriptive approach was still alive. Modern languages were still studied as classical languages (Latin, Ancient Greek). Grammar rules, or rather theory of grammar, were described but there was no practical application – students were supposed to recognise grammar forms and to translate them correctly. Speaking and listening skills were not developed partly because there were not enough materials for oral comprehension, partly because of the lack of technical aids. Besides, speaking was considered to be an unnecessary skill because Soviet citizens were not supposed to communicate with the foreigners. Contacts with people from abroad were regarded as suspicious. The only skill which was developed to the full is reading. There were lots of books – classics of British and American literature of the 19th and early 20th centuries available in bookstores, both adapted and original versions. The English textbooks were written by Soviet teachers of English themselves and were based on the samples of language taken from classical literature or on political texts. Typical exercises included the following: reading a text out loud, translating a text into the native language, answering the questions to the text, passive learning of the lists of new words without understanding how the words can actually function in the flow of speech. Thus, years were spent on passive acquisition. A slightly better situation was at the so-called specialized secondary language schools, where pupils had language classes every day and the syllabus included development of all four basic skills equally. Still the approaches were the same – the focus was on grammar and translation. Basically, there were two levels of mastering a foreign language: 1. reading and translating with dictionary, 2. fluent in a language (only language teachers and translators/interpreters could achieve the latter). The methods and approaches which I have just described were the official ones – approved by the Ministry of Education. At the same time there were non-official approaches developed by the linguists-researchers. They were tested on a limited numbers of learners outside educational institutions and they were not wide-spread. They were to see the light later, in the 90-s.

So that was the situation by the 90-s before the fall of the iron curtain and the collapse of the Soviet Union – totally passive knowledge of English and other languages. Active command was yet to be acquired and this appeared to be a tough job.

Challenges

After the collapse of the Soviet Union and the fall of the “iron curtain” Russian people realised that English is urgently required if one wants a better life. And at the same time we have found out that the English language we had studied was completely outdated, actually it was the language of the 19th- early 20th centuries because, as it was stated above, Russian teachers wrote the textbooks themselves and based them mainly on the language of classical literature.

The new country, Russian Federation, found itself a part of a global village and so it had to communicate with fellow villagers in the field of business, trade, tourism, science and culture. English, which had already gained the status of international language by that time, became the essential means of communication between Russia and the rest of the world. It seems that most part of adults wanted to learn English in order to be able to speak, to understand and to be understood. Gradually the market for the English language emerged. Different methods and approaches were either devised or brought to life: suggestopaedia, 25 frame method, Ilona Davydova's method, intensive method, etc. "We'll teach you English in 4 weeks, 3 weeks, 2 weeks..... 2 days!" These were the slogans of advertising campaigns for the language courses. It seemed that the organizers of these courses competed in brevity. Needless to say that the cost of the courses was in inverse proportion to the length.

Globalisation set the new requirements on language learning. The basic ones were 1) the ability to communicate effectively at higher levels of command - that is to speak fluently and to understand adequately, 2) mastering language very quickly. Communicative approach firmly established its position. The teachers, however, faced certain problems while trying to meet these requirements. Quick learning appeared to be ineffective due to the fact that learners forgot everything as quickly as they learned. This approach also revealed some issues of a psychological character: many Russian adult learners had to overcome the fear of mispronouncing the words or making any grammar mistakes, like confusing tenses, omitting -s in the 3rd person singular Simple Present, tense system in general seemed to be very complicated, especially Perfect tenses. This uncertainty can be explained by the facts that at school they had very rigorous instruction with inflexible 5-mark grading system which was very subjective and totally depended on the teachers' preferences. There used to be a kind of ideal English which everyone had to try to achieve. But this mainly applies to adult learners of the 90-s. Generation of the noughties are more relaxed – they started learning languages with new textbooks and new communication-oriented tasks. So they pay little attention to how the words are pronounced, or whether or not the grammar rules are applied correctly. This careless attitude can lead to yet another problem which may appear to be more dangerous than just grammar or phonetic mistakes - communicative errors. They can result in misunderstanding or offences which may negatively affect, and even, what is the worst, spoil the communication act. These errors stem from the improper use of the language due to the interference of native language structures.

Here are some typical communicative errors Russian people usually make. Russian people tend to use negative forms of auxiliary verbs in polite requests: "*Couldn't you help me?*" instead of "*Could you help me?*" The first structure is formed according to the norms of the Russian grammar and ethics and it sounds very polite in Russian, while in English it may sound rude. Another example concerns the differentiation of long and short vowels. There are no long and short

vowels in Russian, so this differentiation appears to be extremely difficult for Russian learners of English – in most words with short vowel [i] they tend to pronounce the long one, for instance, *heat* instead of *hit*. Thus, the sentence: “*The game is played by **heating** (hitting) the ball.*” may appear totally confusing. (It should be noticed that these kinds of errors can occur even if the speaker have achieved advanced level of language acquisition).

Another challenge Russian learners and teachers faced was the fact that mere acquisition of language skills – speaking, listening, reading and writing – is not enough for effective communication. A language learner should also acquire cultural awareness. In her book *Language and Intercultural Communication* Professor S. Ter-Minasova writes that effective communication depends upon many factors: conditions of communication, etiquette, non-verbal communication, background knowledge and many others. She also points out to the fact that languages are inseparable from the culture of peoples who speak them that is why languages should be taught together with the culture. Therefore, there was a necessity for a new profession – a specialist in intercultural communication, so the new specialization – linguistics and intercultural communication was introduced into the curriculum of Universities and Teacher Training Colleges. The first institution which started to train new specialists was the Faculty of Foreign languages and Area Studies at Moscow State University.

The attitude towards communicative approach among the teachers is mixed. Most teachers tend to combine communicative approach (task-based language learning, classes with native speakers, etc.) with good old methods. The merge of communicative approach with translation method seems to be the best solution. Learners feel the same – they feel safe when, along with practising communication, they translate structures into their native language; this is done not for the purpose of translation practice, but for the purpose of control, quick checking of understanding and finding suitable Russian equivalents to English collocations.

Computer-based technologies is one more challenge in the process of acquiring languages. Nowadays Russian people are much more exposed to contacts with speakers of English, either with native speakers, or with EFL speakers, but still there is lack of speaking practice because for many it is difficult to keep up their English due to the fast rhythm of life. On the one hand, computer-based technologies can be used to their best potential and learners can be encouraged to use Internet and Skype for learning through communication. On the other hand, technological advances brought in new forms of communication which in its turn brought in new styles – written colloquial language, texting language, which should be studied and taken into consideration when making up a syllabus.

Today English is very popular among all age groups – there is great demand for English language teachers, English language courses, English textbooks. A good command of English (upper-intermediate

level and above) is required if one wants to make a career in leading international corporations. The survey among the Russian students, which I conducted at the turn of the centuries and this year, showed the attitudes towards English in Russia as well as its significance in the life of Russian society. The pattern of the survey was as follows: the students were asked to finish the sentence “If he/she speaks English, it means that he/she” (it was stipulated that the students cannot finish the sentence with the words British/English/ from Great Britain, American/from the US, etc). The most frequent responses were: educated, sociable, hard-working, ambitious, a person who has a well-paid, prestigious job, businessperson, elite. In general the results showed that English is associated with some positive personal characteristics and with high position in society.

As we can see from this brief analysis the English language has greatly influenced the Russian language and society. The challenges, which stem from the influence, have brought along reconsideration of the main approaches in language teaching which is extremely beneficial for both learners and teachers.

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Cultural Transcendentalism - A Theory of Stepping Out and Stepping In

Sean Gay

0131

Kwansei Gakuin University, Japan

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Abstract:

Theories of motivation in EFL often allude to the desire to associate with the L2 culture. This is sometimes divided into different aspects of intrinsic as opposed to extrinsic motivations. The general theory, however, does not change. Cultural transcendentalism (Gay & Marcus 2007) is an alternative theory. This theory contends that an ability to step out of one's own culture and into the culture of another is necessary, and that the desire to associate is the effect of the development of this ability, and not the motivational cause of second language acquisition. Through analysis and meta-analysis of case studies of good language learners, the theory emerged as a viable alternative to the standing models of motivation. This paper examines the theoretical framework and pedagogical implications of cultural transcendentalism. As a theory that emerged through research, a brief examination of the research that led to the theory will be followed by a literature review of where the theory fits in the current EFL paradigm. The paper will conclude with possible pedagogic opportunities.

An emergent theory

When doing research for a paper examining case studies (Gay & Marcus 2007), my partner and I undertook an approach to determining the underlying aspects of successful language acquisition that Psathas referred to as “unmotivated observation (1995). While Psathas developed this style of research specifically for the field of conversation analysis, it is a methodology that is well suited to research into case studies. All included we did a meta-analysis based on 37 case studies (Childs 1997, Naiman et al 1996, Stevick 1989), added to analysis of four original case studies (Gay & Marcus 2007). Through these case studies we examined possible connections that linked the experiences of each of these learners. A key aspect to their shared experience emerged through analysis of their myriad stories, and that aspect was cultural transcendentalism, a term coined in the field of linguistics by William Marcus, (Gay & Marcus 2007).

One of the methodological choices we made early on was to examine the case studies for meta-analysis (Childs 1997, Naiman et al 1996, Stevick 1989) as case studies before examining the results or analysis of the authors. This was a bold decision, being only Master’s students at the time. However, this decision allowed us to look for trends that may have been overlooked by the previous authors, and allowed us to do our meta-analysis without worrying about undo influence, sought or unsought, by the authors. This approach of ‘unmotivated observation’ (Psathas 1995), allowed us to examine the data and allow the theories to emerge, rather than applying previous assumptions to situations where they may or may not be appropriate. With a cautionary understanding that Psathas’ methodology is actually considered impossible by Kuhn (1970), who asserts that all scientific observation is to a greater or lesser extent tainted by the paradigm in which the scientist is engaged. In this way we may have been advantaged by being relatively new to the field. Neither of us had ties to any particular SLA theories, and as such we were less likely to be affected by paradigmatic bias.

We then used an ethnographic narrative approach to our own case studies, allowing the students to tell their stories and analyzing their stories in the context of their culture (Gay et al 2006). By hearing about their learning experiences in their words, we limited the potential for researcher bias to be introduced via biased questions. This adds credence to our assertions because the students did not reveal information we asked them for, they simply told us what they thought was important.

Where does it fit?

The concept of cultural transcendentalism fits into two major aspects of SLA literature. The first is identity. Identity formation during/through second language acquisition is a rich field of research, that is also one of the more interesting areas of development. Kim (2003) offers a general overview of multiple shifting identities in multilingual students while Auer (1984 & 2005) addresses the aspect of code-switching, and Harrison (2011) and Nelson (1999) address issues of language and sexuality. The other aspect of SLA in which this is a pertinent construct is learner motivation. Dörnyei (2003), points to the importance of interest in the second language culture as an important motivational aspect.

The similarity to ‘transculturation’ must also be necessarily addressed. Transculturation is a theory introduced by Pratt (1991) and expanded upon by Zemel (1997) that offers an idea of something very similar to interlanguage, except as it relates to culture. The basic theory is that students generate a mixed culture identity that moves gradually towards the target culture. There are several weaknesses with this theory not present in cultural transcendentalism. The first is the theory is embedded in the importance of accepting the target culture, a culture that is often seen as a monolith. The theory does not address the possibility of an identity linked to a minority aspect of the culture, nor to an ‘imagined community’ which could be the target (Anderson, 1991, Harrison, 2011, Kanno, 2003, King, 2003, Norton 2001). That aside, there is also the possibility that the target language is not a language that the learner wants to accept, but one that the learner simply wants to join. Whether the learner wishes to be peripheral or central in their role within the target culture is actually not relevant to whether the learner will be able to form an identity that can be linked to that culture.

The general overview of multiple selves theory is well presented by Scheibe (1995), and is a theory of the representation of the self as a non-singular entity. Kim (2003) explored this theory in the context of multilinguals in a multi-cultural setting. Kim’s study demonstrated an interesting example of Scheibe’s theory in a real-world setting. There is some inference that can be drawn through Kim’s research into the interplay between culture and language, and how those aspects of self play out in a setting where identity shifts occur a great deal. Cultural transcendentalism, in this regards is a theory of stepping out and stepping in. A multilingual does not need to desire to become a part of another culture, they simply need to be willing to form an identity that can associate with a different linguacultural group.

In related, but separate, research, Auer (1984 & 2005), examines code-switching. Code-switching is an interesting and difficult aspect for the theory of cultural transcendentalism to address in some ways, however in other ways cultural transcendentalism may be seen as essential to understanding the phenomenon. The problem underlying code-switching is the question of which linguacultural group the speaker is engaging in when they are code-switching. This is far from a simple issue, but it has a simple answer. Code-switching generally occurs in what could be considered the realm of cultural transcendentalism. Neither linguacultural group is dominant, but both are present. It is an area that is outside the general norms of cultural space, but is easy to understand as an aspect of the theory that multilinguals are accomplished at transcending culture, and acting in the spaces between cultures.

Harrison (2011) and Nelson (1999), offer a more tantalizing aspect of second language acquisition and identity. Both of them deal primarily in issues of homosexuality in multilingual students, and the connection between sexuality and language. It is important to note that in this regards, the theory of cultural transcendentalism needs to take a broader context. The theory needs to incorporate aspects of perceived acceptance, or lack thereof, of sexual preferences. Beyond this, the theory of multiple selves, and cultural transcendentalism must both acknowledge that traits that are often considered constant must be looked at as being constant only in relation to a specific identity or self.

The ability to transcend culture, therefore, would also allow students to demonstrate differential sexual preferences in the same way they demonstrate other differential cultural attributes when moving between different linguacultural groups.

Pedagogical opportunities

Understanding that the desire to become a part of a second cultural group is not necessary is in some ways freeing oneself from Dörnyei's (2003) motivational paradigm. Cultural transcendentalism offers a framework for developing students in a different way.

McCombs (1994) argued about the ability of successful learners to work on a higher level by stepping outside the general self-imposed linguacultural boundaries. This idea, the idea of stepping out is the first part of cultural transcendentalism. Students need to be able to leave their culture behind. The key aspect here is that leaving an identity, a self, a culture, behind does not imply throwing it away. The idea is that students need to develop the ability to step outside their cultural norms temporarily in order to step in to another linguacultural group.

In the research of myself and Marcus (2007), we found that exemplar teaching was an efficient method to produce this mentality. The need for students to know that SLA can occur, and to meet examples of successful students who are still able to remain a member of their own linguacultural group can not go overstated. Once a student sees SLA as the incorporation of a second language rather than assimilation into another culture, a singular barrier can be breached. Allowing students to meet role models, successful language learners who are not foreign by birth or demeanor leads to the development of cultural transcendentalism, which leads to successful SLA.

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Wikis as a Tool for Individualism Among Non-English Majors at a Japanese University

Harry Carley

0160

Matsuyama University, Japan

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Abstract:

This presentation attempts to substantiate how wikis can be utilized to bring forth creativity and individualism among students that are not accustomed to doing so. Many Asian cultures have traditionally raised their citizens to think and act as a group. Japanese culture is particularly strong in this belief. Additionally, harsh criticisms towards one's peers, especially in Japanese society is disfavoured from an early age. Culture is one of the powerful forces that leave permanent marks on us (Wang, 2004). Today's classroom offers an opportunity to utilize Web 2.0 technology for extreme advantage to users. In academic settings wikis have been hailed as a beneficial tool for student collaboration contrary which is equivalent to the Asian belief in solidarity. Alternatively, wikis can also be used as a prelude for the cultivation of individual thought through ICT (Information Communication Technologies). At the same time wikis can be used to expand student's knowledge of other countries and cultures other than their own. The presenter will expound on the use of wikis through a Travel English course for non-English majors hopefully aiding others in similar instructional situations.

Introduction

Many universities have language requirements that students must fulfil before they can successfully graduate. These requirements are not of great concern for those that are already language majors. For those that are not, the demands for satisfying language course completion can be stressful and bothersome. Therefore, non-language majors preferably choose the course(s) that offer the least resistance and most expeditious solution to meeting the universities conditions. At the university where the author lectures, the most popular course that meets these conditions comes under the guise of 'Travel English'. It is a two credit course that revolves around the learners researching a given country, presenting their new found information in the form of English presentations, a holiday/vacation plan, and a final knowledge based exam. The final is executed by search techniques ascertained throughout the course and conducted on the Internet. An accompanying text provides general guidance as the topic areas for each presentation but the vocabulary used has proven too formidable for non-English majors.

Frustration, lack of interest, and overall boredom has lead to sparse attendance and thusly low marks for a majority of learners. It is not unheard of to have some students repeating the Travel English course 2 or 3 times; failing a majority of the time due to sheer lack of presence. Berwick and Ross (1989, p. 207) memorably describe English education in Japanese universities as a 'motivational wasteland' and although this is a somewhat simplistic description of a complex situation, it certainly highlights the strength of the perception of a lack of motivation in Japanese universities (Ryan, 2009, p. 409). Any type of improvement in the overall course particulars would need to involve greater student involvement and interest not for entertainment sake but most importantly for greater educational advancement.

Preceding Method

Up until recently the Travel English course consisted of close to 100 students in a single class. Due to instructor dissatisfaction the administration reduced the class size and increased the number of full and part time instructors for English Language education. Two years ago the size of the groups was again made smaller. Currently classes consist of around 10 - 20 members. Additionally, although the students are all non-English majors; they are still grouped according to what English abilities they might have through use of test scores such as the TOEIC or TOEIC Bridge. The conclusion being that, not only are some students processing low English language proficiency; any competence attributed may be only slightly higher than a step above nonexistence.

In the previous year when the author began instructing the course, use of PowerPoint was the dominate tool of tutelage. Additionally, it was used as the primary mode of presentation for the learners. PowerPoint software has proven to have its limitations though. All the student presentations had a look of similarity between them. One slide of a presentation with minor changes could have easily been interchanged into another with hardly any noticeable difference. With larger classes of twenty or more students the marathon of 3-5 minute presentations became an ultimate test of endurance to stay awake and attentive for fellow classmates as well as the instructor.

The quest to strive for individuality among presentations using PowerPoint was too cumbersome when learners attempted to add music or videos of their respective research countries. There seemed to be no solution to the drudgery of the course and the concept of

actual learning taking place was questionable. To alleviate the sheer number of presentations other instructors conducting a similar course had divided the classes into groups of 3 or 4 members. The common issue with this though was how to grade the division of work. It was usually unclear for the instructor as to what percentage each student had contributed toward the overall project. Assigning accurate and appropriate grades was unreliable. The needs met by wikis—easy authoring of Web content, open access, unrestricted collaboration—are simply not being satisfied by present IT strategies and tools (Lamb, 2004)

Wikis

While many new technologies have emerged throughout history, so has the cry for educators to find meaningful ways to incorporate these technologies into the classroom – be it the typewriter, the television, the calculator, or the computer (Klopfer, Osterweil, Groff, & Haas, 2009). Among the innovative computer technologies that may be beneficiary to English writing, Wiki technology is particularly important (Lin & Yang, 2011). The author Hall (2006) describes a wiki as “a collaboration of Web pages that can be easily viewed and modified by anyone, providing a means for sharing learning and collaboration” (p.13). There are numerous Web 2.0 tools for educational use and benefit. These tools afford the added advantage of reducing the technical skill required to use their features, allowing users to focus on the information exchange and collaborative tasks themselves without the distraction of a difficult technological environment (Kirkpatrick, 2006). Such 'transparent technologies' (Wheeler, Kelly, & Gale, 2005) let the user concentrate more on the learning task by 'seeing through' the technology with which they are interacting. Many students now “come to campus to learn about and learn with technology (Green 2000).

Wikis are one of the new learning technologies that have started to gain scholarly attention (Liu, & Lei, 2009). This was the rationale for the introduction of wikis into the Travel English course. This approach was not without risk though. The instructor, himself had only been exposed to wikis a semester before through an Education Technology Masters degree that he was currently pursuing. His believe in the use of wikis was through his own experience successfully fulfilling course requirements for his MA course. Composing wiki pages and discovering its expanded opportunities and options over that of PowerPoint had proven to show educational possibilities. Wikis offered a greater opportunity for the input of mass media such as music wmp files, pictures, and YouTube or other type videos. The use of wikis the instructor found had been as easy as using e-mail; a function that Japanese university students all were thoroughly familiar with.

This ease of use had also been confirmed earlier by other university students who were part of a research project into the incorporation of Web 2.0 technologies into university courses at Lipscomb University, a small school in Nashville, TN. There an instructor had utilized wikis in his courses for current teachers and future teachers in training, all with limited Web 2.0 technology experience. An end-of-course survey revealed that students felt that wikis were easy to use and approximately half the students felt that they planned to use wiki in their first teaching position (Thorntwaite, 2009). Web 2.0 technologies will serve to expand the learning opportunities for the traditional classrooms (Anzai, 2009)

Duffy and Burns (2006) list several viable uses for wikis in educational settings two of these which are pertinent to the Travel English course are:

1. Students can use a wiki to develop research projects, with the wiki serving as ongoing documentation of their work.
2. A wiki can be used as a presentation tool in place of conventional software, and students are able to directly comment on and revise the presentation content.

Schwartz, Clark, Cossarin, & Rudolph, (2004) point out that project-based learning is fairly common in various fields including music and languages. Projects play a large role in the context of educational environments because the project method is seen as a way to reach education goals. Wikis represent a very effective tool for project planning and documentation (Schaffert, Bischof, Buerger, Gruber, Hilzensauer, & Schaffert, 2006). Learning is enhanced through the user friendliness of wikis (Raitman, Augar, & Zhou, 2005).

Translation Software

In addition to the introduction of using wikis there was the inhabitation of the non-English majors to use English web search tools in their investigation of their assigned countries. When English search engines were utilized it was more of a get in and get out assault. They would enter a page through Yahoo or Google; copy the assumed English that they needed. Then dash out and throw the English word or phrase into translation software and try to decipher the Japanese meaning. If their completed translation was vaguely close to what they wanted, the students would then paste it to a PowerPoint slide. This in turn produced counterproductive results of the original intent of the course itself. That was to acquire and understand some Basic English with emphasis on travelling or working abroad.

To get the students to understand the complexity and erroneousness of just copying and pasting language bites in to translation software, the author asked the students to try a variety of different software and check for translation accuracy. This offered some humorous results but it did manage to convey a point. From that time on the instructor made it an aim to present useful words and phrases at the beginning of each lesson. This ever expanding vocabulary might in turn assist the students in presenting their research. Moreover this would be in accordance with the fundamental outline of the course. Additionally, as each lesson progressed the instructor went around and gave guidance to each student to confirm that they were on the correct path and timeframe for their presentations. Ultimately, it was also the realization that since the learners possessed such limited English ability that the students should rely on their previous knowledge of English from their senior and junior high school English classes. In the end the students were advised to follow the acronym KISS to “keep it simple students”. Translation software has yet been able to catch up with 100% accurate translating expectations by users. It may be a while before it can be fully utilized as a quick fix for language learners.

Motivating Factors

The author Anzai (2009) explains that;

Given the ease of use as well as the potential for powerful learning and collaboration every student should be comfortable using wikis for learning. With the power to collaborate, share, and negotiate ideas, a wiki should not be taken lightly. Another important factor that teachers should keep in mind is that in Wikispaces, all the instructions on the web pages are in written in

English. Consequently, EFL students will most likely need to at least some help and support from the teacher.

Stimulus to come to class and engage in actively pursuing the completion of the assignments for the course had also been an area of contention for other instructors of the same course at the authors university. IT familiarity was not an issue. Regarding the general use and application of computers, Higgins (2003) notes that:

One important factor in why pupils' attainment improves when using ICT is because they spend more time working at or practising the skills being studied and tested. Many pupils enjoy using computers and one benefit of computers may also be the combination of such motivation and the increased practice at particular tasks. Computers can therefore help by increasing the amount of time pupils spend on particular activities, by increasing pupils' motivation and engagement when doing these activities and by providing practice at an appropriate level.

Although current data has only been collected since April 2011, when the Travel English course began, attendance for a majority of the students in the author's course has been at or near 100%. In this brief retrospect the use of more advanced ICTs over that of PowerPoint has shown a strong positive effect.

The overall objective of using wikis therefore was to have students on an individual basis interacting with Web 2.0 technology. It is only in the last five to seven years that various Web 2.0 social technologies have begun to be included in the curricula of higher education courses (Thompson & Absalom, 2011). Developed as an easy-to-use and fast collaborative writing tool for publishing online content, the use of wiki applications in higher education is increasing (Liu, Kalk, Kinney, & Orr, 2010) With this new tool they could explore, research and present information on a given country. These presentations through wikis would allow for a broader range of material to be cited over a greater field of mediums (type, audio and video files). University students are interested in music; videos and a great majority have a working knowledge of You Tube. The instructor hoped that these interests could be channelled into the presentations. Hopefully adding an element of individuality and responsibility would heighten enthusiasm for the overall course. This approach was actually counter to how wikis had most commonly been utilized; through that of wikis as a collaboration tool (Matthew, Felvegi, & Callaway, 2009, Astall, Cowan, & Clelland, 2010).

Conclusion

The rapid development of information and communication technologies (ICTs) has initiated a multitude of changes in how we live our day-to-day lives and schooling around the world (Ge, & Ruan, 2011). With the increasing popularity of Web 2.0 tools, it only follows that these technologies are adapted to our foreign language classroom practices (Ducate, Anderson, & Moreno, 2011) Wikis have been widely used and herald as tools for collaboration; most specially in writing courses and group work classes. This use of a wikis is a Western idea (Wang, 2004, Chen Hsu, & Caropreso, 2005, Aoki, 2008) in response to the individualism that is fostered among Western cultures. For Asian cultures where group cohesiveness is a daily part of life since an early age the opposite can be true. Japanese students especially are tutored all through their early school life on the importance and harmonious attributes of group think. As Japanese students reach adulthood and more independent thought is required

on their part the adjustment for young adults can be arduous. Wikis used as a tool for independent thought rather than collaboration can support them (Lanham, Augar, & Zhou, 2005).

As globalization becomes intertwined in the lives of more and more citizens of the planet the ability to work independently or in a group is a fundamental characteristic that is needed. Now we can interact, participate, and collaborate on the Web in “a planetary community” attached to a traditional class (Anzai, 2009).

Grant (2006) states that:

Changes in the developed world are leading to a move away from economies based solely on ‘traditional’ industries toward a new ‘knowledge economy’. Over the last 20 years there has been a vast amount of technological innovation, and this trend shows little sign of abating. Given this rate of change, the possibility of a stable career or a ‘job for life’ is becoming increasingly less likely. An increasingly important demand in a knowledge economy therefore is an ability to adapt to these changing circumstances. Therefore knowing how to learn and how to participate in creating new knowledge are increasingly essential life skills. The focus on skills of ‘learning to learn’² and knowledge creation in a knowledge economy mean that the use of wikis in education is starting to be recognised as having significant potential.

Through the use of information technologies such as wikis Japanese university students are able to exercise this vital skill. E-learning has become increasingly fruitful and lively (Anzai, 2009). The usage of wikis in this fashion may not be confined to a Japanese teaching environment but also where ever students may be tasked with individual writing assignments contrary to their cultural upbringing. Student involvement and ownership is the key. This leads to motivation and active participation. Collaborative writing can produce negative effects especially for those at a low level of confidence and achievement. Technical tools such as wikis, can add to the quantity and more importantly, quality to the acquisition and development of the language. This may have not been the original idea behind the contrivance and evolution of wikis but it does show their versatility.

Individualism can be a new and taunting task for Japanese students used to group work and cohesive projects from earlier school days. For those in a language class, the burden of course work along with language learning can be arduous. Wikis have proven to solve technological shortcomings found with PowerPoint presentations as well as motivational deficiencies. Their ease of use and flexibility toward course work adaptation offers potential for lecturers and learners alike. Although not a new technology their maximum functionality in course work has yet to be realized.

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Cross-cultural Communication and Education for International Understanding through English Immersion Camp (EIC)

Deta Dewi Sidalt, Katsuhiko Muto, Masafumi Kikuta, Mika Adachi, Tatsuji Shinohara

0165

Kumon Institute of Education, Japan

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Abstract:

Generally speaking, most Japanese learners of English have a stereotyped view that they should learn to use flawless English like native speakers do or pick up a British or American accent. With the perspectives of “World Englishes” (e.g., Kachru, 1992) in mind, however, we would have to say that the predominant view should be altered to eliminate bias against other varieties of English.

Applied to English in elementary school, the idea means that if more non-native speakers with various backgrounds were involved in teaching, children could focus rather on the importance of English as a communication tool than on studying it as a school subject.

In order to challenge the educational status quo, we audaciously launched a short-term English program, Kumon English Immersion Camp (EIC), in 2001 with instructors from 17 different countries and 30 elementary school students aged 10 to 12. Held annually or twice-yearly, the program has improved to a great extent over the past 11 years, providing fruitful learning experience for 1,483 children and 251 instructors from 62 countries or regions around the world.

In this presentation, with a focus on what we have obtained from the program, we will talk about how effectively a short-term English camp allows children to have successful communication with the use of English, and to realize the importance of understanding each other in a communal life. Furthermore, based on the data we gathered, we would like to make suggestions to the International Understanding Education currently implemented in elementary schools in Japan.

1. BACKGROUND

1.1 World Englishes and Japanese People's Preconception of English

English has spread and is spoken globally by more and more people each year. According to Crystal (2003) the number of non-native English speakers overwhelmingly outnumbers the native speakers by a ratio of 3 to 1. This means that nowadays, English is playing a crucial role as a lingua franca of the world, and the global diaspora of English has inevitably led to the development of new English varieties, influenced by different cultural backgrounds and identities.

The use of English has spread in many countries and regions throughout the world, including Japan. The period after the Meiji Restoration in 1868 is marked as the ending of Japan's national isolation. It was the time when Japan started to embrace its diplomatic relations and foreign trade with western countries such as Britain and the United States of America. This new influence by foreign countries on Japan also marks the beginning of the Japanese government's emphasis on the importance of English education, which has continued for over 100 years. Despite acknowledging its importance, however, the topic of learning English from a young age has been argued about for years. For at least the last two decades, there have been debates in Japan regarding whether or not to make English a compulsory subject at public elementary schools. Finally, in April 2011, foreign language started being taught as an official subject at Japanese public primary schools.

Although it is compulsory for 5th and 6th graders at public elementary school to learn English, there has been serious concern regarding their low motivation to study it. Children have to understand that English is not just a subject to be studied at school, but also a communication tool for them to improve international understanding. Moreover, in spite of the vast spread of English across the globe and the emergence of World Englishes, most Japanese people still hold strong to the stereotype that they must speak English with an American or British accent. This belief has caused a vast majority of Japanese who study English to think that they dare not try to use English unless they are able to speak flawlessly and with an accent accepted to be the correct one. How can we change these all too prevalent, crippling misconceptions?

1.2 Ways to Change the Stereotype of English in Japan

One of the ways to alter this stereotype is to raise people's awareness of World Englishes. English is used globally and influenced by multicultural backgrounds in different regions of the world. As was argued by Smith and Kachru that neither British nor American English can be used as a standard (Alatis, 2005: 32), it is not necessary that Japanese people imitate either of the two accents. It is essential, however, to acknowledge that there are a vast number of people on earth who communicate in English effectively, albeit with different accents. Pressure to use the "right" accent can produce fear and anxiety in English language learners, hindering language acquisition and communication effectiveness. It thereby ought to be eliminated.

Another means of eradicating the American/British English stereotype is to promote international understanding in schools. In order for children to understand the importance of English, it is necessary to increase their awareness and knowledge about the world. Focus on teaching subjects such as geography, history, and foreign language will help to create such awareness. For children to become internationally minded, certain attitudes, such as accepting and respecting cultural differences and the importance of contributing to society, must be fostered. So what is the best way to cultivate these attitudes? One of the strongest influences on a student is the teacher or instructor. In order to develop international understanding, schools should systematically take advantage of the multiculturalism in this world. One way of doing this is to utilize English teachers or instructors that are not necessarily native speakers of English, or ones with different cultural backgrounds.

2. KUMON ENGLISH IMMERSION CAMP: An Effort for the Future

2.1 The Beginning of KUMON English Immersion Camp (EIC)

English has undoubtedly become an essential tool of communication across the globe. Years ago, Japan began to fear that it would be left behind in the world's progress, and the country became overwhelmed by a sense of crisis. In 2001, Mr. Yoichi Funabashi, the writer of "Aete Eigo Kouyogo-ron" and a columnist for Asahi Shimbun, suggested the concept of an English immersion camp to the Kumon Institute of Education, which was the inception of Kumon English Immersion Camp. Thanks to tremendous support of Mr. Morihiko Hiramatsu, former governor of Oita prefecture, Mr. Kazuichi Sakamoto, former president of Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University, and its staff and students, Professor Kensaku Yoshida and his students of Sophia

University, and Ms. Reiko Kinoshita, an international journalist, the English Immersion Camp was born as the first long-term English immersion camp ever held in Japan.

The objectives of Kumon English Immersion Camp (EIC) are as follows:

- To allow children to experience successful communication, using English as a global language.
- To allow children to share a communal lifestyle with people from different countries and regions, learning about their cultures and ways of thinking, and realizing the importance of understanding each other as members of the global community.
- To allow children to have confidence and the strength to actively challenge the unfamiliar, in addition to heightening the will to apply effort to strive for higher goals.

2.2 Introducing Kumon English Immersion Camp

Kumon English Immersion Camp (EIC) started in 2001, aiming to create individuals who can make a contribution to world peace by using their abilities to communicate in English. In the camp, 4th, 5th and 6th graders who have passed Eiken (STEP) 4th Grade or above, or those studying English with Kumon level II or above, take on the challenge of spending approximately one week (period varies depending on the year) in an entirely English-speaking environment with people from different countries and backgrounds. By joining the camp, participants understand that English is spoken not only by native speakers but also by people whose mother tongues are not English. Moreover, they consider English an important tool both for communicating with people using different languages and also for understanding differences in cultures and respecting one another.

While gaining a global perspective and learning about current issues around the world, children become more confident and come to believe in their potential. They do this by taking on new challenges without the fear of making mistakes. A slogan frequently used in the Kumon English Immersion Camp is, “Don’t be afraid of making mistakes. Let’s try communicating in English”. The intention of these two phrases is to explain to our children how to prepare themselves for participation in the world of English. What is important is not for them to use English without making mistakes, but to use English without being *afraid* of making mistakes.

2.3 Diversity in the Camp

The camp also puts emphasis on embracing world diversity. Throughout the program, children are accompanied by camp leaders who come from all different countries and backgrounds. Almost all of them are non-native speakers of English. In fact, most of the camp leaders speak English as their second or third language. In other words, the program is saturated with World Englishes (Kachru, 1992). By having a chance to communicate with people from different cultural backgrounds, children can broaden their horizons and perceptions of the world, understand the importance of learning English, and raise their English communication confidence.

This camp also puts great effort into creating programs that focus on international understanding. Diversity, awareness, confidence, and understanding are some of the themes that we have for activities. Our cultural array of camp leaders contributes positively to the effectiveness of such activities. In one of these activities, “Travelling around the World,” camp leaders introduce their home countries in an interactive way. Since camp leaders come from all over the world, each presentation is unique. In another activity, “Cultural Understanding,” children watch a skit promoting multicultural understanding. Differences in greetings and ways of eating are a few examples of skit topics. These activities have an enormous impact on broadening the children’s view of the world and motivating them to learn more about it through the use of English language.

The following is an impression of the camp by a 6th grade participant:

English is very important. If I can speak English, there are so many things that I can learn about the world. Before, it was hard for me to accept cultures that are not similar to Japan. When I heard about that, I would think “it’s so weird!” or “I can’t believe it”. But in EIC, I realized that I am not alone, Japan is not the only country in this world! I felt that it is important to understand about people from different countries, and for that, I need to study English harder!

2.4 The Development of Kumon English Immersion Camp and the Children

Since it began in 2001, EIC has improved each year. Adjustments made include change in venue, time period, and activities, which are revised continuously.

Year	Days	Venue
2001	12	APU, Beppu
2002	14	Yokohama
2003	10	Yokohama
2004	10	Yokohama
2005	10	Yokohama
2006	10	Yokohama
2007	10	Yokohama
2008	10	Hachikogen
2009	7 (2x)	Yokohama & Hachikogen
2010	7 (3x)	Shiga
2011	7 (3x)	Shiga

Table 1: Annual Changes in Camp Place and Days of the Camp

As a result, the number of participants has increased every year. Number of countries represented also has increased and by 2011 had grown to 62.

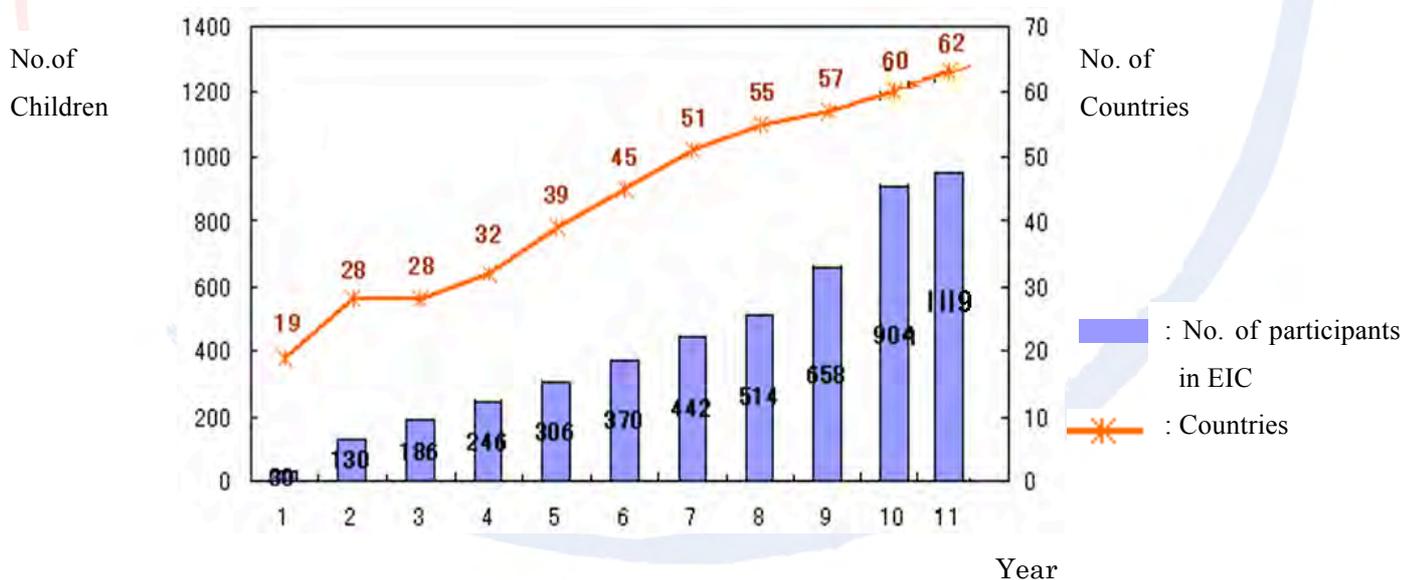


Figure 1: Yearly Growth of EIC Network (Number of People and Countries)

1. Ghana	20. Australia	39. Myanmar	58. Uganda
2. Hungary	21. Bangladesh	40. Nepal	59. USA
3. India	22. Belgium	41. New Zealand	60. Uzbekistan
4. Indonesia	23. Bolivia	42. Nigeria	61. Vietnam
5. Ireland	24. Botswana	43. Pakistan	62. Zimbabwe
6. Iran	25. Brazil	44. Peru	
7. Israel	26. Bulgaria	45. Philippines	
8. Jamaica	27. Cambodia	46. Poland	
9. Japan	28. Cameroon	47. Russia	
10. Kazakhstan	29. Canada	48. Romania	
11. Kenya	30. China	49. Samoa]	
12. Korea	31. Colombia	50. Singapore	
13. Lithuania	32. Czech	51. Sri Lanka	
14. Malawi	33. Egypt	52. Syria	
15. Malaysia	34. England	53 Taiwan	
16. Mali	35. Ecuador	54. Tanzania	
17. Malta	36. Ethiopia	55. Thailand	
18. Mexico	37. Finland	56. Tonga	
19. Mongolia	38. Germany	57. Trinidad and Tobago	

Table 2 EIC Network (Countries and Regions)

From the data above, it can be seen that the network of the Kumon English Immersion Camp has expanded throughout the years. Table 2 shows 62 home countries and regions of camp leaders. From this table, it is obvious that not all the camp leaders are from the “inner circle” (Kachru, 1992). Some are from the “outer circle,” and most are from the “expanding circle.”

2.5 The Growth of EIC Children

In the Kumon English Immersion Camp, we believe that every individual has unique potential. It is our goal to help maximize it. There are not many opportunities to use English in today’s Japan. Prior to camp, many children feel this way: *“Although I study English every day, I am not sure whether or not I am actually able to use English and make people understand me. Still, I want to give it a try”*. However, once the camp starts, children enjoy the daily communication, saying, *“Everyone is kind to me and is*

eagerly listening to my English. Because camp leaders repeatedly talk to me in an understandable way, I have gradually gained confidence.”

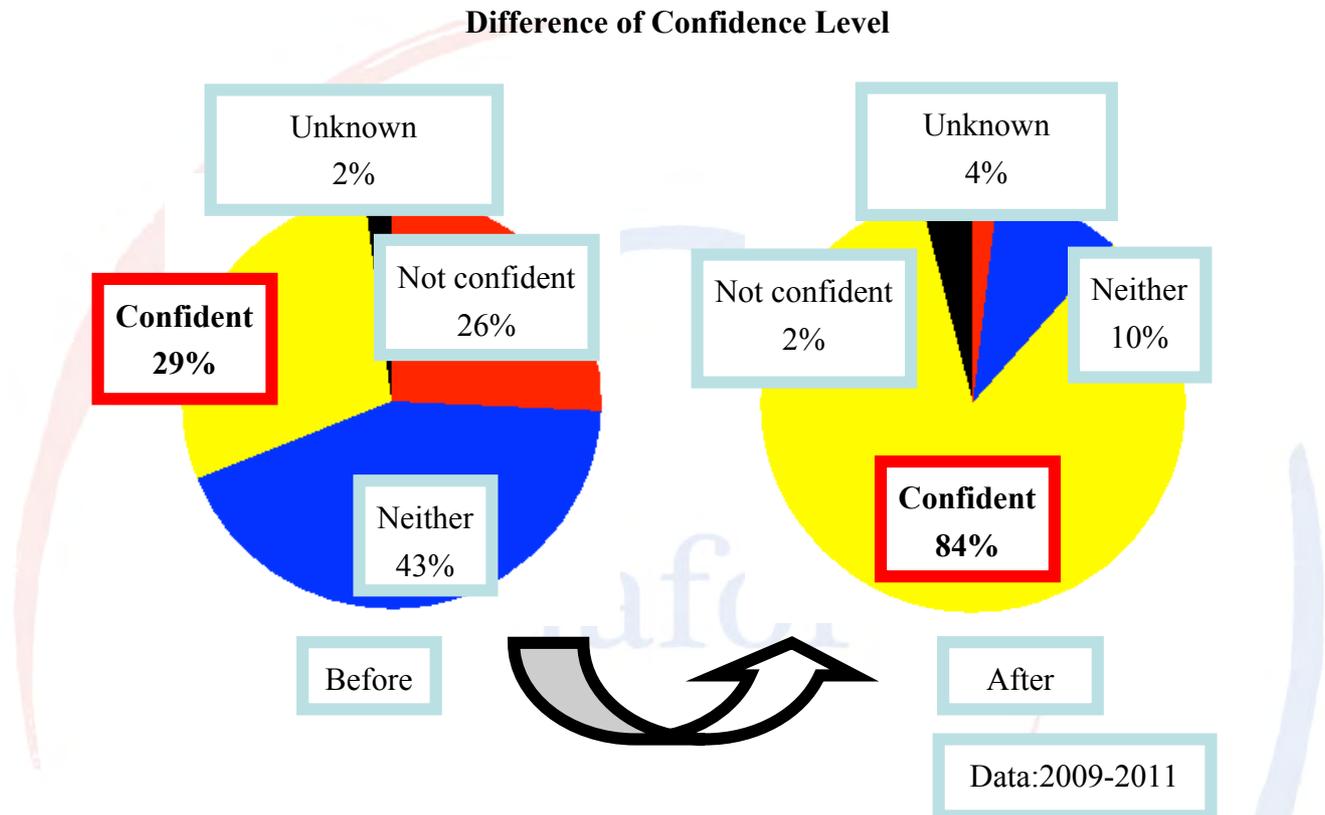


Figure 2: Confidence Level in Using and Speaking in English Before and After the Camp

From Figure 2, we can see that there is a big difference in the confidence level of the children before and after the camp. With camp leaders and staff coming from different nationalities and backgrounds, as well as the camp slogan, “Don’t be afraid of making mistakes. Let’s try communicating in English,” children are able to grasp the real meaning of English as a communication tool and thereby gain confidence. Throughout the camp, not only the children who are able to become confident, but they are also able to learn about the reality of the world, including acknowledging the importance of taking action to contribute to solving world problems.

Below is an example of an impression written by a 6th grader who participated in Kumon English Immersion Camp:

"Before I join EIC, I was really excited about it but I did not have confidence in communicating in English and writing skills. But soon all my worries were gone. And I was able to have a communication with camp leaders. While talking to the camp leaders, there were English words which I could not understand too, but by doing gesture, we were able to communicate. In EIC, I realized that if I use English I can communicate with camp leader who came from different countries From now on I want to work even harder in English and communicate even more to many people.

Through EIC, besides English, I was able to learn about environment problem and unprivileged children too. The eco-bag that we made and also the chopstick that we got in EIC, I am thinking of using them. I was sad to know that in this world there are children who cannot drink clean water and also children who were forced to go to war. Therefore I will do the things that I can do. I will continue to collect bottle caps, like we did in the camp, and help to get vaccine in return. I will treat seriously the importance of water and try not to have likes and dislikes.

Up until now I want to be announcer but after joining EIC, I have additional dream. I also want to work in the international related field. It was an enjoyable and valuable experienced of 7 days in EIC. The things I felt and experienced in EIC I want to treasure it from now on. Also from now on I will try even harder in English.

3. CONCLUSION AND FUTURE HOPES

3.1 Conclusion

Most Japanese people have a misconception that English should be spoken flawlessly, which is one of the major influences in their lack of confidence to speak or use English. In order to help Japanese people, especially the young generation, to be strongly motivated to learn English, as well as to have more confidence in using it, it is essential that they become aware of and acknowledge the spread of English throughout the world and the fact that new varieties of English are ever-emerging. They have to understand that English is not just a subject to be studied at school, but more importantly, a global tool for communication.

In order to acquire a true understanding of these crucial points, it is important to be exposed to real examples of English used by people of different countries, not only by those for whom it's their mother tongue. This exposure can be achieved through the instruction of students by multicultural and international teachers. Also, it is important for the children to understand that it is acceptable to speak English using accents of

many varieties. In the Kumon English Immersion Camp, the children have proven that one can acquire the ability to use English as a communication tool as long as there is a place for them to use the language comfortably, which contributes enormously to their motivation for learning.

3.2 Future Hopes

In the future, we are hoping that Japanese schools, especially elementary schools, will emphasize the importance of international understanding in English education. Utilizing English teachers or instructors from different nationalities and backgrounds will help to promote international understanding among the students.

Kumon English Immersion Camp hopes to be able to contribute more to children's education, especially English and international understanding. We are hoping to broaden our network and cooperate with schools or organizations in working toward the betterment of our children and future.

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The logo for the International Association for Applied Linguistics (iafor) is centered on the page. It consists of the lowercase letters 'iafor' in a light blue, sans-serif font. The text is enclosed within a large, light blue circular graphic that is composed of several overlapping, semi-transparent arcs, creating a sense of motion or a stylized globe. The background of the page is white, and the overall design is clean and professional.

*A Language without a Culture?; Examining the Limitations of Learning and Using English as
Language of Instruction in an Exclusive and Closed Culture*

Ebere Asinobi-Iroadu

0172

Abu Dhabi University, United Arab Emirates

The Asian Conference on Language Learning 2012

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Abstract:

Undoubtedly, English has become one of the languages spoken by so many people in the world. It is the mother-tongue for many countries. According to a report in Wikipedia 2010, about 375 million people speak English as their first language, and more than 470 billion speak it as a second language. It is considered the main language of world economics, trade, commerce and technology. One of the reasons for the expansion of English was the colonizing influence of Great Britain which left a legacy of the use of the language in many ex-colonies or independent nations as language of formal education. Some of the independent nations would later adopt English as language of unity in the midst of a cacophony of ethnic voices within their new nations. But in many countries monolingual countries with monolingual regional languages like many Arab nations, English did not gain much ground. However, the need to join the global economy has made learning and using English in such countries imperative. Thus English has been introduced for formal education at some levels while trying to avoid perceived contaminating influence of the culture of the language. This paper examines the difficulties and limitations of learning and using English in United Arab Emirates; a country that strives to keep their culture and people intact and uncontaminated with exposure to western values while at the same time intensifying the race to globalization in education, technology and commerce.

Keywords: Language, culture, monolingual, education, values, commerce and globalization.

Introduction: Undoubtedly, English is one of the languages spoken by so many people in the world. It is the mother-tongue for many countries. According to a report in Wikipedia 2010, about 375 million people speak English as their first language, and more than 470 million speak it as a second language. It is considered the main language of world economics, trade, commerce and technology. The colonizing influence of Great Britain contributed a lot to legacy of the use of the language in many ex-colonies or independent nations. The growing influence of America with her technological prowess that pioneered the computer and internet all carriers of the English language has contributed immensely to the expansion of English as Karen Asenavage (2003) aptly notes, “English has become the lingua franca, primarily due to the availability of the Wide World Web. Communication in English now crosses international, political, cultural and linguistic boundaries at lightening speed...” For the first reason, some of the independent nations would later adopt English as an official or formal language of unity amidst of a cacophony of ethnic voices. But in many countries with monolingual regional languages like most Arab nations English did not gain much ground. However, the need to embrace globalization has made learning and using English in such countries imperative. Thus English has been introduced for formal education at some levels while deftly trying to avoid the perceived contaminating influence of the culture of the language.

The demographics of the United Arab Emirates (UAE) show a very high rate of expatriate population, 88%-90% (DAVID ROSENBERG, 2011). Westerners form a substantial part of this population. There is also a large concentration of citizens of other Arab nations. People from the Asian continent (especially India and the Philippines and to a lesser degree, other South East Asian nationals) are also visibly present in the country. The rest of the population is made up of a sprinkling of North and Sub Saharan Africans. The common language of communication amongst all these people from different nationalities all over the world is primarily English. English has more advantage when compared to any other language because most of the non native speakers of English come from countries colonized by the British who have either adopted the language as an official, formal, or second language respectively. Thus such nationals have a good background in English even before they come to the United Arab Emirates. The UAE attracts a large number of tourists most of whom use the English language as medium of communication. The government is also determined to empower the nationals with the language so that they can succeed in the ‘emiritization’ project aimed at empowering the nationals to fill all the important positions not only in government but also in industry and business. It would be difficult to achieve these goals without competence in the almost global language, English.

English language has become top priority to the UAE government. The government spends huge revenue to hire English Language teachers. But for the teachers, teaching reading and writing in English is arguably a challenge in the Gulf region. This difficulty exists due to this relatively late introduction and emphasis on the use of English as a language of instruction and governance within the region. Many students come into the university with very limited knowledge of the language especially if

they had received instructions in Arabic in their early and high school years. Many universities offer courses only in English for business or specific purposes thereby creating the impression that English is not very important in the daily activities of the students even after graduation. Even when a university offers courses in English or Literature in English as majors, it often has limited selection of texts. Even with the limited number of texts, teachers are often left with the dilemma of reading, summarizing and critiquing the texts while students remain passive recipients of such method of instruction. The question of how to get students involved in reading and criticizing literary works in order to develop and critical thinking skills thus becomes crucial for a teacher who intends to achieve the course goals.

Relevance of the Study: This study is relevant at this time especially as the United Arab Emirates is spending huge sums of money to recruit English language teachers that would hopefully assist them to achieve the desired goals of being a truly bilingual country. Beyond the financial involvement for government, individuals are also investing large sums of money in hiring private English tutors for their children. Moreover, many of the universities spend large sums of money to establish English Language remedial and help centers (conversation, reading and writing centers) for students. However, in spite of these efforts, learning the English language still remain a great challenge to students in both high schools and tertiary institutions in the United Arab Emirates. Investigating the relationship between cultural nationalism, and non receptiveness or intermingling with other nationalities as a possible key factor for poor English skills is apt at this time.. Beyond exposing the limitations posed by cultural nationalism, the study discusses some mixed methods that could assist teachers of the language in selecting the appropriate resources for instruction..Ultimately, it is hoped that the nation will realize that culture is dynamic and that exposing their nationals to relationships with other people especially those who speak would improve their English language skills..

Theoretical Framework: Many theories have tried to explain the best practices in teaching second or foreign language to non native speakers. Some theories have also tried to explain the relationship between motivation and language learning as well as the need for learners to be active partners in constructing knowledge instead of mere passive listeners to instructions. Among these theories some of the learner centered theories include (1) Constructivism and (2) Motivation theories. Constructivism posits that teaching should hold learners accountable to constructing knowledge instead of being mere recipients from others: ‘It is a process which is social rather than individual and is a communicative process, whereby knowledge is shared and understandings are constructed in culturally-formed setting’ (Maybin, 1993 quoted in Asenavage 2003). Asenavage (2003) citing D.C. Philips identifies three different types of learner roles:

1. Active, engaging in learning, not passive
2. Social, learning with others and sharing knowledge
3. Creative, constructing and reconstructing knowledge for deeper understanding.

Motivation can be defined as "...the extent to which you make choices about (a) goals to pursue and (b) the effort you will devote to that pursuit" (Brown, 1994: 34). Theorists have identified different types of motivation (depending on which theorist you have read) including intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. What motivates a learner of a second language? Gardner and Lambert (1972) quoted in Ramona Tang (1999) identified two major levels of motivation for second or foreign language learners, "learners may have two basic kinds of motivation. The first type is integrative motivation, which refers to the desire of language learners to acquire the language while immersing themselves into the whole culture of the language, in order to "identify themselves with and become part of that society" (Brown 1994: 154). The second type is instrumental motivation, which refers to the functional need for learners to acquire the language in order to serve some utilitarian purpose, such as securing a job, or a place at a university." Many students in the UAE fit into the latter group. do not desire to develop any affinities or relationships with other users of the language. This has resulted in the very narrow view of English as just a classroom subject like math or economics without acknowledging that competence in English is essential to understanding the other school subjects all of which are taught in English.

2. Methodology

Research Question: The study will attempt to answer the following research questions.

- (1) Do beliefs and attitudes towards a particular linguistic and cultural group affect the learning of that group's language?
- (2) Can a second or foreign language learner's culture affect his or her perception of the target language users and the ability to achieve competence in the language?
- (3) Are there other possible ways of exposing the second or foreign language learner to contact with not only native speakers of the target language and possibly other users without compromising his or her basic and different values?

Research Design: This study is an action research in the sense that it is carried out with students enrolled in two literature courses, one grammar course, one phonetics course and one writing course (five English courses). The study has been on-going simultaneously with the courses over a period of four semesters. The researcher has taught these students for over a period of four semesters as they move from the lower level pre-requisite English courses to the higher level courses. She has also monitored and mapped their progress with some of the interventionist methods introduced and implemented in the course of teaching the research. The finding at each stage of the study is being used to improve instructional methods that sharpen students' skills in a bid to achieve desired learning outcomes and objectives of the course.

The sample: The sample for the study is limited to female students because of the peculiar situation where only female students are enrolled in English and Literature courses as majors in the institution where this study was carried out.

Data Collection Method: The data was collected using mixed qualitative methods that included classroom observation, focus group discussions, pre-test and post-test writing tests, analysis of samples of short stories and structured interview questions). The research focused on the use of qualitative methods rather than quantitative methods because the study sought to capture the ‘gut’ feelings of the participants especially as “Qualitative research is used to gain insight into people's attitudes, behaviours, value systems, concerns, motivations, aspirations, culture or lifestyles...” (<http://www.qsrinternational.com/what-is-qualitative-research.aspx>). The real attitudes of participants will be revealed if they are given opportunities to express themselves (especially with mixed methods of data collection) and not simply being asked to tick either yes or no which quantitative methods tend to do.

Data Analysis Method: The focus coding method will be used to group the data gathered from the participants into sub-sections for analysis. This model is useful for classifying recurring ideas in the different participants’ responses. Thus it focuses on major themes that run through the data gathered from participants while eliminating redundancies and repetitions (Bogdan and Biklen, 1998). The real words of some of the participants will be included in the discussion of the findings.

Literature Review: Some studies have emphasized the relationship between communication, language and culture on the one hand and, second or foreign language competence and the target language culture on the other. For instance, Samovar, Porter, & Jain (1981: 24) quoted in Dimitrios Thanasoulas (2001) postulate that, “Culture and communication are inseparable because culture not only dictates who talks to whom, about what, and how the communication proceeds, it also helps to determine how people encode messages, the meanings they have for messages, and the conditions and circumstances under which various messages may or may not be sent, noticed, or interpreted... Culture...is the foundation of communication.” The centrality of language in this observation is obvious as language is the major vehicle for communicating culture. Duranti (1997) quoted in Dimitrios Thanasoulas (2001) also insightfully notes how language functions as an agent to connect people from the same culture as well as other cultures, [w]ords carry in them a myriad possibilities for connecting us to other human beings, other situations, events, acts, beliefs, feelings...The indexicality of language is thus part of the constitution of any act of speaking as an act of participation in a community of language users”

However, learning a foreign or second language involves more skills than just learning the grammar and vocabulary. There are other nuances embedded in the language that the learner must be acquainted with in order to acquire competence in the target language. Dimitrios Thanasoulas (2001) points out these nuances “To learn a foreign language is not merely to learn how to communicate but also to discover how much leeway the target language allows learners to manipulate grammatical forms, sounds, and meanings, and to reflect upon, or even flout, socially accepted

norms at work both in their own or the target culture.” He finally posits that learners need to know the nuances of the non verbal communication markers in the target language in order to avoid miscommunication, “Alongside linguistic knowledge, students should also familiarise themselves with various forms of non-verbal communication, such as gesture and facial expressions, typical in the target culture. More specifically, learners should be cognisant of the fact that such seemingly universal signals as gestures and facial expressions—as well as emotions—are actually cultural phenomena, and may as often as not lead to miscommunication and erroneous assumptions (see Wierzbicka, 1999).”

Lambert Wallace (1973) has noted that the attitude and beliefs about a particular culture can affect the learning of their language. In his research on culture and language as factors affecting learning and education he identifies family and school socialization as the first point of discrimination between one’s own group and others, “Thus education within the family and within the school typically contributes to a belief that one’s own national or cultural group is special, and this is done with the best of aims, i. e., socializing the child, or preparing him to take on constructive roles in his own community and society.” However, these ingrained attitudes tend to remain with that individual as they grow up even in the face of overwhelming evidence to the contrary. Ramona Tang (1999) also advocates a methodology of teaching foreign or second language through immersion in the target language culture. He sees no real demarcation between language and culture since both are like Siamese twins.

Procedure: As earlier pointed out, this research has been ongoing for a period of two years (since 2010). The methods used to collect data for this study includes a variety of mixed methods; observation, focus group discussion with students, pre-writing and post-writing tests, and structured survey/interview questions. The participants are students enrolled in five English Language courses. The first phase in the study was observation method. Kelley Fast (2009) has identified two approaches to classroom observation; observations for evaluation and observations for development. Explaining the differences between the two, she goes on to describe the former as prescriptive and judgmental while the latter is descriptive and suggestive. The researcher’s purpose for the observation was to develop better English language skills. The researcher observed the students for over a period of five days in the first week of teaching and recorded the observations after each class. The analysis of the observation at the end of the week shows a group of college students who could neither read, write, speak nor fully understand instruction in English. Most of the students would keep quiet in the class and would rather say they understood everything taught than ask any questions often with ‘spokesperson’ who could speak some English and who would normally pass on their ideas expressed in Arabic to the instructor.

The second phase was a focus discussion group with the students about impediments to their learning and using English. A number of possible factors that impede their proficiency in the language were identified. Principal among the factors is the closure

to other cultures especially the western culture which is perceived to have corrupting influence.

The third phase was to isolate some students who were willing to participate in the study to locate factors and ways of improving their English proficiency level. The students who did not want to participate in the study were tagged the control group because they were much fewer than the participating group. The researcher was aware of the need for ethical standards in the study and did not coerce any student to participate. It was also important to reiterate the fact that participation would not attract any rewards in terms of direct awarding of marks. However, the rewards could come by way of more proficiency in all aspects of the language which would invariably translate to better performance in tests and better grades. All those who accepted to participate got a signed consent from their parents or guardians.

A pre-test was conducted on the participating group to know their levels at the beginning of the study and to be able to measure their improvement after the intervention. This test involved the use of some semi-structured interview questions in which the students were asked to respond to by writing out their comments. This method was used in order to gauge their writing skills and ability at this entry level.

The Intervention: The participating group was given medium level short novels written in standard English to read, asked to listen to BBC, CNN and Al Jazeera news in English, read Newspapers written in English, to watch some educational movies (mostly movies acted in English with British backgrounds and other Speakers of English as a second or foreign language) especially those that showcase ordinary people in their everyday activities at home, at work, at play or leisure, at social events etc. The aim of using these movies is to showcase the contexts in which people use different expressions, nuances, tone and tenor of the language. Another reason is also to assist the students to learn the culture behind the language, the colloquialisms and the things left unsaid. This exposure was particularly useful because from the focus discussion and the pre-tests as well as observation, the researcher noticed that the students do not interact with foreigners be they native English speakers or others who either speak English as a second language or a foreign language. The researcher met with the participating students weekly to check on their progress with the materials, to discuss some cultural issues as well as allay the fears of the students that they are exposing themselves to too much western or foreign culture. However, most importantly the researcher discussed difficult words and expressions that the students had written out and showed examples of how these words could be used for expressing their own contexts and world view.

The fourth stage involved conducting a post-test on both the control group and the participating group. Again this test consisted of 10 semi-structured interview questions slightly similar to the ones used in the pre-test that required students not only to answer yes or no but also, to write comments on the reason for their choices. The participating students were also invited to write a three page imaginative story in English. This second component of the post-test was to check their ability to use the

English language to describe their own worlds in their own contexts. It also aimed to test their level of proficiency in grammar and vocabulary acquisition. The control group was also invited to write the same stories which they declined claiming they have not acquired the level of skills that could enable them write meaningfully in English.

Discussion: Analysis of the observation showed that many students enrolled in the English courses lack the proficiency to pursue studies in the language. They do not understand the very basic rules of English grammar even though some of them claimed to have attended high schools where English was used as the language of instruction. They do not understand much of the lessons taught in English. Even when they try to speak the language, they would hardly say more than two words in English without interjecting with Arabic words. Moreover, majority of the students would keep silent throughout the class period, even when they do not understand the lessons. They lacked the vocabulary to ask questions for clarifications.

During the focus discussion sessions, it was noted that much of the problem stemmed from the assumption that interacting in English especially with people from other nationalities outside of the United Arab Emirates could have a negative influence on the nationals. The issue of cultural and language nationalism which encourages the nationals to feel superior and advantaged over every other foreigner engendered a lack of socialization and exposure to avenues for learning and practicing the English language in a variety of contexts. This belief and assumption was so deeply entrenched that many of the students even refused to read novels written in English detailing the lives and worlds of other people. They read novels and newspapers written only in Arabic, watch movies in Arabic, and speak with their Arabic speaking teachers in Arabic both inside and outside the classrooms. Another issue that came to light during the discussions was that for some of the students, Arabic was the language of instruction in the primary and high schools while English was taught just like any other subject. They read the Arabic translations of whatever literature texts that were recommended in the syllabus. Even though some of the students claimed to have attended primary and high schools where English was the language of instruction in all the subjects, they still had assistant teachers (most often Arabic speakers) who practically taught the lessons in Arabic. The teachers at this level encouraged students to memorize materials in order to pass the English language exams. They were largely made to believe that they did not need English language skills especially as Arabic is used largely in the region. Thus learning in their formative years largely excluded the English language.

The findings of the pre-test show that although, admittedly, the students lack proficiency and rejected avenues for socializing with other users of English, be they native speakers or non native speakers (as a result of the closed and segregated nature of their culture) they were willing to interact with these people through the world of literature, movies and news items. As Valdes (1986: 137, cited in Dimitrios Thanasoulas) notes, “literature is a viable component of second language programs at

the appropriate level and...one of [its] major functions ...is to serve as a medium to transmit the culture of the people who speak the language in which it is written.”

The findings of the post-test show a significant shift from the cultural and language nationalism that attended the focus group discussion. This shift may have happened as the students discovered that they could improve their language proficiency and ultimately understand instructions in English if they could get more help. Moreover they are eager to enter the world of a global language which they have already caught a glimpse of via the internet and satellite technology.

It was noted that the participants found reading the novels difficult and had to struggle with a lot of the words which were new to them. However, they would write out the words and bring them to the weekly discussions. The researcher would explain the words and the appropriate contexts for using them and subsequently ask them to describe the contexts in their own daily activities where such words could be used. They were also fascinated by the conventions of the ordinary English people (in *Pride and Prejudice* for example) and got acquainted with the English language. Suhair Al Alami (2011) has noted that “the act of reading/listening is a process of exposure to other cultures. A literary text is a window to culture which immerses a reader into the world it depicts, surrounding him/her with its language and setting and involving him/her with its characters, theme, setting, plot, and so on.” The comments (unedited) of some of the participants attest to their interaction with other people, their culture and language through the texts they read:

“The stories were about people from a different time and region. They taught us about their beliefs and their relationship with each other. I learnt about the father-daughter and mother-son relationships and how they are different from the ones in our own culture.”

“It improve our language and make understand and also makes you imagine if such thing could actually happen in real life. It can be for entertainment and make your language stronger”

When we read the literature of a language, we are reading the language in its formal structure, if we are able to comprehend the literature, then it becomes much easier to understand the language it's used now. Literature helps us expand our vocabulary for the language and also informs us of their culture.

The language used in Literature is more complex than how it is used in the daily life. If we are able to understand the language in all its complexity then it automatically becomes much easier to understand the language in the daily life.

I get to know the culture and people in this society more, and I know way they do or choice their (the reasons behind) the action.

Suhair Tayem footnote to the story “*The Silent Killer*”

Thanks to Dr. Ebere because telling a story is a good way to reveal our sad memories and deep pain. This story is actually the story of my mother who died in October 10, 2009, after six years of suffering from breast cancer and then lung cancer and finally, brain cancer. I hope that God's mercy helped her to live peacefully, and we will continue loving and praying for her until the last day of our lives, because describing a mother's love is truly impossible and nothing can be like the love of mothers, it can be understood by those who experience it and when the mother passes away, sadness lingers in the souls, coldness surrounds the house, everyone feels lost, and safety starts infiltrating out. I'm sure that these are the real feelings felt by only those who lose their mothers.

Implications for Pedagogy: The findings of the study show clearly that it might be difficult to learn any language without interfacing with the culture of that language. The interfacing could be physical through a conscious effort to immerse oneself with the group by a deliberate effort at socializing or literary by reading books about the life and activities of people from the culture. In a closed culture like that of the United Arab Emirates, the physical association may not be possible however, due to the perceived corrupting influence of western culture. Nevertheless, such interaction could happen through exposure to literature and other audio-visual materials as well as relevant sites on the wide world web where students can be gradually introduced to the same culture. Moreover, when teachers select texts, they need to be sensitive not to select those that can shock the students by treating issues that are completely unacceptable in their culture. For this study, texts and short stories selected were about issues the students could identify with such as family relationships, sickness resilience and honor etc. These are values appreciated within the Arab and UAE culture. Thus the students were eager to know how these values were depicted in the culture of the target language. The students could identify with these content materials and felt emboldened to try telling fictionalized versions of their own life stories.

By reading and making notes and lists of difficult words, the students were able to improve their vocabulary and also learnt to express themselves with the ultimate result that they were able to write and critique some imaginative stories at some point in the study.

Conclusion: The researcher has learnt through this study that no set of language learners are “unteachable”, rather some of them simply need different ways to learn. It is the responsibility of teachers to discover and use these varied pedagogical methods as noted in the ethics of the teaching profession, “The educator strives to help each student realize his or her potential as a worthy and effective member of society. The educator therefore works to stimulate the spirit of inquiry, the acquisition of knowledge and understanding, and the thoughtful formulation of worthy goals” (NEA Code of Ethics, 1975)

Learners of a second or foreign language may not overcome embrace the culture of a new language. However,, teachers can draw the learners out and confront them with their own cultural limitations; to expose them to the dynamic nature of culture; to

encourage them to take a second or even a third look at their assumptions and finally to help them to learn enough of the target language in order to use it to describe their own worlds. Teachers must be sensitive to the biases that form students' attitude towards the acquisition of a new language and help them overcome them.

Limitation: The scope of this study is limited in that it was a study conducted in one university. Conducting a study that will involve a wider range of participants will yield results that could be generalized. Furthermore, a more extensive study could assist in knowing if these students are able to influence other students and their families to open up to other nationalities and cultures.

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Preservation and Loss of Elements of Native Language: Resettlement in Martinique
Mahadevi Ramakrishnan

0196

Colgate University, United States

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Abstract:

In Martinique's history, there have been three major waves of settlement, one being entirely voluntary (the French colonizers), one being entirely involuntary (the African slaves) and the other being "voluntary" under compelling circumstances (indentured workers from South India). These indentured workers, also known as *engagés* or *coolies*, hailed predominantly from the French enclaves of Pondicherry, Karaikal, Mahé and Chandernagore (mostly Tamil speaking regions). Tamil language for the purposes of day-to-day communication is practically extinct in Martinique today. However, there is evidence that diluted forms of certain Tamilian cultural and religious practices as well as gallicized last names are still alive in Martinique. They remain *le fil d'Ariane* (Ariadne's thread) that connects this group to their history and place of origin. What accounts for the loss and preservation of original languages and cultures during the process of resettlement? In the case of the Tamil indentured workers, two factors will be explored: the oppressive ecological conditions in India that lead to their emigration and their three-month arduous journey to Martinique.

Tamil, one of the oldest classical languages, spoken predominantly in South India, was brought to Martinique by the indentured workers or *coolies* in 1852. Today, after more than a century and a half, Tamil language for the purposes of day-to-day communication is practically extinct in Martinique. However, there is evidence that diluted forms of certain Tamilian cultural and religious practices, and the gallicized Tamilian last names, are still alive in Martinique. They remain *le fil d'Ariane* (Ariadne's thread) that connects them to their history and place of origin, thus, permanently altering the role of Tamil from a predominantly "spoken language" to a "declared language" (Golovko, 2005) and becoming a means of social and cultural identification for Martinicans of Indian descent. Not only does the literature on the subject support this supposition but stories candidly shared by local Martinican women of Indian descent at a market in St. Pierre during my recent visit to Martinique (March 2012) also reinforce this.

Unlike the French settlers, whose emigration to Martinique was mostly voluntary, or that of the slaves which was all involuntary, the *coolies'* emigration was voluntary under compelling circumstances. "Crossing the "black waters" (*kala pani*) was traditionally regarded as full of peril to the Hindu's soul" (Jayawardena, 1968, p. 428), and yet approximately 29,000 Indians boarded ships and left for Martinique as indentured workers between 1852-1883 (Desroches, 1996). In his book *How Language Works* (2007, p. 336), Crystal states, "A language dies when the last person who speaks it dies. Or perhaps it dies when the second-last person who speaks it dies, for then there is no one left to talk to". This quotation succinctly captures the last gasps of a dying language and probably accounts for the demise of spoken Tamil in Martinique.

What caused Tamil language to cascade into near extinction in Martinique, yet having left behind traces of original religious and cultural practices? This question will be addressed primarily through the examination of the oppressive ecological conditions in India that lead to the emigration of these Tamil indentured workers to Martinique. A brief review of some of the narratives of the challenges they faced during the three-month arduous journey to Martinique will also be conducted. These narratives signal their striving for the creation of a shared identity as a means of coping with their ambiguous and often harsh realities on the boat. The challenging group dynamics that followed between the former African slaves, the White French plantocracy and the indentured workers during the initial phase of their resettlement in Martinique is yet another significant contributor in the effacement and preservation of Tamil language and culture. Although the paradoxical role of these group dynamics is not in dispute, this segment is beyond the scope of the present discussion.

On April 27, 1848, the Emancipation Decree was signed in Paris abolishing slavery in Martinique. Although the signed piece of legislation would have physically arrived to be proclaimed in Martinique on June 3, the news of the Emancipation Decree had reached the shores of Martinique much sooner; the slaves and the *gens de couleur*, otherwise called the mulattos, could no longer wait patiently. Riots ensued, forcing local authorities to abolish slavery on the island on May 23 (History of slavery in Martinique, n.d.). The development and expansion of colonial economies in the Caribbean, especially the sugarcane industry, that had been so profitable for so many White colonists was severely shaken. It was undoubtedly considered the most dominant force in Martinique.

"L'Etre Immense...qui avait crée cette île (Confiant, 2004, p. 203)."

The All Mighty sugarcane had created this island (my translation).

However, following the abolition of slavery, a larger number of former slaves showed little inclination to work on the plantations and relocated to the cities seeking better employment. Those who remained on the plantations demanded better wages for their labor, property rights, and amelioration in their living conditions, among other things. This push for total freedom from the old plantation lifestyle created a significant labor shortage. The then Governor of Martinique, Auguste Napoléon Vaillant, described the situation as, “une des nécessités de l’époque (Thaniyayagam, 1968, section 2),” creating financial ruin for the White plantocracy and threatening the lucrative sugar cane industry to its core (Pillai, 2005).

One way to address the dire need for cheap labor was to saturate the market by importing it from outside of Martinique; the larger the labor pool and the fewer the available jobs, the less the plantation owners would pay the laborers. This simple, yet effective, concept of supply and demand was set in motion by the plantation owners!

Pour payer les salaires les plus bas possibles, on peut augmenter artificiellement la demande de travail. Plus il y a de candidats pour un emploi, plus l’employeur peut imposer un salaire bas. (Lecture by Gerry L’Etang, at the University of Antilles, March 22, 2012)

To pay the lowest wages possible, one can artificially increase the demand for work. The more workers there are for a job, the lower the wages an employer can pay (my translation).

Between 1841-47, Britain, the other major colonial power, had put in place the indentured worker model and had imported 25,000 Indians to Trinidad, Guyana, Jamaica, and Mauritius. The enormous success of this system helped maintain the profitable plantation economy of Britain. Thus the French chose to emulate their British colonial counterparts and set in motion the idea of seeking indentured workers to replace the former slaves on the sugarcane plantations in Martinique. A decree issued by Napoleon III in 1852 allowed for the recruitment of “foreigners” to work on the plantations (Desroches, 1996). Initially, approximately 9,500 indentured workers from Africa (Congo-Kinshasa, Sierra Leone, and Gabon) were brought in to work on the plantations, however, due to protests from abolitionists and Britain, who accused France of continuing a disguised form of slave trade, the importation of African indentured workers was halted (Desroches, 1996). Shortly after, the first vessel carrying Indian indentured workers or *coolies* arrived from the French enclaves of Pondicherry and Karaikal, Mahé and Chandernagore (mostly Tamil speaking regions). A much smaller percentage of indentured workers arrived later in Martinique from the regions of Uttar Pradesh and Bihar (under British rule).

Examining the ecological context and its adverse effects underlying the emigration of the *coolies* from India is where the history of this tremendous loss of their native language and culture begins. The circumstances under which they left India were neither conducive to nor supportive of maintaining their original ethnicity. Although taking the boat to cross the “dark waters” was

equivalent to selling your soul to the devil, “on vend son âme au diable” (Lecture by Gerry L’Etang at the University of Antilles, March 22, 2012), for thousands of Tamilians, this was an extremely appealing opportunity, and for many others, an exigent necessity. During this period of British colonial rule in India, as a direct result of administrative restructuring effectuated by British colonial policies, many rural village communities were experiencing economic hardships and social displacement (Carter & Torabully, 2002). Drought and famine were widespread, forcing very desperate people in the rural areas to leave their homes in search of food and better opportunities. The real fear of death from starvation has been metaphorically depicted in Confiant’s (2004) historical fiction, *La Panse du Chacal*, where the people fear being eaten alive and ending up in the bellies of jackals.

Il le fallait! Depuis que les Anglais avaient exproprié les fermiers de notre région et s’y étaient installés pour y planter le coton et seulement le coton, une faim terrible avait commencé à nous tarauder... Il fallait partir! (Confiant, 2004, p. 216)

It was necessary! Ever since the English had dispossessed the farmers of their land and took over to plant cotton and only cotton, an overwhelming hunger had begun to torment us... It was necessary to leave! (my translation).

The question of how well-informed this emigrant group was of the journey they were about to undertake is an important element to consider. It sheds light on the lack of preparedness and support for them that would ultimately lead to the loss of most of their language and culture. The desire to falsify and sensationalize the journey to and the life in the French Antilles for the indentured workers was dictated by three major factors:

1. the White plantation owners’ desperate need for cheap and plentiful manual labor in Martinique,
2. the greed of the Compagnie Générale Transatlantique (CGT), that was getting paid per adult recruit, being transported from India and landing alive in Martinique,
3. the greed of the “coyote” like *mestris* or intermediaries who like their bosses, the subagents, were compensated for each qualified *coolie* that they brought in (Jayawardena, 1968).

Unlike the institution of slavery, which was entirely involuntary, the indentured system, which was a bit more voluntary in nature, involved signing of a contract by the *coolies* in the presence of a Magistrate. In principle it was agreed that they would travel to work on the plantations for a stipulated amount of wages and time (usually between 3 & 5 years). At the end of their contract, as outlined in one of the clauses, they had the option of returning to India or to renew their contracts (Desroches, 1996). In addition, some special concessions were spelled out in their contracts to acknowledge and support certain important cultural celebrations to the Tamils such as the harvest festival of Pongal.

It was stipulated in the "*Contrat d'engagement de travail* " (1858) that every year at the end of the year, a four-day holiday shall be given in order that the "*Indien*" might celebrate the feast of Pongal (Thaniyayagam, 1968, section 4)

While this appeared to be a reasonable proposition on the surface, pertinent information regarding their journey and working conditions at the destination were presented to them by recruiters or *mestris*, who frequently used tawdry means and coerced the villagers or duped them into consenting to these contracts. The *engagés* (new hires) were unaware of the fact that indentured labor work was only a cut above the institution of slavery, although advertised as high paying and easy to do (Jayawardena, 1968, Thaniyayagam, 1968).

Tout ce que tu auras à faire là-bas, aux Amériques, ... ce sera d'étendre du sucre au soleil. Ce n'est pas un travail fatigant. D'ailleurs, tu seras logé, nourri, et payé, sans compter qu'au bout de cinq ans tu seras repatrié aux frais de la Compagnie des Indes (Confiant, 2004, p. 56).

All you would have to do in the Americas is to spread sugar in the sun. That is not tiring work. Besides, you will be lodged, fed and paid in addition to the fact that at the end of five years you will be repatriated at the expense of the Company.
(my translation)

Besides, most of the *coolies* hailed from rural villages in southern India, and the majority of them were illiterate, poor and belonged to the lower castes. They had little or no knowledge of French or geography to fully understand the implications of their contracts or the distance they were about to travel. And most importantly, due to the nature of the caste system, they lacked the resources and the social standing to question the authority of the *mestris* and the other French representatives in India. The *mestris* indubitably took advantage of this. Some workers were given the wrong impression that they were undertaking a very brief boat ride to the Coromandel Coast (South-Eastern Coastline of India).

Le *mestri* nous a montré les Amériques sur une carte, rappelle-toi, Anandam! Un simple bras de mer sépare la côte de Coromandel de ces îles enchantées, ce qui nous revient, nous a-t-il assuré, à quatre ou cinq heures de bateau (Confiant, 2004, p. 58).

Do you recall, Anandam, the *Mestri* pointed out the Americas on a map for us! A simple channel separates the Coromandel coast from these enchanted islands which we can reach in four or five hours by boat, he assured us (my translation).

Article 4 of the Agreement reached between the Compagnie Générale Transatlantique and the Martinican Government assured the CGT a payment of 415 francs and 45 cents for every living adult that landed in Martinique and no payment was made for the transportation of children under the age of ten (Thaniyayagam, 1968). This serious lack of incentives to the CGT to transport family units with children would pose yet another challenge for the indentured workers who lacked the foundation of a family structure to be able to better preserve their original language and culture. The main criteria for hire were good physical condition and experience in farming. This meant that people signed the contracts as “individuals” and not as family units. Although on the surface it seems like the criteria for hire were fairly non-stringent, in actuality, certain stipulations in the agreement reached between the Martinican Government and the CGT imposed several limitations. Adult female workers had to be between the ages of 14-30 and the

male workers between the ages of 16-36. All children over the age of 10, boarding the ships to Martinique, were considered adults and earned the Company 415 francs and 45 cents each, similar to actual adults. As mentioned earlier, the Company was not paid for the transportation of children (both male and female) under the age of ten and was restricted to having this group be at no more than ten percent of the population of each vessel that sailed (Thaniyayagam, 1968). As a consequence of this, most of the people who “volunteered” for indentured work were young males; very few women and children signed up for indentured work, at least in the initial phase of emigration. It was many years later that the requirement of 40 per cent of females on every vessel that left the Indian shores to the Caribbean was instituted (Jayawardena, 1968).

The variability in the social make-up of the indentured workers was yet another determinant in their ability to preserve their culture and language. If one compared the indentured labor system to the Kangani system of labor (1839-1950) that involved emigration of south Indians to Ceylon (now Sri Lanka) and Malaysia, the difference is striking. In the latter, great consideration was given to respecting the groups’ village, caste, and family affiliations, which appear to have facilitated the preservation of their original language and culture. However, in the former, the *mestris* scouted for vulnerable farmers in many villages in the rural areas, and thus the workers seldom hailed from the same village or even the same caste group (Jayawardena, 1968). Despite the fact that almost 90 per cent of the names that appear on the list of people who boarded ships to Martinique are of Tamil origin (from the State of Madras, now referred to as Tamil Nadu), the social make-up was diverse. Most were rural farmers or craftsmen, and some identified themselves as people without specific jobs, “gens sans profession” (Desroches, 1996). In the social mix were also former prisoners, and those that rebelled against British rule in India. Then there was the young couple (daughter of a wealthy Maharaja and her lover belonging to a low caste) fleeing the rigors of the caste system that would not allow them to live their life together (Lecture by Gerry L’Etang at the University of Antilles, March 22, 2012). Also, given the rich ethnic diversity in India in general, some variation in castes, dialects, traditions, customs, religious rituals, etc. among the indentured workers cannot be overlooked. For all these people, the Antilles represented a beacon of hope. But without a critical mass that has an ethno-linguistically homogenous social make-up, maintaining cultural and linguistic identity among the indentured workers was not easy.

It is fair to state that although the emigration of *coolies* or indentured workers to Martinique was “voluntary” it was under circumstances that were rather dubious for some and compelling for many others. A more realistic understanding of all the details regarding their emigration, a certain level of literacy to comprehend the rules of engagement involved in the indentured system, and a social make-up that may have allowed them to draw on their common socio-cultural similarities were seriously lacking. Not having the opportunity or resources to adequately prepare themselves to be away from their homeland for a protracted period of time, in a distant unfamiliar region, with very little hope of contact with the people they left behind or of returning home played a significant role in their struggle to maintain their original cultural identity.

The examination of the challenges they faced once they left the shores of India presents a paradoxical picture of their responses to some of the hardships they faced during the journey. It is evident that in addition to the horrific living conditions on the boats, the psychological and

emotional trauma stemming from the sense of betrayal for leaving their homeland, and the fear of the uncertain future ahead made the journey all the more challenging: “A great sense of loss and displacement, both physical and psychological, experienced by these Indian indentured workers leaving their homeland characterize this Diaspora” (Bannerjee, 2009, p. 2).

Despite the suffering these indentured workers faced at every level of their journey to Martinique, there is evidence that some of the first attempts at preserving linguistic and cultural identity were taken during this trying three-month voyage. Irrespective of the fact that most on the boat had no common familial or village connection, efforts to maintain cohesiveness and to keep hope alive during some of the more difficult phases of their journey seem to have been made. Hunger strikes were organized as a means of empowerment to demand improvement in their living conditions. The sick and elderly were cared for with no regard to caste or religion. Recitation of Hindu religious texts and the singing of religious songs were means by which they managed to keep themselves emotionally strong (Bannerjee, 2009).

When confronted with the dangers of the tumultuous high seas however, they resorted to an alternative coping strategy. Having crossed the *kala pani* (“dark waters”), they no longer had the luxury of being under the protection of the Hindu Gods. They took solace in praying to an Islamic Saint, Nagour Mira, who was deified in the coastal town of Nagore (near Karaikal) for his miraculous nautical powers (Confiant, 2004). His miracles are believed to have protected the lives of several people from harm on the high seas. In Martinique today, the Hindu temples have included, among many Hindu symbols, Islamic symbols such as the crescent moon, the star, the hand of Fatima and the symbol of a boat symbolizing their journey from India. This unusual Islamic twist to the practice of the Hindu religion is one of the few elements of Indian culture that has prevailed in Martinique until today (L’Etang, 2011b).

“Culture is not as fragile as we sometimes think; its essential soul is hardy and durable”
(Chinua Achebe, as cited in Julien, 2000, p. 166).

Chinua Achebe’s words ring true in the case of the Martinicans of Indian descent. Since 1883, when the importation of indentured workers from India was stopped, against all odds, the Indians have succeeded in preserving their historical narratives and their cultural identity in a few but significant forms: religion, last names, food and clothing. They emblemize the collective heritage of this dispersed group. “*Le sévis zendyen*,” or the religious service involving animal sacrifices and trances, identical to the original version found in India today, is currently practiced in small temples in Martinique (L’Etang 2011a). This affirms Clothey’s argument (as cited in Naidoo, 2007, p.55) that temples are “a world psychic space in which the community lives and acts out its identity.” Many Tamil words, créolized and gallicized are used during these rituals. Some of these terms include, *vépélé* (sacred leaves), *vatialou* (teacher of Tamil language), *Maliémin* (Goddess Mariamman), *mandja tani* (holy water), *kandji* (rice milk), *paniaram* (sweet fritters), *nèl kutchi* (drum sticks), etc. (Desroches, 1996). Words such as “*madras*” (a type of cloth worn by the early Indian settlers) and “*colombo*” (a concoction of spices used in South Indian cuisine) have become an integral part of the Martinican culture and vernacular today. In addition, several names of Tamil or Indian origin have been preserved as family names, although they too have been gallicized. Names like Nayaradou, Moutammalle, Moutoussamy, Moutou, Sacarabany, and Kamatchy are a few common ones (Thanियayagam, 1968) that are still around

and evidenced in signs for businesses and in the surnames of individuals that I encountered in Martinique.

Although history has imposed upon this group of people a fragmented identity and eroded most of their original language and culture, observations from my most recent visit to Martinique confirm that buried deep within the crevasse of this “declared” Tamil language lie the narratives that validate and acknowledge the experiences of these indentured workers from India. They act as a tether to reconnect them with their ancestral land. In the words of one woman of Indian descent at the market who is using her last name to trace her ancestry back to India, “Je cherche mes ancêtres” (I am searching for my ancestors; my translation).

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The logo for the International Association for African Oral Research (iafor) is centered on the page. It features the lowercase letters 'iafor' in a light blue, sans-serif font. The text is enclosed within a circular graphic composed of two overlapping, semi-transparent arcs: a larger light blue arc at the bottom and a smaller, reddish-pink arc at the top, creating a partial circular frame around the text.

Applying Augmented Reality on an Ubiquitous Learning System for Supporting English Learning

Sheng-Wen Hsieh*¹, Shu-Chun Ho*², Cheng-Ming Chen*¹

0201

*¹Far East University, *²National Kaohsiung Normal University

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Abstract:

The increasingly advance of mobile technologies has created great advantages and opportunities for learning. Designed with learning strategies, this study develops a Ubiquitous Learning Instruction system with Augment Reality features (UL-IAR). The aim of this paper is to examine how UL-IAR assists English learning with authentic situations. This paper conducted experiments to investigate the appropriation of different learning strategies in different learners' Cognitive Styles (CS). This study divided participants into three CS groups before experiments: field-independent (FI), mixed-field (FM) and field-dependent (FD). There were 90 participants in the experiments designed with the three learning strategies (enforce review, self-enforce review, and non-enforce review) which were appropriate for FI, FM or FD CS learners. The results showed that learners with different CS had relatively effective learning performances in different learning strategies. Furthermore, gender also showed different preferences and effects in different learning strategies. The results of the experiments can provide theoretical implications for language learning in ubiquitous learning environment.

1. Introduction

Augmented Reality (AR) is a virtual technique with visualized virtual objects superimposed in a real world (Azuma, 1997; Sayed et al., 2011; Lee et al., 2008; The EDUCAUSE Learning Initiative, 2005). AR is not just a simple virtual technique only, but also a design to help users retrieve the proper information at a right time and a right location (The EDUCAUSE Learning Initiative, 2005). AR is also widely applied to education. For example, Sayed et al. (2011) uses AR to conduct subject teaching and Andújar et al. (2011) uses AR to establish a long-distance virtual laboratory and also conduct teaching by focusing on the students by majoring in industrial engineering and computer engineering. However, all the aforesaid scholars emphasize the technical innovation with AR applied to educational assistance, but ignore the cognitive differentiations of every student. Therefore, Aside from the fact this research is mainly conducted with AR technically, the individuals' differentiations are also considered. The individuals' differentiations can be discerned through cognitive styles, learning styles, cognitive control and intelligence (Jonassen & Grabowski, 1993). This research is based on cognitive styles.

Cognitive styles make an extensive and useful categorization for the differentiations of every individual. Dunn & Dunn (1994) find teaching methods and material can match well with the cognitive styles of individuals. It can not only improve the users' learning performance, but also courage their learning attitude positively. Based on the theoretical models of field-independence and field-dependence adopted by Dillon & Gabbard (1998) the cognitive styles of individuals are defined within a certain range with those polarized to two ends separately known as the individuals of field-independence (FI) and field-dependence (FD). FD individuals are affected by external environment, while FI individuals achieve more fruitful learning performance due to independent learning behaviors. This model has been successfully applied to the traditional educational environments, and there is still no conclusive awareness about the learning performance exerted by new technology (Davis, 1991; Dillon & Gabbard, 1998). Therefore, the influence on FD/FI learning performance exerted by the teaching methods having AR integrated with learning strategies should be of research value.

Based on the Wikitude World Browser, this research is designed with a Ubiquitous Learning Instruction System functioned with augmented reality (UL-IAR). Also, the learning performance of FD/FI individuals affected by UL-IAR is also explored. Additionally, FM individuals ranging between FD and FI are selected into experimental subjects in this research (Liu & Reed, 1994).

2. Review of Scientific Literature

2.1 Augmented Reality

AR is an interactive technique with virtual objects integrated into a real world. It can make both virtual and real objects existing at the same time and location. It can allow users to see and operate virtual objects in a real world (Feiner, 2002; Vallino, 2002). Compare with VR, the most significant difference is AR emphasizes the supplement to the deficiency of real environment instead of replacing the real environment as VR does (Azuma, 1997). Therefore, in the past, the gap between learning and practicality is frequently

found among learners (Freitas & Neumann, 2009). AR is functioned to eliminate such a gap therein.

As Chen (2005) indicates, AR is functioned with some characteristics to improve learning performance as below: (1) drawing attention, (2) creating an interactive learning environment, (3) providing telepresence, (4) improving concept learning, (5) keeping the worldview and proprioception, (6) providing the chances for bodily learning, and (7) providing the kit for users to take detailed consideration necessarily. As it is indicated as the aforesaid characteristics, the AR visualized and intuitive interface cannot only draw learners' attention from the very beginning, but also provide learners with excellent interactive learning partners and thinking space through interactive learning environment. As Webb (1982) finds, with the guidance and information provided by learning partners can improve learning performance. Furthermore, based on past academic findings, whenever learners feel alone in learning (Hong 2002), their learning satisfaction reduces (Hiltz & Wellman, 1997; Rovai, 2002; Rovai & Wighting 2005). As such, the interactive learning environment created by AR also facilitates to enhance learning satisfaction among learners.

AR is applied to education in divergent realms. For example, Gabbard et al. (2006) use outdoor background structure, illumination and textual and drawing styles to explore the influence on users affected by the outdoor environment in text and drawing styles. Because traditional m-learning cannot provide learners with real-time information, Liu et al. (2009) use AR and RFID to establish the outdoor U-learning environment of natural science. Sayed et al. (2011) adopt AR to develop augmented reality student cards (ARSC) and help visualize different learning goals of learners with a brand new data-processing and interactive way available for learners. Liu and Chu (2010) utilize AR to establish a set of ubiquitous learning system - Handheld Establish Language Learning Organization (HELLO). It aims to investigate how ubiquitous game-playing ways to affect the learning performance and motivations of English learners.

2.2 Cognitive Style

As Messick (1984) defines, cognitive styles meant a kind of personal characteristic to process and organize information and experience based on personal preference. As Witkin et al. (1977) categorizes, the personal differentiations of cognitive styles include perception, thinking, problem solving and learning. Cognitive styles are not a kind of absolute distinction based on personal differentiations, but meant to conduct the categorization with the best similarity optimally based on personal differentiations. Among the various theories of cognitive styles currently, the theory of FI and FD proposed by Witkin et al. in 1954 is applied most. Also, it is known as the theory of psychological differentiation or field articulation (Witkin et al. 1962). The FD/FI theory is conducted with the measurement of embedded figure test (EFT) with the results showing continuous series distribution (Messick, 1962). One polarized to the end with extremely higher scores means FI individuals, while one polarized to the ends with extremely low scores means FD individuals. FM individuals are ranged within both extremely polarized ends (Liu & Reed, 1994).

Chen (2010) contends personal differentiations of cognitive styles will be shown in the characteristics of learning strategies. FD/FI individuals are featured with below characteristics. FI individuals incline to use their own background information, along with structuralized and non-structuralized realms as the composition to structuralize and analyze their own learning experience. Contrarily, FD individuals are less

proficient in structuralizing and analyzing behaviors. Therefore, their learning experience is formed by the stimulation of external and interaction (Ford & Chen, 2001). Briefly speaking, FI individuals act more aggressively in learning to make quick performance reachable in independent learning. In contrast, FD individuals are passive in learning and affected by external environment, social orientation and external motivations with higher learning efficiency only when abundant environmental support is available. However, the personal differentiations among aforesaid individual mean the theoretically defined characteristics of FD/FI individuals only.

3. Research Method

3.1 Experiment System

UL-IAR is an English learning software functioned with augmented reality and developed on the basis of the Wikitude World Browser. The Wikitude World Browser is a mobile software integrated with the technology of augmented reality, GPS and mobile network available for users to retrieve the information relevant to surroundings. Because the Wikitude World Browser is mostly applied to providing the information of stores and hot scenic spots, but rarely found in educational activities. Therefore, aside from aforesaid characteristics, UL-IAR is also functioned with learning strategies and real-time quizzes with the system structure detailed as Figure 1.



Figure 1: System Structure

When users arrive at the learning field, they must start the GPS function in smartphones firstly to enhance positioning precision. Thereafter, UL-IAR is initiated to mobility interview every learning spot and conduct situational English vocabulary learning. After the first run of learning activities is finished, the first test is held (Tests include the learning contents provided by UL-IAR with 8 scenic spots totally. Every scenic spot is allocated with 2 questions and there are 16 questions totally. After the first test is finished, the system helps users review the wrongly answered questions. Review mechanisms include 3 categories, enforcing,

semi-enforcing and non-enforcing. Finally, after users finish reviewing behaviors, the system starts the second test to understand the learning efficiency of FD/FI users achieved by 3 different reviewing mechanisms.

3.2 Experiment Design

In this research, the English vocabulary among the scenic spots and specialty food names nearby the Kaohsiung West Bay are used as the learning contents for linguistic tests. Also, 3 learning strategies of AR integrated with enforcing, semi-enforcing and non-enforcing ways are explored to understand the influence on the learning effect of FD/FI users. This experiment includes 5 steps. The 1st step is meant for measuring users' familiarity with learning contents and EFT to confirm the cognitive styles of users. The 2nd step is meant to operate UL-IAR and lead users to conduct the proceeding situational English vocabulary tests in real environment. The 3rd step is meant for the first English vocabulary test (pre-test) after the first run of learning activities are finished among users. The 4th step is meant for review groups among users with 3 different reviewing mechanisms of enforcing, semi-enforcing and non-enforcing on the basis of users' cognitive styles. The 5th step is meant to proceed the second English vocabulary test (posterior test) to understand the scores achieved by students after their reviewing effort to determine whether they perform better when compared with the past test.

3.4 Experiment Subject

This research includes 90 English learners aging 18~30. To make the maximum of sample heterogeneity reachable, this research takes the users with 5 different occupational backgrounds into consideration, separately students, medical care workers, service workers, social workers and kindergarten teachers. From the beginning of this experiment, participants have to conduct the EFT to confirm cognitive styles. The EFT test mainly include 2 parts with each part composed of 16 questions embedded with a simple figure among numerous complex figures. The answer time allowable for every part is confined to 10 minutes. Because the EFT test is conducted with continuous scoring with a range from 0 (FI) to 32 (FI) to discern the cognitive styles among FD/FI users. This research separately categorizes both the top and bottom 27% of users into both the FI and FD groups (Spanier & Tate, 1988) wherein 46% of learning ranging between both ends are defined as the FM users.

4. Research Result and Discussion

4.1 The Learning Effect after Using UL-IAR and Different Reviewing Strategies

Because both the numbers of females and males are nearly equal, aside from the analysis on users, the analysis on males and females are also conducted separately. As Table 1-3 shown, there are the descriptive statistics on males and females separately. This research mainly explores the influence on learning effect among FD/FI users by means of AR integrated with other learning strategies. Therefore, cognitive styles and learning strategies are held as independent variables, while learning effect is held as dependent variables to conduct the two-way ANCOVA analysis shown as Table 4-6.

Table 1: The Descriptive Statistics for the Learning Effect of All Users

Cognitive Style	Learning Strategy	Mean	S.D.	N	Total S.D.
FD	Enforcing	91.2500	5.270	10	16.563
	Semi-enforcing	81.8750	10.396	10	
	Non-enforcing	63.3725	17.348	10	
FM	Enforcing	81.8750	5.472	10	15.110
	Semi-enforcing	80.6250	16.783	10	
	Non-enforcing	71.8750	18.923	10	
FI	Enforcing	76.7500	18.049	10	14.252
	Semi-enforcing	77.4500	13.066	10	
	Non-enforcing	73.0750	12.072	10	

Table 2: The Descriptive Statistics for the Learning Effect of Female Users

Learning Strategy	Cognitive Style	Mean	S.D.	N	Total S.D.
Semi-enforcing	FD	78.750	12.960	5	10.882
	FI	80.650	5.611	5	
	FM	88.750	12.022	5	
Non-enforcing	FD	66.245	22.789	5	18.387
	FI	79.900	10.104	5	
	FM	70.000	20.917	5	
Enforcing	FD	88.750	5.229	5	9.108
	FI	83.750	13.693	5	
	FM	81.250	6.250	5	

Table 3: The Descriptive Statistics for the Learning Effect of Male Users

Learning Strategy	Cognitive Style	Mean	S.D.	N	Total S.D.
Semi-enforcing	FD	85.000	7.126	5	15.274
	FI	74.250	18.084	5	
	FM	72.500	18.006	5	
Non-enforcing	FD	60.500	11.713	5	14.306
	FI	66.250	10.458	5	
	FM	73.750	18.957	5	
Enforcing	FD	93.750	4.419	5	15.402
	FI	69.750	20.566	5	
	FM	82.500	5.229	5	

As Table 4-6 shown, two major influential effects are interactive all users and male users ($p=.011, p=.047$). However, if both of these influential effects are considered separately, among them, cognitive styles significantly affect male users merely ($p=.022$), but shown insignificant influence on female users ($p=.143, p=.095$). Learning strategies exert the most significant influence on female users ($p=.000, p=.002$), but show no significant influence on male users ($p=.175$).

Because cognitive styles and learning strategies are interactive among male users, the variation of an independent variable against a dependent variable is determined by the incident with such a statistical interaction happening. In our design, such a situation equivalently means the inquiry of whether the change of learning strategies is determined by the cognitive styles of users. Therefore, to clarify this question, the analysis of simple mainly effects is conducted (Weinberg & Abramowitz, 2002).

Table 4: Two-way ANCOVA Statistical Analysis of the Learning Effect of All Users

Source	SS	df	MS	F	Sig.
Pretest	4929.881	1	4929.881	36.488	.000
Cognitive Style	538.954	2	269.477	1.995	.143
Learning Strategy	2817.209	2	1408.605	10.426	.000***
Cognitive Style x Learning Strategy	1887.817	4	471.954	3.493	.011*
Error	10808.739	80	135.109		

*p<.05 ***p<.001

Table 5: Two-way ANCOVA Statistical Analysis on the Learning Effect of Female Users

Source	SS	df	MS	F	Sig.
Pretest	2808.691	1	2808.691	25.744	.000
Learning Strategy	1625.292	2	812.646	7.448	.002**
Cognitive Style	549.362	2	274.681	2.518	.095
Cognitive Style x Learning Strategy	851.738	4	212.935	1.952	.124
Error	3818.585	35	109.102		

**p<.01

Table 6: Two-way ANCOVA Statistical Analysis of the Learning Effect of Male Users

Source	SS	df	MS	F	Sig.
Pretest	1632.632	1	1632.632	10.430	.003
Cognitive Style	1334.286	2	667.143	4.262	.022*
Learning Strategy	574.339	2	287.170	1.835	.175
Cognitive Style x Learning Strategy	1681.481	4	420.370	2.686	.047*
Error	5478.618	35	156.532		

*p<.05

To understand the interaction between cognitive styles and learning strategies, this research is conducted with the posterior analysis of simple main effects separately focusing on all users and male users with results shown as Table 7-10. Based on Table 7, in such an analysis, among 3 kinds of cognitive styles for the whole users, only learning strategies significantly affect FD users. Therefore, for FD users, enforcing review exerts stronger influence on learning effect than does non-enforcing review ($p = .000$). Semi-enforcing review exerts stronger influence than that of non-enforcing review ($p = .001$). Enforcing review exerts stronger influence on learning effect than that from semi-enforcing review ($p = .007$). Simply put, for FD users, enforcing review exerts stronger influence on learning effect than that from semi-enforcing review. Semi-enforcing review exerts stronger influence than that of non-enforcing review.

Table 7: The Analysis of Simple Main Effects for FD Users against Learning Strategy

(I) Cognitive Style	(J) Learning Strategy	FD	
		Mean Difference (I-J) /S.E.	Sig. ^a
FD at Enforcing	FD at Semi-enforcing	13.110*/4.511	.007*
	FD at Non-enforce	29.148*/4.416	.000*
FD at Semi-enforcing	FD at Enforcing	-13.110*/4.511	.007*
	FD at Non-enforce	16.037*/4.451	.001*
FD at Non-enforce	FD at Enforcing	-29.148*/4.416	.000*
	FD at Semi-enforcing	-16.037*/4.451	.001*

*p<.05

Also as Table 8 shown, for all the users receiving 3 kinds of learning strategies, cognitive styles exert significant influence on the users by means of enforcing review merely. Therefore, for the users receiving the strategy of enforcing review, FD users learning better than FI users ($p=.002$) and FM users ($p=.031$).

Table 8: The Analysis of Simple Main Effects for Enforcing Learning Strategies against the Cognitive Styles of All FD/FI Users

(I) Cognitive Style	(J) Cognitive Style	Enforce	
		Mean Difference (I-J) /S.E.	Sig. ^a
FD at Enforcing	Enforce at Enforcing	16.617*/4.876	.002*
	FM at Enforcing	11.069*/4.838	.031*
FI at Enforcing	FD at Enforcing	-16.617*/4.876	.002*
	FM at Enforcing	-5.548/4.773	.256
FM at Enforcing	FD at Enforcing	-11.069*/4.838	.031*
	FI at Enforcing	5.548/4.773	.256

*p<.05

As Table 9 shown, for male users having 3 kinds of cognitive styles, learning strategies exert significant influence on male FD users merely. Therefore, for male FD users, semi-enforcing review exerts more significant influence on learning effect than that from semi-enforcing review ($p=.002$). Semi-enforcing review exerts stronger influence on learning effect than that of non-enforcing review ($p=.000$).

Table 9: The Analysis of Simple Main Effects for Male FD Users against Learning Strategy

(I) Learning Strategy	(J) Learning Strategy	Male of FD	
		Mean Difference (I-J) / S.E.	Sig. ^a
FD Males at Enforcing	FD Males at Semi-enforcing	11.339/5.579	.067
	FD Malesat Non-enforce	33.250*/5.158	.000*
FD Malesat Semi-enforcing	FD Males at Enforcing	-11.339/5.579	.067
	FD Males at Non-enforce	21.911*/5.579	.002*

FD Males at Non-enforce	FD Males at Enforcing	-33.250 [*] /5.158	.000 [*]
	FD Males at Semi-enforcing	-21.911 [*] /5.578	.002 [*]

* $p < .05$

As Table 10 shown, for the male users receiving 3 kinds of learning strategies, cognitive styles exert significant influence on the users of enforcing review merely ($p = .041$). Therefore, for male users receiving the strategy of enforcing review, FD users perform better than FI users ($p = .014$).

Table 10: The Analysis of Simple Main Effects for Enforcing Learning Strategy against the Cognitive Styles of FD/FI Users

(I) Cognitive Style	(J) Cognitive Style	Male at Enforcing Mean Difference (I-J) / S.E.	Sig. ^a
FD Males at Enforcing	FI Males at Enforcing	23.638 [*] /8.114	.014 [*]
	FM Males at Enforcing	14.691/9.531	.151
FI Males at Enforcing	FD Males at Enforcing	-23.638 [*] /8.114	.014 [*]
	FM Males at Enforcing	-8.947/9.820	.382
FM Males at Enforcing	FD Males at Enforcing	-14.691/9.531	.151
	FI Males at Enforcing	8.947/9.820	.382

* $p < .05$

4.2 The Univariate Analysis on Female FD/FI Users

Because female users exert significant influence on learning strategies merely ($p = .002$), to understand the influence on female users exerted by learning strategies, this research is conducted with the univariate analysis as the posterior analysis with results shown as Table 11. For the influence on female users exerted by learning strategies, semi-enforcing review performs better than non-enforcing review ($p = .009$). Additionally, enforcing review performs better than non-enforcing review ($p = .001$).

Table 11: The Analysis of Simple Main Effects for Learning Strategy against the Cognitive Styles of Female FD/FI Users

(I) Learning Strategy	(J) Learning Strategy	Mean Difference (I-J) / S.E.	Sig. ^a
Females at Enforcing	Females at Semi-enforcing	3.714/3.831	.339
	Females at Non-enforce	14.224 [*] /3.829	.001 [*]
Females at Semi-enforcing	Females at Enforcing	-3.714/3.831	.339
	Females at Non-enforce	10.510 [*] /3.814	.009 [*]
Females at Non-enforce	Females at Enforcing	-14.224 [*] /3.829	.001 [*]
	Females at Semi-enforcing	-10.510 [*] /3.814	.009 [*]

* $p < .05$

5. Conclusion

The test of cognitive styles is one of the ways to understand the best learning method of individuals. Among numerous theories about cognitive styles, FD/FM/FI is a theory of cognitive styles widely applied. Therefore, this research is purposed to explore the influence on learning effect with AR integral learning strategies applied to FD/FM/FI individuals. Research results are described as below:

1. About the influential learning effect on FD individuals, enforcing review performs better than semi-enforcing review; meanwhile, semi-enforcing review is better than non-enforcing review.
2. About the application of enforcing review, it is more suitable for FD individuals than both FI and FM individuals.
3. For female individuals, the learning effect of enforcing review is better than that of non-enforcing review; meanwhile semi-enforcing review is better than non-enforcing review.
4. For male FD individuals, the learning effect of enforcing review is better than that of non-enforcing review; meanwhile semi-enforcing review is better than non-enforcing review.
5. For male individuals by means of enforcing review, the learning effect of male FD individuals is better than that of male FI individuals.

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*Globalization, Culture and Society: What role does language play?
--an example from English education in Japan*

Kuniko Miyanaga

0205

Asian Cultural Institute, Japan

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Abstract:

The presentation will be focused on the idea that culture promotes a hierarchy of values and the language as its major part imposes a certain style of reasoning. For this reason, learning English is confrontational to the Japanese and even causes a kind of culture shock. Still, they need to learn English to maintain a leading position in the global economic community. What is most confrontational about English for the Japanese is its analytical reasoning. Firstly, English has two levels of articulation, concrete and abstract, which enables the analytical style of reasoning in a scientific sense. Abstraction in this sense is remote to most Japanese. Secondly, this style also presses the speaker to separate the external from the internal: This causes a psychological difficulty to the Japanese who ideologically hold that the external is a harmonious extension of the internal. The presentation will be made in concrete examples taken from my original research on their difficulties and compromises. Possible solutions will be suggested.

GLOBALIZATION:

Under progressive globalization, the urgent necessity for integration in the global community, especially the formation of unified economic culture, has necessitated English as a global language. But, this situation also threatens social stability maintained in the tradition in local groups. Exposure to the global economic community has been commonly seen as de-moralization by local groups which are organized on their intrinsic values fostered through their history¹. They reluctantly join the global community for survival; membership is a compromise. English education in local groups collectively shows a similar compromise. It has become a necessary evil to some people. Learning English exposes local speakers to the wider English-speaking culture. Japan is a good example.

This often threatens the hierarchy of values in local groups. What is most disturbing to the local groups today is the analytical nature of English and its multi-value oriented culture, which epistemologically individuates its members. Learning English, they learn to see the same one thing from different angles. In analyses, the given hierarchy of values of the group is no longer absolute but becomes a choice. This is a democratic process. English, in its analytical style, separate facts from values. Facts can be identified and predicated independently from given values. Speaking English, the speaker can relate to facts external to the social hierarchy of values. This is challenging to any value establishment. It was not a coincidence that Modern English developed an analytical style. It evolved along with the development of science and democracy from the Copernican Turn, through the industrial revolution and to modern democracy in Civil Society.

GLOBAL DISCOURSE

For the promotion of democracy, G. H. Mead recognizes individuals as the agent to mediate the gap between global and local. In his already classic work, he identifies the possibility of realizing a global, democratic community at the individual level of social interaction. This philosophy still continues to be practiced today through the United

Nations, through other diplomatic organizations, and in and between top academic institutions. He locates his idea of democracy primarily in diplomacy, or the creation of “a community based simply on the ability of all individuals to converse with each other through use of the same significant symbols.ⁱⁱ” In doing so, he suggests that the “universe of discourse which deals simply with the highest abstractions opens the door for the interrelationship of the different groups in their different charactersⁱⁱⁱ. Instead of groups trying to eliminate each other by force, conflicts between groups should “lead to a dominance of one group over another by the maintenance of the other groups^{iv}”.

This classic proposition of democracy becomes even more relevant to us today, as Mead insists on the combination of the abstract and the concrete. “The concept of democracy, highly abstract and universal, should be expressed in concrete social organization consisting of individuals who achieve self-realization through one another^v.” Abstract laws and rules and concrete actions must translate into one another. A strategy in today’s global business community, “Think globally, act locally,” captures Mead’s proposition, to relate the global and the local. There is a cycle within the individual between global discourse in abstraction and self-realization localized through concrete daily actions. The localization process embodies the concept, and the abstraction objectifies it, organizing the process as a whole into an open system. This two-way cycle, when it is open this way, contains a momentum for the progress of the humankind; it takes individuals out of their own shells in which “each man sees himself as the source and reference point of all his bonds.”^{vi} Here, English is a good candidate for articulating this two-way, open system. Why and how? But, first, let me discuss a local situation, taking an example from Japan. A contrast between tradition and modernity will lead to the point I am trying to make.

LOCAL HIERARCHY OF VALUES

This two-way cycle, however, is often missing in traditional communities, when their social system still heavily depends on *ritual*. It is a one-way system of embodiment. Japanese society shows this tendency at every level. Ritual conditions both body and

mind together, through the repetitive conditioning of behavior. In an example of a religious group in Japan, my study^{vii} shows that ritual establishes a circuit in which sentiments and actions are directly related to each other. Imageries with values or moral imageries or stories or moral stories induce sentiments. Sentiments trigger actions. Actors become moral agents. Here, as the Dictionary of Social Sciences says, typically ideology does not explain but directs actions. Recognition leads to elaborate imageries in which each action is ascribed to a particular value, part of the given hierarchy of values.

One distinctive feature of this social system of embodiment is a kind of “determination by the initial setting.” It reproduces itself, and is hard to re-set. This structure applies to wider Japanese society, which actually is a big problem in the business community. However, in the secular community, the relations may be less obvious.

The Japanese language is a chief promoter of this structure. In metaphorical relationships of imageries, the language specifies actions, ascribes them to particular values, part of organized value hierarchy, and speakers become moral actors. They embody the hierarchy of values given in these imageries. Japanese is descriptive in its nature, for this function, and its metaphorical refinement psychologically motivate actors. Moving to the abstract means to deny this very basic orientation as moral being. Thus, individuation is seen antisocial, and, in fact, Japanese people, once untethered, often find themselves too undefined to be properly social. But, Japan is simply an example of many traditional groups which promote values esthetically rather than analytically.

TWO LEVELS OF ARTICULATION

Unlike Japanese, English is more analytical than metaphorical. The two-way, open system lies in the analytical style of English, offering a specific way of reasoning and the way to conceive the world. English offers two levels of articulation concrete and abstract. A shift between the concrete and the abstract constitutes a conceptual process

of analysis. The English speaking culture encourages the speaker to move between these two levels^{viii}. This is sophistication. The concrete is captured through observations and is subject to analyses by generalizing them in abstraction. Shifting to the abstract enables the speaker to identify any rules behind the concrete, which has been observed and described. In reverse, the speaker verifies the rule, by moving from abstract to concrete. The combination of two directions constitutes a two-way cycle of democracy at the individual level.

The following is part of a transcript taken from National Public Radio^{ix}. The shadowed sections are more conceptual and the other sections are descriptive. They discuss how games are created and played.

ANDERSON: Well, yeah. I mean, not in any obvious way. I mean, you play "Tetris" and "Tetris" is another just masterpiece of design. I mean, one designer I talked to called it a mathematical sculpture, and yet all you're doing - at the end of your four hours of "Tetris," all you've done is you swiveled some little digital bricks, and it doesn't really connect with the outside world in any meaningful way.

CONAN: I was interested in your piece in The New York Times Magazine that - I did not know this - that "Tetris" was invented in a Soviet computer lab.

ANDERSON: Yes, it was. Yeah, it was invented kind of by accident, I think, by a Soviet computer technician-mathematician and just instantly was this thing that hooked people and so burbled around and finally kind of exploded across the world in 1989 for the Nintendo Game Boy.

CONAN: You describe it as faceless, ceaseless, reasonless force that threatens constantly to overwhelm you, a churning production of blocks against which your only defense is repetitive, meaningless sorting. It is bureaucracy in pure form. A reflection of the society from which it emerged?

(SOUNDBITE OF LAUGHTER)

ANDERSON: Yeah. It struck me as that, and that's the thing game scholars talk about a lot is that games reflect the societies they come from, and so it seems like "Tetris" is a reasonable reflection of Soviet Russia in certain ways.

CONAN: Well, if "Tetris" is an expression of Soviet Russia, what does "Angry Birds" say about us?

When this movement between abstract and concrete is organized between more than one speaker, it becomes what is defined as dialogue. The speaker moves out of his own fixed ideas taking advantage of the feedback from others^x. A two-way cycle is maintained between two individuals. This conceptual process of reasoning which English offers makes it a good candidate for a global language that fulfills the conditions for creating open two-way cycles. In this sense, the development within the English language from traditionally synthetic to presently analytic orientations^{xi} has been crucial for the modern scientific community and the Western history of modernization. In abstraction and in concrete, English predicates the self and the world at two different levels.

This also means that English offers two different points of reference between the observer and the world. The term, "reference point" or the "point of reference" articulates the epistemological relationship between the observer/speaker and the world under his observation. The Oxford English Dictionary describes the term as "a basis or standard for evaluation, assessment, or comparison; a criterion." It also says that the closest word, almost replaceable especially in sociology, is "norm." The norm or a basis or standard for evaluation, assessment, or comparison enables and restricts the observer simultaneously in his act of seeing and identifying the world under his observation. This has been one of major themes in modern Western thoughts, including Immanuel Kant, George Berkeley, Charles S. Peirce, Kenneth Burke, Jean-Paul Sartre, Erving Goffman, Kenelm Burridge, Israel Scheffler, Dan Sperber and many others. They argue that we make sense of the world normatively but that, at the same time, we are restricted in the same act by the same norms. Science demands to go out of given norms in the quest for factuality. This quest actually offers the basis for the democratic effort of reaching

otherness. Although science and democracy are not the same, they are common in their quest for the factual world external to the observer, including the otherness of other members of society. .

English, offering two different points of reference, abstract and concrete, enables the observer/speaker to make sense of the world simultaneously in two different ways. Taking advantage of this bi-point reference system, the speaker can see and articulate the world constantly interpreting the abstract and the concrete through the other. This two-way movement between these two levels constitutes an epistemologically open system. Instead of moving between the two levels, the speaker may keep the two levels simultaneously, constantly interpreting the abstract and the concrete by the other. Intellectuals habitually do this. The concrete is captured in the description of what is observed. By interpreting it in abstraction, the speaker goes out of his physical senses. This is a daily-life practice of famous postulate of E. Durkheim, a maxim of Western modernity that the world is not an extension of one's psychology.

In the English speaking culture, this is part of the common sense. The following illustration has been taken from a book for children presumably between the age of five and eight. The title is *The Wishing Elf*.^{xii}

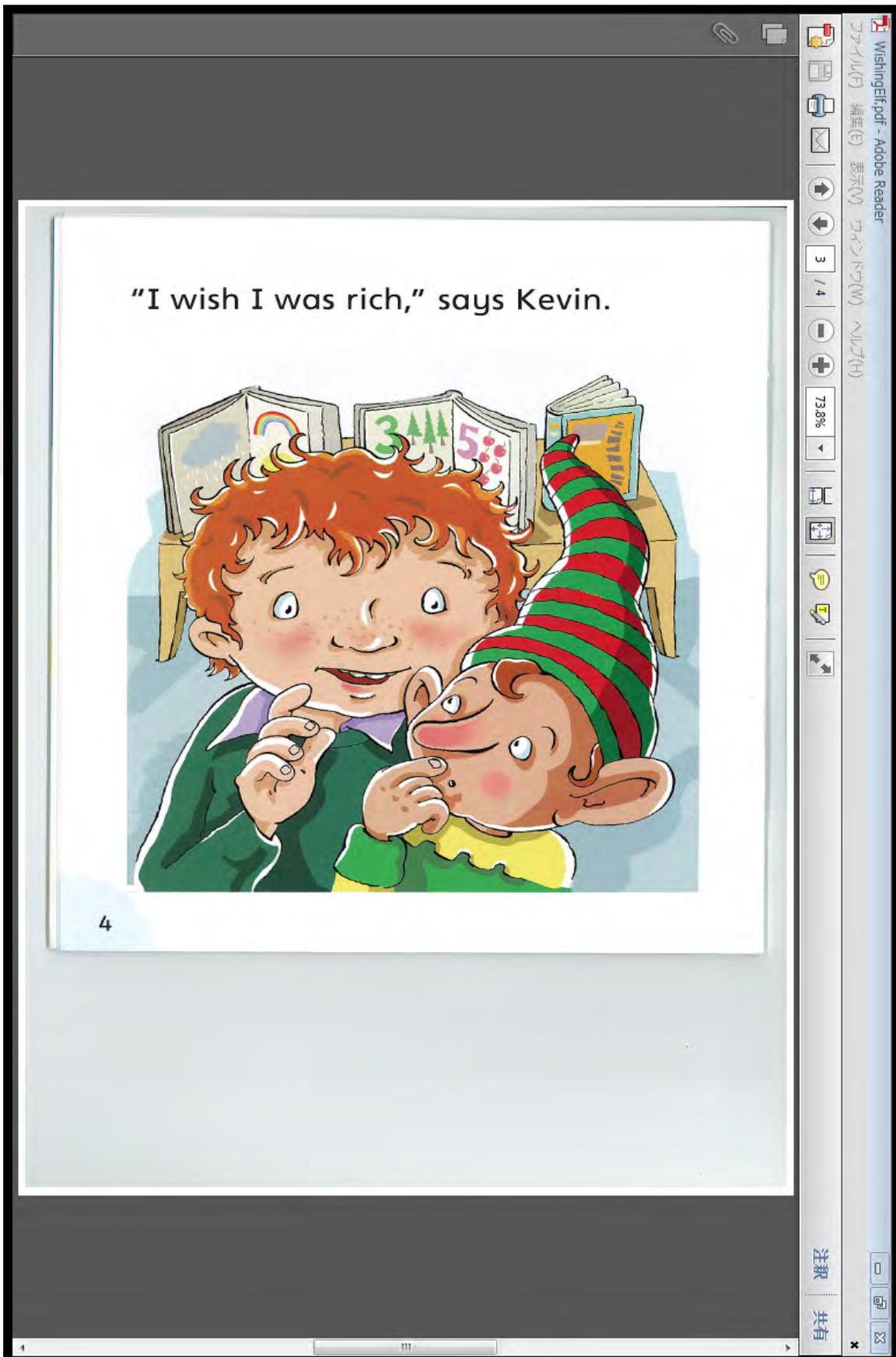
On the first page, it says, 'An elf has come to school! He is standing on Miss Smith's desk. "You can all have one wish," he says.'

On the second page, ' " I wish I had a parrot," says Dan.'

On the third page, ' "The elf claps his hands. "Abracadabra!" he says. The next second, a parrot flies in!'

On the fourth page, ' "I wish I was rich," says Kevin.'

It goes on.



The point is that at this age, people from English-speaking culture already learn to separate wish from reality or the internal from the external. They assimilate the assumption that the world is not an extension of one's psychology. Otherwise, they would be grammatically incorrect. If one assumes that the world is not an extension of one's psychology, and that it extends beyond physical senses, the world can make sense only in abstraction.

ENGLISH EDUCATION

A problem surfaces in the Japanese way of learning English in today's education, particularly in their difficulty of relating to the two levels of articulation, concrete and abstract. The bi-point reference to predicate facts about the world becomes obscure in English education typically in the Japanese example. The Japanese way of learning English is tactfully led to the concrete. The first step is to assimilate the vocabulary in direct association with Japanese words. Taking an example from my experience in my graduate school education in the United States, concepts appeared to be much easier to assimilate than daily life vocabulary. Words in daily life are concrete and situational, and are connected to values. They are emotional and require experiences deep enough to feel them. Or they should be taught by parents who socially appropriate you. Compared to these "casual" words, concepts were beyond social context, and were well defined in theoretical explanations behind. In short, they are abstract. Take a word "identity" for example, it is a noun form of the verb "identify." It means "to recognizes or establish as being a particular person or a thing."^{xiii} It may refer to self-identity, group identity, or national identity.

Recently, however, I was warned by a Japanese colleague, that in Japanese, the word "identity" is exclusively collective. Self-identity is a wrong word. The Japanese word must be used in the Japanese meaning, once it is adopted into Japanese. The concept has already been socially appropriated in the Japanese context. In other words, the concept has been localized. The problem is that it is still considered to be an abstract concept, but does not apply in general. Here, the meaning of the Japanese word "abstract" is

vague, imprecise, and obscure. The Japanese word “identity” becomes more concrete, and applied through images. The Japanese word “identity” blends well into the metaphorical social context of ritual society. Thus, finding “real English” is a fresh encounter, or a culture shock. It can be a serious confrontation. And, ultimately, one confronts only oneself through and against one’s own belief.

Instead of analyses, stories, or metaphors are used without stepping into the realm of abstraction. Metaphors expressed in rich images in Japanese ideologically function to direct actions. Responses are automated. Japanese culture offers such examples as tea ceremony and Noh play, in which metaphors are perfected in actions. Joy Hendry’s book on Japanese amusement parks captures this Japanese characteristic in a slightly different angle. The parks import “authentic” materials such as bricks from their countries of origin but do not pay enough attention to their original interrelations or the structure of the building.^{xiv} They put them together in a somewhat arbitrary way.



If bricks are elements to the Japanese, the building is not more than an arbitrary container for the bricks. Interrelations (or the structure) among bricks (or elements) are simply irrelevant to the construction of the building. This example suggests that, in reasoning, interrelations are not essential either, and that any stories are acceptable connecting words. In the metaphorical language, where visual representations count, interrelations, which are invisible, do not count. The building is a visual representation of the major logic of ritual society such as Japan. Here, I understand why people take my words and often freely create their own stories. Then, they not only pretend but so often also believe that the stories are mine. Close American friends of mine sometimes

are upset about this “management of knowledge” through metaphors and say that the Japanese are liars. My answer is that some of them may be, as anywhere, but most of them are just not factual. Abstract thinking is unpopular in daily life and is dedicated to the sciences within numerical reasoning.

CONTEMPORALIZATION OF THE WORLD

If Japanese society had ever decided to withdraw from the global economic community, and to remain localized, we should not worry about either abstract or a bi-point reference system in the language which sets a way to relate to the facts external to the observer. They may create pleasing stories or rumors when they function politically. Stories may be played on stage. Meanwhile, the world is further evolving. The global community in the 20th Century expected another grand, social change, equivalent to the industrial revolution. Learning from this revolution, we already know that the prime mover or the leader of this evolution is the community of scientists.

The industrial revolution began with the shift from human energy or horsepower to the steam engine. Although the power of steam itself had been discovered in an ancient time, its systematic application to industry was new^{xv}. This energy shift in industry was followed by another shift; from hand tools to machinery or from manual work to machine work. These changes likewise entailed a change in familial social relationships, from an apprenticeship framed within family and home to factory employment independent of the family and outside of the home. The separation between employer and employee created the modern class system, which changed basic social orientations, including the relationships between generations; between men and women; and, ultimately, in the private domains of body, intimacy, and sexuality.

Through the 20th Century, the global community under the leadership of scientists evolved through another turn. With Einstein and a group of the Quantum theorists, Newtonian determinism was negated or falsified. The new theorem was that objectivity can only be captured through the subjective experience of the observer. Intuition which

relates to the concrete directly came back to the community of scientists. The appearance of this paradigmatic change in the social sciences and the humanities followed this “second turn” in modern society in a time lag, as they had happened once in the industrial revolution. In the 1950s, post-World War II, there was a wide spread movement among intellectuals to go beyond the rigid Newtonian determinism in the old-fashioned modern sciences. Representing this trend, John Wisdom articulates this intuitive process in reasoning in his term of “ostentation” as “a main philosophic instrument” for falsifiability. That may begin with the ostensive (or experiential) definition of facts. Seeking facts external to himself, the philosopher should go on examining and analyzing experiential facts in ostensive definition through abstract intellection, building more than one hypothesis based on these crude data. Then he proceeds to put them to the test by attempting to falsify them. Capturing experiences, hypothesizing about them, and falsifying these hypotheses involve intuitive processes that cannot be systematized. Reasoning is a human effort to construct hypotheses in an attempt to reach out from sensual experiences through the bodily senses and toward an external fact by identifying abstract patterns and rules^{xvi}.

There is no ready-made theory or method for moving between the concrete and the abstract. In 1950, E. E. Evans-Pritchard describes this reasoning using the word “art,” by which he emphasized the intuitive as opposed to rigid determinism in the name of science^{xvii}. This “artistic” dimension of factuality was one of the main themes throughout the Post-modern literary movement in the second half of the 20th Century. Hilary Lawson, in the famous example of “an honest liar” who admits that he is lying, clarified this point that objectivity can only be reached through the subjectivity of the observer/speaker. Charles S. Peirce’s concept of “abduction” has been spot-lighted since this period, being defined as “the inference to be the best explanation.” The inference “abducts” factuality specifically focusing on the referential relationship between the observer and the world external to him. The observer’s intuition is an active instrument. Exactly here, Israel Scheffler recommends the use of the “cognitive emotions”^{xviii} to generate intuitions.

Today rules are there to be falsified. We no longer believe that the external world is obvious to us. Objectivity is a name of tentative conviction obtained through endless efforts of falsifying once-established definitions and re-defining what we observe. The external world may be “abducted” in our readiness for an intuitive and momentary encounter with facts external to us. When the language predicates them, they become comprehensible to others. The way they are predicated will, in turn, restrict us from reaching facts external to us. Factuality is maintained only in this on-going process.

The gap between abstract and concrete may be even widened today in the age of the information technology and of more advanced sciences. We must maintain and promote our actively factual orientation and a language or more likely, a combination of languages which can predicate this factual orientation. We should not give up either concrete or abstract for the other. Japanese has a strong “drive” towards the concrete not just an “inclination” through imageries and the descriptions of the concrete. The sort of intellection to capture the experiential facts in the abstract inference individuates the person who goes through this process and demands an “artistic” use of the language in Evans-Prichard’s sense. The committed promoter of this process is a “transcendental individual” as Kenelm Burridge argues^{xix}. Religion, imageries, and metaphors will find an active position in the global community, if they sponsor the artistic dimension of science in its abundant imagination both spiritual and human.

In addition, I would like to emphasize that we should pay a special attention to simplified versions of English, which we discuss everywhere today. It all depends on how we design the language when it is simplified. At the same time, I also would like to emphasize that the analytical style of English is not nearly as difficult to assimilate as it is often imagined. It can be complemented within the present English education system. The knowledge is manageable once we know what it is. There should even be a possibility that a combination of Japanese and English may help us in the globally on-going process of progress combining the concrete and the abstract more efficiently, and will let us be readier to reach the new-ness of the external world and the otherness of other social members.

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Australian English: But a Blip in the World of Japanese Academia

Lara Promnitz-Hayashi

0224

Kanda University of International Studies, Japan

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Abstract:

"Both British and American an English are, of course, the main competitors in the linguistic market-place, but Australian English is securing a foothold" (Burrige & Mulder, 1998). Unfortunately, the extent to which this is occurring in Japan is debatable. When students enter university they have normally studied English for three years in junior high school and three years in senior high school. Some may also have studied it in elementary school. However, if you asked students what variety of English they were taught, they would in all probability answer American English, or possibly British English. It is highly doubtful that students would answer Australian English, even though Australia has become a popular destination for study exchanges, school trips and also sister city affiliations. This study focuses on an elective subject for third and fourth year students on the subject of Australia in two different departments at an international university in Japan. In addition to studying about the history and foundations of Australia, its geography, tourism, news, music and haunted places, the course places added emphasis on Australian culture, Australian English, Indigenous Australians and even Kriol. The paper draws on multiple sources of data -- surveys, interviews and examples of students' classwork.

English is a major language taught in Japan, however very few varieties are taught or even encouraged. Students are formally introduced to the variety of American English and occasionally British English from elementary school yet most students never experience contact with Australian English. As a result of this, a study of third and fourth year tertiary students in an elective course about Australia was undertaken in order to understand students' perceptions and at times, misconceptions of Australia, its culture and its language. This paper includes a literature review, introduces the study, discusses the findings and also includes examples of students' work.

Literature review

English has been growing in status as a World English and has become highly regarded in Japan. In 1985 Crystal (cited in Kachru, 1992) estimated that there would be approximately two billion speakers of English globally and the majority of these World English speakers would be non-native speakers. It is estimated that three quarters of the world's mail and eighty percent of information stored on the world's computers is in English. Two thirds of the world's scientists read English and all air traffic controllers use English daily and these figures include both native and nonnative speakers of English (BurrIDGE & Mulder, 1998). Internationally, English is used in trade, tourism, broadcasting, the superhighway, the world press and stock markets. It has become a major commodity.

Kachru (1992) divides English users into three concentric circles: the Inner Circle, the Outer Circle and the Expanding Circle. The Inner Circle consists of over 350 million speakers of English as a native language, which includes Australia. The Outer Circle consists of approximately 300 million speakers of English as a Second Language where English plays a part in government, education, court systems and media and these countries were originally colonized by the British. The Expanding Circle includes speakers of English as a Foreign Language; however, English does not play an important role in any official capacity (BurrIDGE & Mulder, 2005; Kirkpatrick, 2007). According to Kirkpatrick (2007) Australian English is recognized as a traditional native variety of English where English was not originally spoken and has been influenced by local cultures and languages.

“English has become a commodity to be promoted and sold, and the market-place is fiercely competitive” (BurrIDGE & Mulder, 2005, p.272). This is accurate of the English environment in Japan where English as a Foreign Language (EFL) is being taught as early as kindergarten. It is now also a compulsory subject from Grade 5 in Primary schools throughout the country and university graduates are ‘strongly urged’ to obtain a high score on the Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC) prior to entering the workforce. English can be seen on signage, public transport, television and even in the form of strange brand names of food and beverages.

Varieties of English have been taught throughout Asia since World War Two, with British English and American English being the two major varieties. In China, British English was always the prestige accent that students wanted to model but in recent decades, “American English is the variety that the majority of students want to learn” (Kirkpatrick & Xu Xi, 2002, cited in Kirkpatrick, 2007:15). The same can be said about Japan whereby the majority of textbooks use American English, most *eikaiwa* (language conversation schools) teach American English, most English movies broadcast on television are American and most fast food outlets are American. Occasionally a school will use a textbook which is in British English. However, you will rarely find one that teaches Australian English.

Blair (1993, cited in Cox, 2006, p.3) defines Australian English as a “regional dialect of English spoken by non-Aboriginal people born in Australia. Semenets and Rusetskaya (1991, cited in Cox, 2006) further state that there are at least three categories of Australian English. These are Standard Australian English, Aboriginal English varieties, in addition to numerous ethnocultural dialects. Semenets and Rusetskaya also state that these are important as Australian English “functions as a significant symbol of national identity” and is a “mature dialect and has its own internal norms and standards”. Australia was colonized by the British in 1788 and for more than one century British English was the norm. It was not until the end of the nineteenth century that English in Australia saw a distinct differentiation from British English. Meanings for words changed and new words were introduced into the Australian language which made it more characteristically Australian. Aboriginal words were introduced into everyday language usage and most still remain in not only Australian English but also Standard English worldwide; koala, kangaroo and boomerang, for example.

However not all linguists have viewed Australian English in a positive light, especially in the area of pronunciation. William Churchill, an American linguist (cited in Kirkpatrick, 2007, p.70) wrote in 1911 that:

...the fact remains that the common speech of the Commonwealth of Australia represents the most brutal maltreatment that has ever been inflicted upon the mother tongue of the great English speaking nations.

This has been a common argument over the years and it was not until 1940 that a push for Australian English to be accepted as a national standard and norm began. Now it is recognized as an English variety in its own right and is a proud member of the Inner Circle.

Australian English was long considered an inferior language, so much so that even the Director of Education in New South Wales wanted teachers to stop using Australian English in their classrooms. He claimed that “It is sad to reflect that other people are able to recognize Australians by their speech” (Kirkpatrick, 2007:69). What was once considered an embarrassment is now an

aspect of Australian pride. Australian English started to be recognized as a new form of English in 1872 and it was said that “Australian language is chiefly noticeable for the absence of all dialect”. There was an increasing awareness that Australia used a noticeably unique pronunciation and vocabulary which ‘set Australia apart from other English speaking countries’ (Moore, 2008). Ruby Board (Board, 1927, cited in Moore, 2008) was not happy about this and stated in 1927 that:

In every English speaking country there is to be found amongst cultivated people a certain pronunciation, which is unconsciously accepted as the best speech. On examination no trace of dialect can be detected, nothing that will single out the speaker, no touch of provincialism or of affection. It is understood by all without effort, it is pleasant to the ear, and it may be heard in England, Scotland, Ireland, in all the British Dominions, and even occasionally in America. It is significant that while the particularly obtrusive quality of the Oxford man, the Cockney, the Yorkshireman, the Scotchman, the Australian, the Canadian, is noted and labeled, the speech referred to above is described as good *English* (Moore, 2008:129).

It was believed that a cultivated accent was preferable over a regional Australian dialect as the Australian accent was seen as a deviation from Standard English RP.

Australia is a culture which prides itself on egalitarianism. Everyone is seen as equals and ‘tall poppies’ are frowned upon. As Peeters (2004:6) states, “tall poppies are seen as people who brag or are egotistical and if one is seen as a ‘tall poppy’ it is not a compliment”. This can be difficult for many cultures which rely on a heavily constructed social hierarchy. In Japan success or money can be a status or a goal that many want to achieve, especially in a country where the name of one’s high school and university or even the area where you live is important. Embedded within the social hierarchy is the practice of titles. Whereby in Australia it is commonplace to use first names, in Japan it is virtually unheard of and frowned upon. Students sometimes have a great deal of difficulty calling their foreign teachers by their first names when their Japanese teachers insist on being referred to by their professional titles. This is also true in the workplace and it is unheard of to enjoy family days with the boss and when colleagues go out with their bosses, it is a very formal and often rigid atmosphere.

Bearing in mind the continual spread of World Englishes and the fact that Australian English is yet to truly infiltrate the Japanese education system; it was felt that a study into Japanese students’ perceptions of Australia, its people and its language was appropriate. What exactly do they think of Australia and all that it encompasses?

The Study

As Australian English is not widely taught in Japan the author wanted to know students' perceptions and misconceptions of Australia, its culture and its English, therefore this study was carried out across two different classes in an elective course about Australia at a private university. One class was in the English Department and the other was in the Intercultural Communication Department, students were either in their 3rd or 4th year of their degree and all were majoring in English language. The course was one semester in length for both classes, consisting of two 90-minute lessons a week over fifteen weeks. The course covered a number of topics including Australian history, dangerous animals, television, movies, haunted places, Indigenous Australians and Kriol, with a large portion of the course focusing on Australian English and culture.

The methodology

Students in both classes were invited to complete an online survey. Although 47 students were invited to complete the survey, only 26 did. In addition to completing the online survey, students' work, especially translation exercises were collected, copied and analyzed with the students' permission.

The findings and discussions

Unfortunately only 55% of students completed the survey; however, they had different reasons for choosing the class. Twenty students were actually interested in Australia because they had been there, wanted to go there or simply had an interest in learning more about the country. Five students admitted choosing the class because it fit in their schedule. One student said that their friend had completed the course previously and recommended it to her. Of the 26 research participants, 65% had been to Australia.

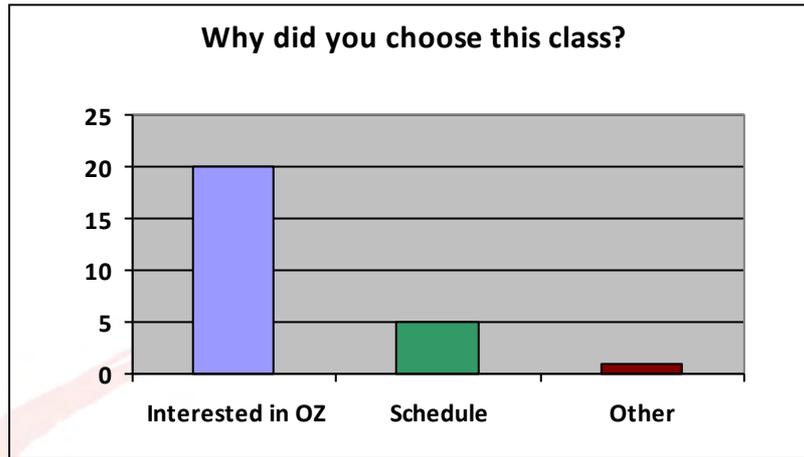


Figure 1. Reason for choosing the class.



Figure 2. Students who have been to Australia.

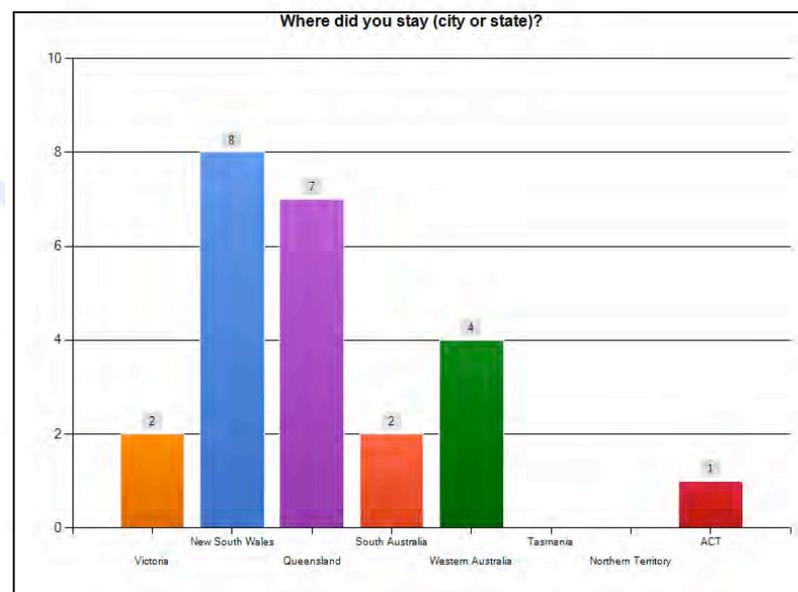


Figure 3. State/territory where students stayed.

As can be seen in Figure 3, students were asked which state or territory they stayed in and New South Wales and Queensland were very close in numbers. Eight students stayed in New South Wales, with Sydney being the most popular place. Seven students stayed in Queensland with both Brisbane and the Gold Coast being the most popular places, followed by Cairns. Four students stayed in Perth in Western Australia, two stayed in Melbourne, Victoria and two stayed in Adelaide in South Australia. Only one student stayed in Canberra in the Australian Capital Territory. One student actually visited Sydney, Brisbane, Gold Coast, Melbourne, Adelaide and Kangaroo Island in one trip.

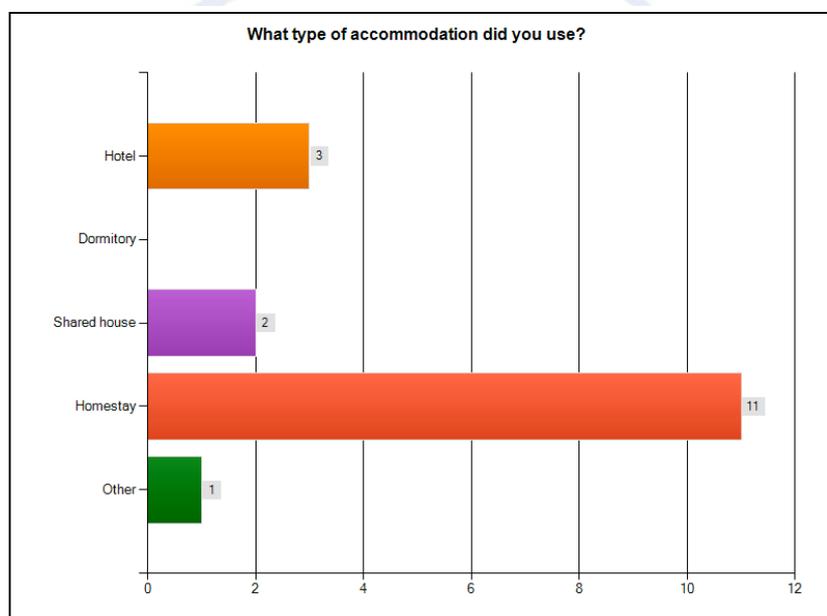


Figure 4. Accommodation used in Australia.

As it is shown in Figure 4, students who had been to Australia stayed in a variety of accommodation. Eleven students stayed with host families, three stayed in hotels, two stayed in a share house and one stayed in a youth hostel. The students who stayed with host families said they chose to do so because they felt it was a better way to learn about Australian culture and language as they could be completely immersed in them. They admitted to having difficulties in communication as vocabulary they had studied in Japan prior to going to Australia was not always useful as they had learnt American English and many Australians use different vocabulary. They initially had trouble with simple greetings. For example, many Australians used the greeting, “How are you going?”, but students thought they were being asked about their mode of transport. They did not understand that the phrase was simply a speech act and did not in fact require an answer. Many students who stayed with a host family were also very surprised that when

Australians wash the dishes they often do not rinse the detergent off the dishes and also that people fill up the kitchen sink and wash the dishes there. In Japan people wash the dishes in running water ensuring that all detergent is rinsed off.

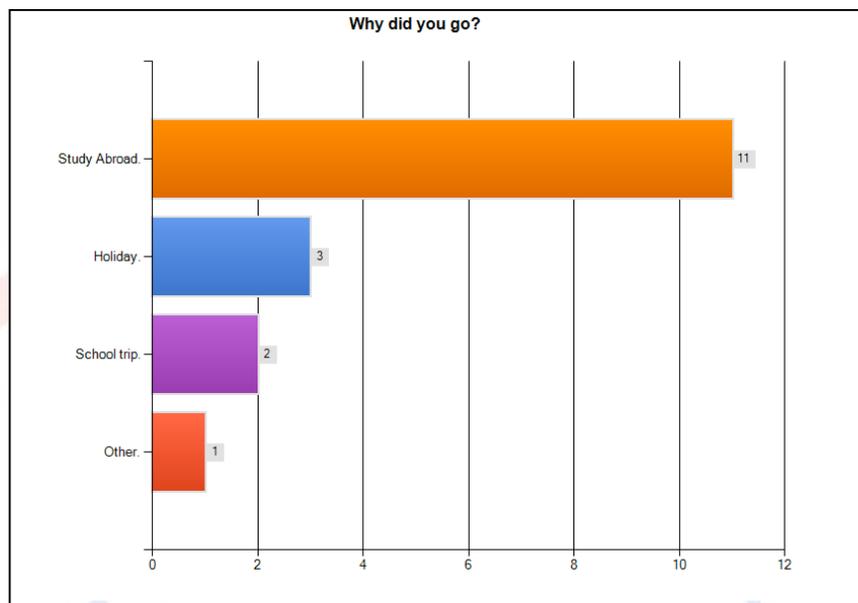


Figure 5. Reasons for going to Australia.

As can be seen from Figure 5, eleven students went to Australia on an exchange program, ranging from one week to nine months. Three visited Australia on vacation with their families; two students went to Australia on a school trip in their first year of high school and one student went to plant trees on a volunteer program.

Students were asked about their image of Australia, Australians and Australian English. Students' image of Australia included "lots of nature", "very big", "the cities are urban like Tokyo or New York", "lots of animals", "desert", and "beautiful sea". When students were asked how this had changed by the end of the course, responses included "not only beautiful but also fantastic!", "beautiful and hot, but many flies", "mixture of beautiful, artistic, and wild cultures", "There are some historical story before establishment Oz", while three students stated that their image had not changed. Prior to the course students' image of Australian people included "I thought they are just like western people. Not like Japanese", "same as Americans", "same as British people" with twelve students answering "friendly" and "kind". One student thought that Australians were "big and rough!", while one thought that all Australians were like Aboriginals.

After completing the course many students' views had changed and now felt that Australians were "funny", "friendly, easygoing", very open and interesting"; while two students felt that their image had not changed. In regard to Australian English students felt that Australian pronunciation and accent was very different and at times difficult. Others had no image as they had had no contact with Australian English previously. One student thought it would be similar to American

English and one thought the term 'Aussie Lingo' was an animal. At the end of the course students felt that English in Australia was difficult but interesting or 'cool' and many enjoyed learning and using Australian vocabulary as it was 'fun and interesting'.

Students who had visited Australia were then asked about anything that had shocked or surprised them when they visited Australia. Students' answers included "Aussie Lingo because when I went shopping I didn't understand", "shower time" due to water restrictions and also many people having showers in the morning, "Aussies talking too fast", "so many people having a pool at home, strong color drink and almost everyone has BBQ machine", "spiders in the toilet", "vegemite", in Queensland there were so many people who wore no shoes out in public and one student claimed that "sheeps look sad because of shaving in front of audience".

When asked what they enjoyed studying the most in the course five students replied that they liked learning about Australia's dangerous animals. In this lesson students were given information about eleven dangerous animals found in Australia and were given a jigsaw reading activity. Each student had information and a picture of different animals and everyone was expected to walk around the room obtaining the necessary information about all eleven animals and write notes on their worksheet. They were then required to make an individual ranking of what they thought were the ten most dangerous animals. This meant that one animal needed to be excluded from their ranking. Then they had to form groups of four and collaborate in order to agree on a final group ranking of the animals. Interestingly everybody ranked the Bunyip in the top ten and were disappointed to discover that it is actually a fictional creature. Students said they enjoyed the Aussie Lingo lessons and now they could understand words they had heard in Australia, in the movie they watched in class or even when they listened to Australian teachers talking to each other at the university.

Five students enjoyed the individual presentations as they were able to learn a lot more about Australia as each student presented on a different topic, ranging from famous people to sports to food to places. Three replied enjoyed learning about Aborigines. In these lessons students were given a variety of activities, which included a famous children's story in Kriol. Students listened to a recording first and were asked to try and guess what the story was. They were then given a printed version of the story in comic form and in groups were asked to write an English translation which was challenging as this was the first time for all students to learn about Kriol. Students were then given different dreamtime stories and in groups of five they had to retell their story to their group members and discuss them. Following this, each group was required to develop their own dreamtime story about how something came to be and present the story in class.

One student said they enjoyed the lesson about Haunted places in Australia. In this lesson

students worked individually, choosing one haunted place in Australia from a list given to them by the teacher. They were only allowed to search Australian websites to obtain information about the place they had chosen. They had to write as many notes as they could such as its location, its history, unexplained occurrences and anything else they found interesting. They were then expected to teach three other class members about their haunted location and discuss the information they found. They were also asked to show a scary picture or video that they were able to find online with their group members. They were then asked to discuss any Japanese ghost stories and compare them to the Australian ones in order to identify any cultural differences or similarities.

In the Aussie Lingo lessons, students completed a number of different tasks including translation exercises, watching an Australian drama, looking at Australian magazines and comparing Australian English with other Englishes. They were given a paragraph in Australian English and were asked to translate it into Standard English, then they were given exercises whereby they were required to translate from Australian English into Standard American English or vice versa. They were also given the opportunity to write their own paragraph in Australian English and then their partner had to translate it into American English (See Appendix 1). Students were asked to watch a movie (Crocodile Dundee) and also a famous Australian drama and had to listen for any Aussie Lingo that they could hear and also take notes of any cultural differences they could find between Australia and Japan.

There were a number of problems that arose throughout the course. The most common problems when studying different varieties of English are their differing accents, pronunciation and spelling. It can be very confusing for students of English. In Australian English the pronunciation of many simple words can confuse non-native speakers. This was found to be true among many students in the course. The most prominent word was *'today'*: /tə'dei/ which is pronounced as /tə'dai/ in Australian English, with many of the students asking why everyone in Australia wants to die!

Another difficulty students in the course had was related to the cultural atmosphere of the classroom. The teaching style of the course was academic yet informal. Students were to use only first names, were expected to joke as much as possible and were introduced to the notion of sarcasm. This was difficult for students as Japan adheres to a very strict social hierarchy whereby the teacher is considered 'higher' than them and they would never address their teacher by their first name, let alone make jokes with them. Furthermore, older students have more authority over younger students and there are strict cultural and social 'rules' to adhere to in Japan. It was made clear at the beginning of the course that all students in the class were equal and were expected to adhere to any Australian 'norms' as they were introduced. Initially this was difficult however by the end of the course; students were much more relaxed and socially active during class, not only

with their classmates but also their teacher. Li (cited in Kirkpatrick, 2007, p.24) coined the term 'pragmatic dissonance' where a speaker feels discomfort when they use a language that is "appropriate in one language or variety but ...violates the rules in the speaker's own language or variety" and this was initially occurring in class.

Culture is an integral part of language learning and should be taught in the classroom. Johnson (2005) states that students themselves understand that learning a language also requires more than the ability to understand the linguistic structures. He also states that "...the coding and decoding of communicative acts requires an understanding and appreciation of the cultural context in which they occur". The National Center for Cultural Competence (cited in Peterson & Coltrane, 2003) defines culture as:

an integrated pattern of human behavior that includes thoughts, communications, languages, practices, beliefs, values, customs, courtesies, rituals, manners of interacting and roles, relationships and expected behaviors of a racial, ethnic, religious or social group; and the ability to transmit the above to succeeding generations. (p.1)

Peterson and Coltrane (2003, p.1) further argue that students "cannot truly master the language until they have also mastered the cultural contexts in which the language occurs". As cultural activities are best incorporated into lessons, with the most effective activities being authentic materials, culture was incorporated into this course through many mediums such as a movie, television, music, magazines, commercials and online websites. This gave students a wide range of ways to study Australian culture and also to see linguistic structures, vocabulary, social norms, etiquette, terms of address, turn taking and social interaction. It was hoped that by introducing a variety of different topics within the course, students would be able to learn more about Australia, not only its language but also its culture. Students in Japan generally dislike studying history but it was felt that introducing Australian history was important in order to understand how the language and also culture evolved over the past two hundred and twenty four years.

Another cultural aspect that was felt to be important was the topic of swearing. Standard Australian English is a more globalised form however many Australians feel that the Australian colloquialisms, nicknames, insults and swearing, are an important part of their Australianness. Allan and Burrige (cited in Burrige, 2010) found that swearing is sometimes a way of 'fitting in', to spice up language or to display intensified emotion. The word "bloody" is commonly used and often conveys exasperation, disapproval, excitement or exuberance. However, in some countries, the word "bloody" may be seen as derogatory, crass or just plain rude and its usage is therefore frowned upon. In the 1990's the Australian Tourism Commission had an ad campaign containing the question "Where the bloody hell are you?" which was banned in Britain as it was

'inappropriate'. Students were given a lesson based on this and were asked to read a short article about the ban and also to watch the television commercial and form their own opinions about the commercial. There were given a number of discussion questions which they were to discuss and answer in small groups. Students found this activity interesting as although Japanese has swearwords, they are never seen on television. They all agreed that they could understand why Britain may have been offended but also thought it was an important part of Australian identity and should have been allowed.

Conclusion

As Kirkpatrick (2007, p.18) argues "Variation is natural, common and normal". Burrige and Mulder (1998, p.290) further state that English is "an agent of both conformity and diversity in the world" and "will bind members of the international community together, but individual nations will continue to assert their identity via their own distinctive Englishes". As has been mentioned, English is a large commodity around the world, especially in Japan and unfortunately it is American and British English that are usually recognized and taught. Perhaps it is time that teachers and educational institutions alike introduce World Englishes and their varieties to students. Students are interested in learning about other cultures and also the languages involved. This was seen in the above course as students were extremely positive about the topics they studied and were enthusiastic about learning another variety of English. Even now when they see their teacher they use as many Australian words as they can remember with pride.

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Appendix 1: Samples of the Australian English translation activities.

I woke up bright-eyed and ^{full of health and good spirits} bushytailed this morning so I decided to go to my ^{shinny} mate's BBQ. I quickly changed into my ^{excited (swimsuit) bathers} togs in the ^{outside toilet} dunny, grabbed my ^{friend} sunnies and ^{24 cans of beer} a slab and left my place. When I got to my mate's joint, I walked over to grab some ^{food} grub. I took some roast ^{chicken} chook, chips and ^{sausage} snags. Next to the table there was a ^{man} bloke drinking a lot of ^{cans of beer} tinnies. He was having a ^{chat} chinwag with a ^{girl (only boys use "sheila", Girls hate it.)} sheila who was eating her ^{food} tucker. He had had a few too many and was a real ^{loudish (大声で話しかける)} yobbo. She had also had a bit too much ^{cheap alcoholic liquor} plonk and was acting like a real ^{stupid person} drongo. It was kinda embarrassing coz they were acting like real ^{a simple minded person} wombats. Guess that is what they call a fair ^{true because} dinkum Aussie Barbie.
drinking Australian BBQ

Aussie Lingo

Translate the following into American English.

1. I went to watch the footy with my mates a fortnight ago.

I went to watch the Australian football with my friends two weeks ago.

2. The ^{elevator} queue for the film went from the ground floor to the first floor.

The elevator for the movie went from the 1st floor to the 2nd floor.

3. It was so cold that the tap wouldn't turn.

It was so cold that the faucet wouldn't turn.

4. I drove my sedan to the tip to get rid of my rubbish.

I drove my sedan to the dump to get rid of my trash.
(garbage)

5. When I went to the chemist I had to fill out a form but I forgot to write my postcode.

When I went to the drug store I had to fill out a form but I forgot to write my zip code.

Translate the following into Australian English.

1. To get to her apartment, we had to take the elevator.

To get to her unit, we had to take the queue.

2. We ordered French fries with our sausages.

We ordered chips with our snacks.

3. He needed suspenders to hold his pants up when he played American Football.

He needed braces to hold his pants up when he played the footy.

4. Last fall, her husband accidentally threw her watch in the trash can so she had to search inside the dumpster with a flashlight until she found it.

Last autumn, her husband accidentally threw her watch in the rubbish bin so she had to search inside the skip with a torch until she found it.

5. It was so cold at night they had to use a duvet.

It was so cold at night they had to use a doona.

Write your own short paragraph in Aussie Lingo and swap it with a partner and then translate it into American English.

My paragraph	My partner's paragraph translated
<p>I went to the footy with my mates a fortnight ago.</p> <p>On the way to the footy, we went to the Bottle Shop and bought slab. In the footy game, we often went to the Loo, because we drunk a lot.</p> <p>After all we didn't watch the footy very much, we are nong.</p>	<p>I went to the football with my friends 2 weeks ago.</p> <p>On the way to the football, we went to the liquor store and bought a carton of 24 beer cans.</p> <p>In the football game, we often went to the toilet, because we drunk a lot.</p> <p>After all we didn't watch the football very much, we are an idiot.</p>

Language of Youngblood: The Discourse Practice of Young Column Writers in the Philippines

Nicanor Guinto

0229

Southern Luzon State University, The Philippines

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Abstract:

Inspired by youth empowerment posed by present social movements in the Philippines, this study attempted to discover the discourse practice of young column writers in the country. It specifically sought to describe the prevailing convention on Philippine Daily Inquirer's Youngblood column with particular attention to target audience, title, word count, and discourse development, with an end view of determining the role that language plays in empowering the voice of the youth in the present domestic space.

The Reflective Inquiry and Practice-focused methods in media discourse analysis were used in the study. Seven columns, published both in print and online, for 15 consecutive days (October 1-15, 2011), were identified and analyzed. The titles, target audience and word count of the columns were analyzed through Gricean Maxims, Flesch-Kincaid Formula, and traditional counting respectively. Discourse development was determined through the analysis of Cohesion (conjunctive and reiteration lexical cohesion), and Halliday's systems of transitivity.

After examining the texts, it was concluded that the target audience of young writers, whose column compose of more or less 1000 words, starts from high school students but are not necessarily limited to the age group. Narratives that deal with what the writers themselves are doing are preferred over other forms of writing as evidenced by the density of personal pronouns and verbs expressing material processes. This means that the younger generation in the Philippines use language as a means of expressing the fact that they are actually "doing something" worth noticing contrary to local elderly beliefs.

Introduction

“*Ang kabataan ang pag-asa ng bayan*”
[The youth is the country’s hope for the future.]

- Dr. Jose P. Rizal
National Hero of the Philippines

The youth has something to say. This is evident in the proliferation of youth-oriented media campaigns in the Philippines and youth empowerment programs promoted by different government and non-government organizations that involve the younger generation in all walks of life to carve their own space in the rich history of the country.

However, the youth in the Philippines is normally perceived to have a “traditionally weak position in society,” (United Nations, 2000, p. 2). Though R.A. 8084 recognizes the crucial role of the Filipino youth (classified in the age bracket 15 – 30) in nation building, the elders oftentimes decry the seemingly ignorant stance of the youth on significant national issues, downplaying their attempts to sketch a better society that understands their ideals.

Contrary to these assumptions, the Philippine Daily Inquirer (PDI), dubbed as the nation’s leading broadsheet in terms of readership (4A’s Media Factbook, 2004 cited by Dayag, 2009), recognized the value of the younger generation’s voice when they gave the “twentysomething and below” ample space to air their side on “current issues” in their opinion page in 1994 marking the birth of the *Youngblood* column.

The “voices out there in the wilderness of the young Philippine experience should be taken seriously, that young writing was not automatically congruent to unpolished or hollow writing” (De Vera, 2006, p. ix). Driven by this belief, *Youngblood* since then offered the youth a unique opportunity to be heard in a society governed by norms of disparity between the old and the young.

The real question now lies on how the contemporary youth utilizes this opportunity. In the 19 years of *Youngblood* presence in PDI, it is easy to assume that there is an unwritten yet existing discourse practice that in one way or another guide the present youth in translating their idealisms into the language of column writing.

Thus, this study attempted to address this general question: How does the youth use language to assert their presence in their domestic space, as reflected in the collective linguistic features they employ in their column? To answer this general question, the following specific questions were addressed:

1. What is the prevailing convention in the *Youngblood* column in terms of:
 - 1.1. Target audience;
 - 1.2. Word Count; and
 - 1.3. Characteristics of the title?

2. How are discourse units in the articles developed in terms of:
 - 2.1. Cohesive devices; and
 - 2.2. Process types?

Related Literature

Media Discourse Studies

The influence that media plays in the development of the nation have been proven throughout the years. Considered as the fourth estate, it serves as a check and balance mechanism that create an immense impact on how national policies and agenda are designed and implemented (Cotter, 2001).

The influence of media is so far reaching causing it to become one of the prime subjects of intellectual scrutiny. Prominent studies have formed the bulk of literature of media discourse (Bell, 1998; Tennen, 1998, Fairclough, 1995; etc.) in the international scene that makes it easy for discourse analysts to adopt frameworks for their individual study.

Cotter (2001) identified what comprises media discourse which analysts could delve into:

“One could divide media content into two: news and advertising... The references to news and media discourse will concern the broad range of stories, features, and genres that makes up “news” – in the modalities of print, broadcast and web – as opposed to advertising or entertainment.” (p. 417)

Cotter further discussed that researchers could adopt several methodologies depending upon the need of their research. Methodologies include critical discourse approach, narrative/ pragmatic/ stylistic approach, comparative/ cross-cultural approach, media/ communication studies, practice-focused approach, and cognitive or conceptual approaches.

In the Philippines, prominent scholars (Alberca, 1978; Gonzalez, 1985; Bautista, 2000; Dayag, 2000; Gustilo, 2002; etc.) have done their share to describe the state of media discourse in the country. Dayag (2004 cited in Dayag, 2009) for one, tried to describe the sources of data and information (evidentials) found in Philippine English and Filipino newspaper editorials. He found out that there was no predictable pattern in terms of the discourse position of evidentials in the Philippine news editorials. He continued that it is perhaps the adherence of an author’s own style that may partly explain the strategy.

Gustilo (2002 cited in Dayag, 2009, p.60) on the other hand, analyzed American and Philippine news leads. Results revealed that there is a recurrent pattern of similarities between the leads produced by journalists from both countries. He concluded that the recurrent pattern might be attributed to the tendency of Philippine writers to adhere to the expectations of international journalism as propagated by European and American influence in the Philippine Education system.

Philippine media is indeed a fertile ground for language studies research. “The Philippine mass media thus provide a fascinating research area for critical linguistics, discourse analysis, sociolinguistics, pragmatics, and a range of other linguistic studies” (Dayag, 2009, p. 63).

Cooperative Principle

The Cooperative Principle, which was introduced by H.P. Grice, is considered as an overriding principle in all conversations. It follows the concept that verbal interactions operate according to certain expectations. It assumes implicit understanding between speakers that they will cooperate in a conversation. Such is the gist of the principle which reads:

“Make your conversational contribution such as is required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange in which you are engaged” (Grice, 1975 cited by Clark, 2007, p. 59).

Out of this, he arrived at four principles he generally call “maxims of conversation.” According to Cook (1989), Grice assumed that participants in a conversation intend to:

- be true (maxim of quality)
- be brief (maxim of quantity)
- be relevant (maxim of relevance)
- be clear (maxim of manner)

However, Clark (2007) iterated that the maxims are valid only for language use that is meant to be informative and polite.

Readability

The question of whether a piece of reading material is comprehensible to a target group of audience has been one of the primary concerns of discourse researchers. “Since 1920 more than 50 readability formulas have been produced in the hopes of providing tools to measure text difficulty more accurately and efficaciously” (Crossley, McCarthy, Duffy, & McNamara, 2011).

However, the most widely used of all are the traditional readability formulas such as Flesch Reading Ease (1948) and Flesch-Kincaid (1975) though they have also been widely criticized by cognitive researchers for their inability to take into account text-based processing, situation levels and cohesion (Crossley et al., 2011).

The Flesch Reading Ease Formula, developed by Rudolph Flesch is a simple approach to assess the grade-level of the reader. It has since become a standard readability formula used by many US Government Agencies, including the US Department of Defense (My Byline Media, 2011). However, primarily, the formula is used to assess the difficulty of a reading passage written in English.

The formula is as follows:

$$RE = 206.835 - (1.015 \times ASL) - (84.6 \times ASW)$$

RE stands for Readability Ease, ASL for Average Sentence Length (i.e., the number of words divided by the number of sentences) and ASW for Average number of syllables per word (i.e., the number of syllables divided by the number of words).

The value derived from the reading ease formula can be interpreted using the following range:

90-100	: Very Easy
80-89	: Easy
70-79	: Fairly Easy
60-69	: Standard
50-59	: Fairly Difficult
30-49	: Difficult
0-29	: Very Confusing

On the other hand, in 1976 the US Navy modified the Reading Ease formula to produce a grade-level score by applying the Kincaid formula developed by John P. Kincaid. The formula is used to determine the grade level of a person/ student who would be able to understand and process the text. Its formula is as follows:

$$FKRA = (0.39 \times ASL) + (11.8 \times ASW) - 15.59$$

FKRA stands for Flesch-Kincaid Reading Age, ASL for Average Sentence Length (i.e., the number of words divided by the number of sentences), and ASW for Average number of Syllable per Word (i.e., the number of syllables divided by the number of words).

In this study, the researcher used the two formulas to determine the difficulty level of the texts analyzed as well as the age level or target group in the *Youngblood* column.

Discourse Development

The analysis of cohesive devices and process types to determine the discourse development present in narrative texts was supported by the study of Indrasuta (1988 cited in Connor, 1996) who compared narrative essays written by Thai high school students with narrative essays written by US high school students. He found out that the two groups differed in the use of cohesion (a higher use of reference by U.S. students), and in the functions of the sentences (the Thai students used more mental state verbs whereas Americans used more action verbs). Since the *Youngblood* columns are perceived to be consistently narrative, the methods used by Indrasuta are seen fit for this study, disregarding however the contrastive rhetoric nature of the study.

Cohesion

The focus of this study was to define how discourse is developed in the *Youngblood* article to partially unveil the discourse practice in the said column.

The theory of Halliday and Hasan (1989 cited by Grabe and Kaplan, 1996) states that cohesive harmony agrees much more closely with research in information structuring and the influence of local clausal relations in building text coherence. Thus, analysis of cohesive harmony of the texts would likely lead to describing the discourse development of any texts subjected to analysis.

Halliday and Hasan (1976 cited in Eggins, 2004) notes five general categories of cohesive devices that signal coherence in texts namely: referential, substitution, ellipsis, conjunctive, and lexical cohesion. Among the five types of cohesion, three were used to analyze the discourse development of the text. One is conjunctive cohesion.

”Conjunctive cohesion adds to the texture of text, helping to create semantic unity that characterizes unproblematic text” (Eggins, 2004, p.). There are four (4) different conjunctions namely: temporal (e.g. – after, finally), causal (e.g. – because, consequently), adversative (but, although), and additive (e.g. – and, also). Analysis of conjunctive cohesion of the *Youngblood* articles may describe the most usual kind of information used to support claims, i.e. – whether elaboration, argumentation, sequential or reasons.

In addition, referential cohesion was also used to find out the degree of subjectivity or objectivity of the texts analyzed as well as its adherence to truth and certainty. References are resources for referring to a participant or circumstantial element whose identity is recoverable (Martin, 2001). In English, resources include pronouns, demonstratives, definite articles, comparatives, and phoric adverbs.

Lastly, reiteration lexical cohesion aided in the discovery of the word choice in the text. Reiteration includes repetition, synonymy, hyponymy/hyperonymy, meronymy and antonymy.

System of Transitivity

Halliday and Hasan’s (1976 cited in Eggins, 2004) Systemic Functional Grammar (SFL) revolutionized the way language is viewed in the last century. SFL promotes the concept that meaning cannot be divorced from the study of language since context and cultural conventions play a significant part in human interaction. SFL views language as a strategic, meaning-making resource.

Halliday distinguished three metafunctions of human language: ideational, interpersonal, and textual which show how simultaneous strands of meanings are expressed in clause structures. The concern of the present study is on the ideational metafunction of language as the *Youngblood* articles are perceived to convey realistic human experiences derived from day-to-day encounter. At the center of the ideational metafunction is the system of transitivity.

“Experiential meaning is expressed through the system of transitivity or process type, with the choice of process implicating associated participant roles and configurations” (Eggins, 2004, p. 206). Halliday identified five process types namely: material, mental, behavioral, verbal and relational.

The material process describes the process of doing, usually concrete, tangible actions. “The basic meaning of material processes is that some entity does something, undertakes some action” (Eggins, 2004, p. 215). The mental process describes the process of thinking or feeling. “We find we are not asking about actions or doings in a tangible, physical sense, but about mental reactions: about thoughts, feelings, perceptions” (p. 225). The verbal process accounts for “verbal actions” (p. 235). “Saying and all its many synonyms, including symbolic exchanges of meaning” (p. 235) are the verbs that signal the verbal process.

Moreover, the behavioral process serves as a borderline between the material and mental process which follows the notion that humans are conscious being. “They are in part about action, but it is action that has to be experienced by a conscious being. Behaviorals are typically processes of physiological and psychological behavior” (p. 233).

The final set of process types encode meanings about *states of being* and show how “being” is expressed in the utterance. It is classified as existential and relational process types, often taken under the label of the latter. It assigns attributes or identities to “being” positing that there was or is something (i.e., existential process types) and that they are seated to exist with other things (i.e., relational process types).

Methodology

Research Design

This study is a qualitative and quantitative research broadly following the principles of Reflective Inquiry method and Practice-focused method in media discourse analysis. The reflective inquiry method “identifies problems and phenomena through observation, introspection, and literature review” (Bereiter and Scardamalia, 1983 cited by Connor, 1996). Moreover, Practice-focused Method of discourse in media is the analysis of the “aspects of situated practices of news reporters and editors” (Cotter, 2001:419). Meanwhile, Indrasuta’s (1988 cited in Connor, 1996) methods to identify discourse development aided the researcher in analyzing the content of the articles.

Description of Samples

The articles subjected to analysis in this research are seven (7) purposively chosen *Youngblood* articles published both in the Philippine Daily Inquirer (page A11) and online (through <http://opinion.inquirer.net/column/Young%20Blood>) from October 1-15, 2011. The column is not a regularly occurring column in the newspaper. The titles of the articles, their author, as well as the date when they were published are as follows:

- *Stranger on a Bus* (Froila Marie Deniega) - October 4, 2011
- *Cheating* (Roger Fantonial Garcia) – October 5, 2011
- *Raining Insults* (Justin Flores) – October 7, 2011
- *Solo Flight* (Vky Dio Mendoza) – October 7, 2011

- *Leaving Home* (Clarisse Peralta) – October 11, 2011
- “*Tibak*” (Marion Nicole A. Manalo) – October 13, 2011
- *Let Me Tell You* (Rianne Marie P. Miranda) – October 15, 2011

Procedures

Seven (7) *Youngblood* articles published both in print and online were identified to serve as instruments for analysis. After a rigid review of pertinent discourse theories and concepts tangential to the goal of this research, a cross-examination of the texts following different models of analysis (see table 1) was done that lead to the results presented hereafter.

Table 1. Mode of analysis of significant elements in the articles

Elements to be Analyzed	Mode of Analysis
Title	Grice’s Maxims
Target Audience	Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level Formula & Flesch’s Reading Ease Formula
Word Count	traditional counting
Discourse Development*	Halliday and Hasan’s Cohesion (Referential devices, Conjunctive devices & Reiteration Lexical Cohesion), Halliday’s System of Transitivity

Note: * - based on the method employed by Indrasuta, 1980

Results and Discussion

Target Audience and Word Count

Ramirez (1989) contends that a column should have a readership of its own apart from the newspaper where it runs. With the use of Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level Readability Formula and Flesch Reading Ease Readability Formula, through the help of a free online calculator software available at http://www.online-utility.org/english/readability_test_and_improve.jsp, the grade level and difficulty level of the articles analyzed herein were identified in Table 2 to determine the characteristics of reader which the column is addressing.

Table 2. Number of words and grade level of Youngblood articles

Article	No. of Words	Grade Level
A	1, 173	5.83
B	978	6.84
C	677 ^a	6.97
D	463 ^a	8.29
E	822	8.93
F	660	9.89
G	1066	9.10
Average	973.17	7.98

Note: ^a - Articles C and D appeared in the same day. Since the number of words would depend on the space allotted for the column, the word count of C and D were combined as if they are just one article.

The table shows that articles are “readable” to a person who is more or less in Grade 8 or second year high school, in the Philippines. In this case, the target audience of the column starts from children aged 13-15 and beyond. When it comes to word count, the average number is 973.17 or less than 1000 words. The word count proves that the columns are of medium-length, following Philippine newspaper standards, which thus supports the notion of the target age group. This clearly shows that the young column writers write for their fellow youth.

Aside from the grade level and word count, the difficulty level (see Table 3) of the articles supports the previously-mentioned notion.

Table 3. Difficulty level of the Youngblood articles

Article	Reading Ease	Descriptive Rating
A	77.86	Fairly Easy
B	74.13	Fairly Easy
C	70.75	Fairly Easy
D	65.07	Standard
E	67.62	Standard
F	59.76	Fairly Difficult
G	65.65	Standard
Average	68.69	Standard

Table 3 clearly shows that the average difficulty level of the articles is 68.69 with a descriptive rating of standard. Though Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level Readability Formula provided the definite starting grade level that the articles are understandable to, Flesch Reading Ease Readability Formula, which is used to obtain the data in the table, amplifies the discourse practice of making newspaper discourse accessible to the general literate population. In other words, the columns are meant to send a message across a multi-layered literate public whose age ranges from 13 and beyond.

Title

Table 4. *Analysis of titles through Gricean Maxims*

Article	Title	Maxims Flouted	Maxims Followed
A	Strangers on a Bus	quantity	quality, relevance, manner
B	Cheating	quantity, manner	relevance, quality
C	Raining Insults	quantity, quality, manner	relevance
D	Solo Flight	quantity, quality, manner	relevance
E	Leaving Home	quantity	quality, relevance, manner
F	“Tibak”	quantity, manner	quality, relevance
G	Let me tell you now	quantity, quality, manner	relevance

As depicted in table 4, the Gricean Maxim that is flouted by all of the titles is the maxim of quantity. This is reflective of the discourse practice in print media that for titles to become effective, the readers should at first be partly deprived of information which may lead to catching the interest of the reader. The ambiguity caused by the flouting of the maxim of quantity in the title can be considered as a genius attempt by young column writers to motivate readers to read the articles until the last word.

On the other hand, all the titles strictly adhere to the maxim of relevance. The titles of the *Youngblood* articles are analogous to the gist of the body of the text, which is once again parallel to the discourse practice. If a title has very least information, readers would tend to seek answers to questions that arise after reading the title. If those questions were not answered in the body of the text, frustration and disappointment would lead the reader to refrain reading similar articles again, which the PDI would perhaps strongly avoid as part of their policy.

Discourse Development

Youngblood is a column which can be found on the extreme right hand side of PDI’s opinion page. Since it is a column, newspaper conventions dictate writers to take full responsibility of

their words, as what Kershner (2005) suggests any columnists should do. Table 5 indicates that young column writers observe this fact.

Table 5. Use of personal pronoun reference

Pronoun	f	%
I	257	31.89
Me	55	6.82
My	98	12.14
We	48	5.95
Us	11	1.36
Our	36	4.46
You	44	5.45
He	27	3.35
She	47	5.82
It	62	7.68
Him	18	2.23
Her	43	5.33
His	8	0.99
They	18	2.23
Them	16	1.98
Their	18	2.23

Out of the 16 identified personal pronouns, the first person nominative personal pronoun “I” is significantly placed as the top choice in the articles as it garnered a frequency of 257 or 31.89%. It is also notable that the possessive variation “my” received the second greatest count (98 or 12.14%). The result promotes the fact that the general theme of the articles is those which present personal account or interest of the writers. They either present the experiences and adventures they had, or explain matters pertinent to things in their immediate space.

On the other hand, though opinion pieces may account for the personal views of writers, it is a rule of the thumb for every media practitioner to anchor everything they write on factual information (Kershner, 2005). Table 6 provides proof that such rule is being observed.

Table 6. Use of demonstrative reference

Demonstrative	f	%
The	280	70.18
That	84	21.05
This	27	6.77
Those	3	0.75
These	5	1.25

The table above demonstrates the high density of the definite article “*the*” receiving the frequency of 280 or 70.18%. This can be interpreted as a gesture of adherence to newspaper conventions of strict submission to the rule of certainty. Thus, young column writers present their individual judgments but without sacrificing truth and certainty.

In the process of developing the article, to provide connection between clauses, the table that follows points out the most frequently used conjunctive cohesive devices in the texts analyzed.

Table 7. *Frequently used Conjunctive Devices*

Conjunction	Devices	f	Σf	%
Additive	And	73	100	33.22
	Or	25		
	Also	2		
Adversative	But	54	68	22.59
	and	6		
	in fact	2		
	although	2		
	though	2		
	despite	1		
	yet	1		
Causal	so	21	51	16.94
	because	18		
	and	7		
	after all	3		
	in order to	2		
Temporality	and	35	82	27.24
	when	23		
	after	13		
	next	4		
	as	3		
	finally	3		
	second	1		

The preceding table shows that the frequently used conjunctive devices are that of additive, which received 100 or 33.22%, and temporality, which received 82 or 27.24%. The preference of additive and temporal cohesive devices indicates the need for information that gives further support to, justifies, and elaborates previously-mentioned ideas, as well as sequential transition of information in order to promote coherence in the text.

As supported by the data in table 7, young column writers write something personal with the goal of informing rather than arguing or reasoning out. This leaves causal and adversative conjunctive devices to be least preferred in the write-ups.

When it comes to word choice, to further promote coherence in developing the paragraphs, table 8 exhibits the commonly used lexical cohesive devices in terms of reiteration.

Table 8. *Reiteration Lexical Cohesion Analysis of the Youngblood articles*

Reiteration	Article	Instances	f	Σf	%
Repetition	A	rain, bus, book, scene, movie, conversation, stranger, soul mate, conductor, send, message, reply, text, life	14	84	56.76
	B	restaurant, cold, mosquito, laugh, girl, MA, exam, class, proctor, paper, drama, grade, smile, teach, tear	15		
	C	August, NBI, clearance, office, pour, line, cashier, yell, supervisor, guard, customer, guy	12		
	D	hour, travel, adventure, birthday, work, studies, Sagada, Baguio, Jollibee, write	10		
	E	Filipino, life, work, leave, country, Philippines, people, good bye, home	9		
	F	tibak, aktibista, rally, school, country, people, university, strike, student, education, pickets, UP	12		
	G	world, life, graduation, academic, worry, day, meal, clothes, stories, God, big girls, friend	12		
Synonymy	A	book-titles, conversation-jokes, conversation-chat	3	35	23.65
	B	phone-line, exam-activity, teacher-proctor, proctor-colleague, honesty-truth, greet-hello	6		
	C	work-employment, satellite office-place, people-applicant, speak-exchange of words, customer service agent-customer service representative	5		
	D	travel-trip, trip-adventure, work-job, trip-escapade, trip-voyage, piggy bank-finances, work-labor	7		
	E	greener pasture-better life, abroad-overseas, ambition- goal, Philippines-motherland, ambition-dreams, Philippines-nation, leaving-opportunity	7		
	F	tibak-activits, UP-aktibista, Philippines-motherland, students-youth	4		
	G	strenuous activities-climbing the mountain, academics-schooling	3		
Hyponymy/ Hyperonymy	A	book-Jane Eyre, book-story, book-classics	2	14	9.46
	B	students-girls, girls-friends, listening-voice	2		
	C	staff-cashier	1		
	D	family-sister, school-student, school-term, school-college	4		
	E	Philippines-country, Manila-home	2		
	F	UP-student	1		
	G	graduation-graduates, diploma-graduation	2		
Meronymy	A	window-bus, title-book, plastic-book, scene-movie, button-cellphone	5	13	8.78
	B	restaurant-table	1		
	C	agent-company, holes-tent, staff-office	3		
	D		0		
	E	Manila-Philippines	1		
	F	building corridor-University	1		
	G	window-dormitory, hands-folks	2		
Antonymy	A			2	1.35
	B				
	C	respect-disrespect	1		
	D				
	E	application-rejection	1		
	F				
	G				

The foregoing table shows that repetition (which received 84 or 54.76%) is used to promote lexical cohesion in paragraph development in the articles analyzed. In addition, extended repetition of words has been observed, which means that similar lexical items are distributed in various paragraphs of the articles from the beginning up to the end. Such move can offer readers

guideposts while reading. Extended repetition also aids to sustain the interest of the readers because through repeated words, they get to be reminded of the matters that they need to give attention to.

The result is parallel to the newspaper discourse practice of expressing ideas in the simplest yet scholarly way possible (Cruz, 1991). The column writers recognize the fact that ideas should be expressed in a manner which promotes reading ease for the audience. In this case, the use of synonymy, hyponymy/hyperonymy, meronymy, and antonymy are seen to impede reading ease as these lexical cohesive devices would require exhaustive thinking on the part of the reader, which means longer time for mind processing. Not discounting the ability of the readers to think but given the fact that the target readers have other priorities to do, they may just choose to stop reading a rather complicated piece than “waste” their precious moments for something which they may deem counterproductive.

The table that follows, on the other hand, specifies the kind of information that forms the content of the article.

Table 9. *Analysis of Process Types of I Narrator*

Process Type	f	%
Material	103	40.08
Mental	71	34.30
Verbal	20	9.66
Behavioral	16	7.73
Relational	47	20.78

Based on the analysis of the process types of the agent “I” narrator, the material processes were found to be the most frequently employed process types followed by the mental process types in the presentation of information in the articles analyzed. Sentences were constructed with verbs in the material process garnered a frequency of 103 or 40.08% and following it is the mental process with 71 or 34.30%.

The density of material process types contradicts the invitation published in Youngblood side by side with articles which reads:

“We want to know what the young are thinking about. What are their thoughts on current issues? We welcome contributions from the twentysomething and below.” (De Vera, 2006:ix)

The result strongly supports the idea that young column writers write narratives about what they are actually *doing* as opposed to what they are merely *thinking about* contrary to what is explicitly stated in the invitation. This means that experiences, and advocacies or idealisms put into action are highlighted by young writers, which contradicts the popular belief about the youth being satisfied at the background of things.

Conclusions

Different youth empowerment programs and projects in the Philippines have been put into place in recent years to offer the youth a chance to be heard. However, the traditionally weak position of the youth in the country amplified by the disparity between the young and the elderly continuously bar the younger generation in their attempts to sketch a better society that understands their ideals.

In recognition of the significant role of the youth in nation building, the Philippine Daily Inquirer offered the youth ample space in their opinion page to air their youthful idealisms. It is thus, interesting to find out how the contemporary youth utilizes this opportunity and how they translate their idealisms into the language of column writing by examining the collective linguistic features they employ in their column. Hence, this study addressed these primary concerns through an analysis of the discourse practice. After a thorough examination of the texts, conclusions presented in the succeeding paragraphs were drawn.

The target audience of Youngblood starts from high school students but the articles are of average difficulty level, composed of less than 1000 words. This indicates that the articles are accessible to a wider group starting at the age level identified. The titles were found to be characterized as being vague yet relevant to the content. The high density of the personal pronoun “I” and “me” signified the recurrence of topics of personal account or interest of the writers, as well as the preference on narratives.

In addition, the frequent use of additive and temporal conjunctive cohesive devices in the articles showed that the content was developed by providing additional or supporting information to claims which would likewise provide smooth transition from one minor topic to another. The density of additive conjunctive cohesive devices in the articles provided credence to the assumption that the preferred purpose in the column is “to inform” as opposed to other possible purposes. Likewise, the frequency of temporal conjunctions in the articles further justified the preference on narratives, which normally require chronological sequencing of events. In terms of word choice, the preference on repetition reiteration lexical cohesive devices in the articles suggested simplicity in the choice of words in the column.

Finally, the massive use of verbs expressing material processes in the articles strongly contradicted PDI’s invitation for submission which means that “what the young are thinking about” and “what... their thoughts on current issues [are]” are not necessarily the prioritized themes of the youth but instead those that deal with what the writers are doing.

In essence, the younger generation in the Philippines translates their idealisms into a column, in the form of a narrative essay, which is addressed to their fellow youth and beyond. More importantly, they use language as a means of expressing the fact that they are actually “doing something” worth noticing which amplifies and empowers their voice and actions, believed to be irrelevant and counterproductive respectively, challenging the prevailing local elderly beliefs.

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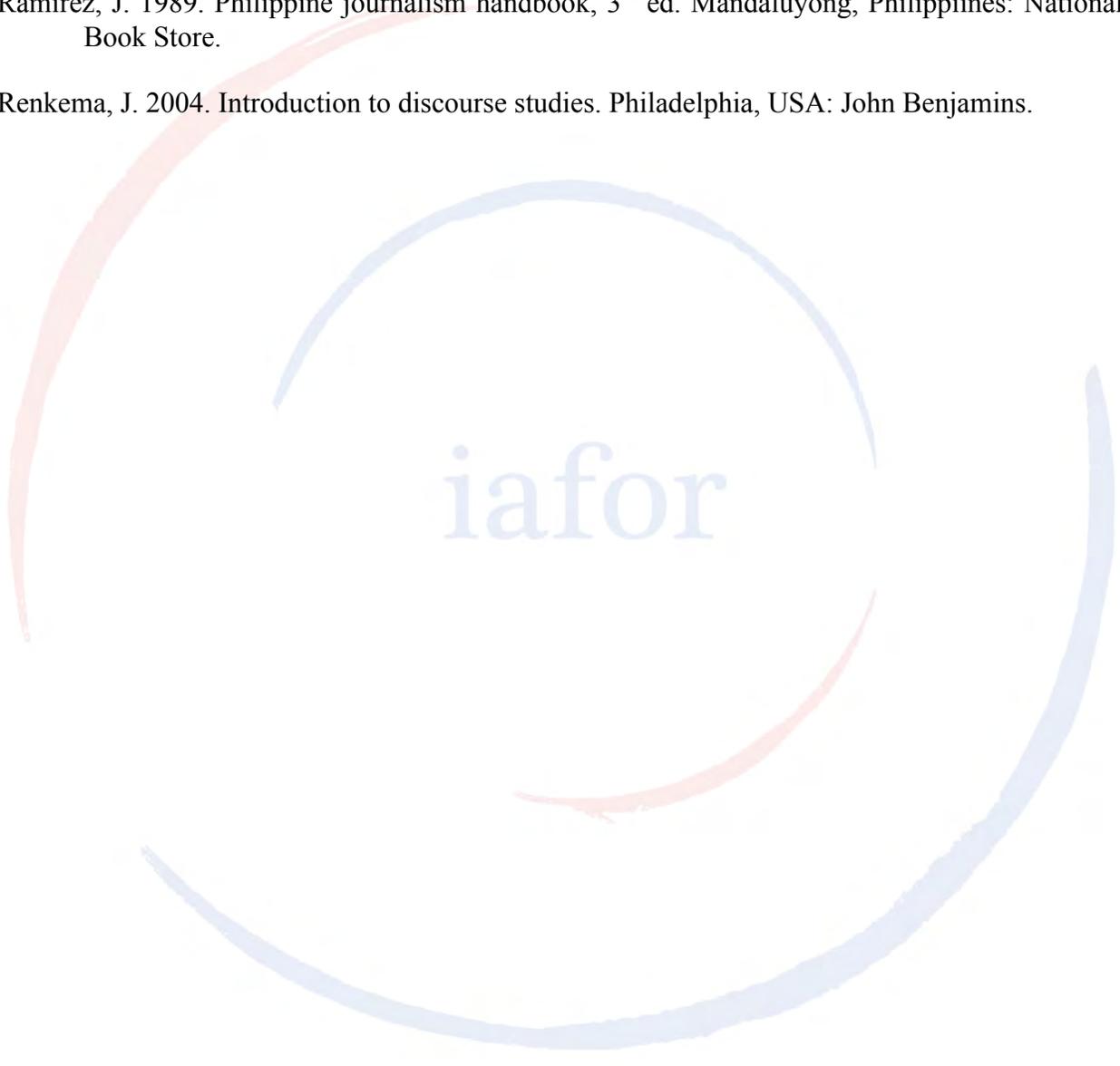
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The logo for the International Association for Language Acquisition (iafor) is centered on the page. It features the lowercase letters "iafor" in a light blue, serif font. The text is surrounded by two large, overlapping, hand-drawn style arcs. The upper arc is light blue and the lower arc is light red, both curving around the central text.

The Effects of Software Editor for Music Video Production to Enhance Creative Thinking of Undergraduate Students

Fisik Sean Buakanok

0239

Lampang Rajabhat University, Thailand

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Abstract:

The purpose of this research is to 1) Study the effects of software for music video production to enhance creative thinking of students in Thailand; 2) Study whether the attitudes of students in software for music video production can enhance creative thinking.

The subjects of this study were 45 first year student who were studying at the Faculty of Education, Lampang Rajabhat University, Thailand. The instruments of this study were 1) Adobe Premiere-Pro software for music video editor; 2) The Torrance Test of Creative thinking (TTCT); 3) The questionnaire of the opinions toward student attitude.

Research finding were reported as follows

The effects of using software for music video editor. The students had earned high creative thinking score. The mean score of students higher than 90 percent.

The students who had learned music video production by software for music video editor have got the posttest mean score of fluency, flexibility, originality, and elaboration and total scores of TTCT was higher than the pretest. In the analysis of Paired Samples T-Tests, the results indicated statistically significant differences in the level of $p > 0.05$

First. the students' opinions toward the software for music video editor that enhance the creative thinking were at the very high level with the mean score of 4.70/5.00. Secondly, the students' opinions on software can support their imagination were at very high level with the mean of 4.60/5.00.

Introduction

Education has long emphasized imparting cognitive competencies, such as logical-mathematical thinking problem solving, and creativity, along with social and personal competencies. Creativity is the ability to see something in a new way, to see and solve problems no one else may know exists, and to engage in mental and physical experiences that are new, unique, or different. Creativity is a critical aspect of a person's life, starting from inside the womb onward through adulthood (Runco, Mark A. and Robert S. Albert 2004). Researchers have found the environment to be more important than heredity in influencing creativity, and a child's creativity can be either strongly encouraged or discouraged by early experiences at home and in school (Einon D, 2002). Creative individuals tend to share certain characteristics, including a tendency to be more impulsive or spontaneous than others then it can also be a sign of creativity. Many creative individuals are unafraid of experimenting with new things; furthermore, creative people are often less susceptible to peer pressure, perhaps because they also tend to be self-reliant and unafraid the voice from their true feelings even if those go against conventional wisdom (Keane, Michael A. 2004). One of the good way to enhance thinking ability of human is learning by music. Using music is a very effective method in increasing the level of genius, knowledge and mental power. Music has many effects on the type of thinking and learning that subsequently, bring out remarkable changes in people's lives. Familiarity with music at an early age certainly enhances these effects and the most important role of learning in humans belongs to that period. Music with the effect on the brain increases endorphins, and thus affects on nerve receptors (Ally J. M., 1979). Thus, if we can combine music with learning activities for students, it could help them enhance creative thinking. The constructivist learning approach also emphasizes such an active process - activity-based practices involve planning and constructing products and systems in an environment outside the school (Brooks & Brooks, 1993). Computerized technological systems can provide a rich learning environment which can expose the learner to a variety of experiences such as true modeling, simulations, algorithms, graphics, and animation. One of the better known examples of computer software that can use for make the abstract idea to be real as graphic an animation is Adobe Premiere-Pro music editor software.

This study of the learning activities in music video production shows that, combined with music, e the factors of thinking, and computer software (the instruments to turn ideas into reality), it can enhance creative thinking of undergraduate students.

Literature Review

What is creativity? Creativity is the ability to see something in a new way, to see and solve problems no one else may know exists, and to engage in mental and physical experiences that are new, unique, or different. Creativity is a critical aspect of a person's life, starting from inside the womb onward through adulthood (Runco, Mark A. and Robert S. Albert 2004) How can creativity be measured? There is no guarantee that children think creatively even if they have creative ability. Creative behaviour may not be generated if children fear new thinking or don't want to be creative. If so, which factors are identified to measure the creativity construct? The abilities required in the creative thinking process include sensitivity, fluency, flexibility, originality, elaboration, and imagination. Characteristics related to creative behaviour are curiosity, run-a-risk, independence, task commitment, humour, and motivation, which are related to the cognitive process for accomplishment. Renzulli's three-ring model (Davis and Rim, 1994) considers above-average intelligence, creativity, and task commitment as important factors that explain giftedness. In this model, both creativity and commitment are much more important factors than intelligence. Terman (1925) said that creativity, achievement motivation, and emotion control ability play a more important role than intelligence. Creative thinking ability

involves fluency, flexibility, originality, and elaboration. In the 1950s, Guilford suggested that if creative thinking can be analyzed according to an intellectual model, then ordinary people in everyday life, also, should be used as subjects of study. Such an approach and intellect model have made it possible to develop paper-pencil tests and other various assessment tools to measure creativity or divergent thinking style (Sternberg & Ben-Zeev, 2001). It was actually the attempts to identify assessment criteria of creative thinking that gave rise to the concepts of fluency, flexibility, originality and elaboration in the thinking processes. Creative individuals are expected to think in numerous different categories or dimensions. These four features – fluency, flexibility, originality and elaboration – are also used extensively to define the manner in which creative individuals think. Creative thinking is assessed using scores of fluency, flexibility originality and elaborative on the tests developed (Torrance 1974). The four criteria are regarded as the basis of creative thinking by researchers today, who, by defining creativity as a cognitive function, also acknowledge that it can be assessed in everyday situations (Mouchiroud and Lubart, 2001)

The Torrance Test of Creative Thinking (TTCT) was developed and used much earlier. In 1966, Torrance published the TTCT in the form of substantial use to as a part of this long-term research program emphasizing classroom that stimulate creativity (Swart 1988). Originally, the TTCT was planned as a basis for individualizing instruction for different students based on the test scores (Torrance, 1966). Results of the TTCT were originally expressed of four factor: Fluency (The number of relevant ideas), Originality (the number of statistically infrequent ideas), Flexibility (the number of shifts or categories in responses), and Elaboration (the number of details used in response).The TTCT can be administered as an individual or group test from the kindergarten level (age 6) through the graduate level and beyond. They require from 30 to 45 minutes working time. So speed is important and the Figural version of the test requires some drawing ability, however, artistic quality is not required to receive credit (Chase, 1985).

Torrance discouraged interpretation of score as static measure of a person's ability and, instead, argued for using the profile of strengths as a mean to understand and nurture a person's creativity (Hebert et al 2002). The TTCT is the most widely used and studied creativity test (Johnson and Fishkin 1999). The TTCT is a standardized measure of creative strengths, is culturally unbiased, provides a comprehensive score, is adapted to grade and age norms, and national percentiles.

A music video or song video is a short film integrating a song and imagery. (Dan Moller: Dan Moller, 2011) Music videos use a wide range of styles of film making techniques, including animation, live action filming, documentaries, and non-narrative approaches such as abstract film. Some music videos blend different styles, such as animation and live action. Many music videos do not interpret images from the song's lyrics, making it less literal than expected. Other music videos may be without a set concept, being merely a filmed version of the song's live performance. (Cutietta, Robert, 1985).

With the emergence of music video production, learners can have the opportunity to learn through their imagination along with music and try to make it real on video by using advanced software. When used appropriately and judiciously, video being a dynamic visual representation, should enhance thinking and assist learning. However it is not clearly evident that music video production technology can enhance creative think though it should . We will use the results of TTCT to explain the difference in creativity which occurs by using editor software to produce Music video.

Methods

Research question

Based on the discussion above, the primary research question of this study is as follows:

Is there a significant difference of Creative thinking between Pre-test and Post-test results after using the software editor for music video production?

Learning Materials

Adobe Premiere is a video editing software package suitable for both amateur enthusiasts and professionals. It can be purchased and used alone, or alongside other applications such as Adobe Photoshop, After Effects, etc. Premiere works by importing video from a source such as a video tape onto your hard drive, then allowing to create new edited versions, add effects, filters, titles, can export back to tape, disc or other medium.

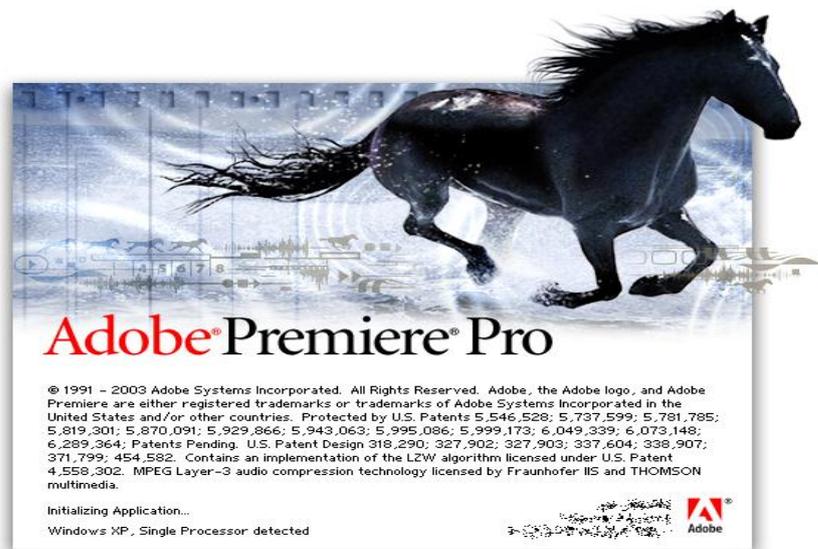


Figure 1: teaching Adobe Premiere Pro

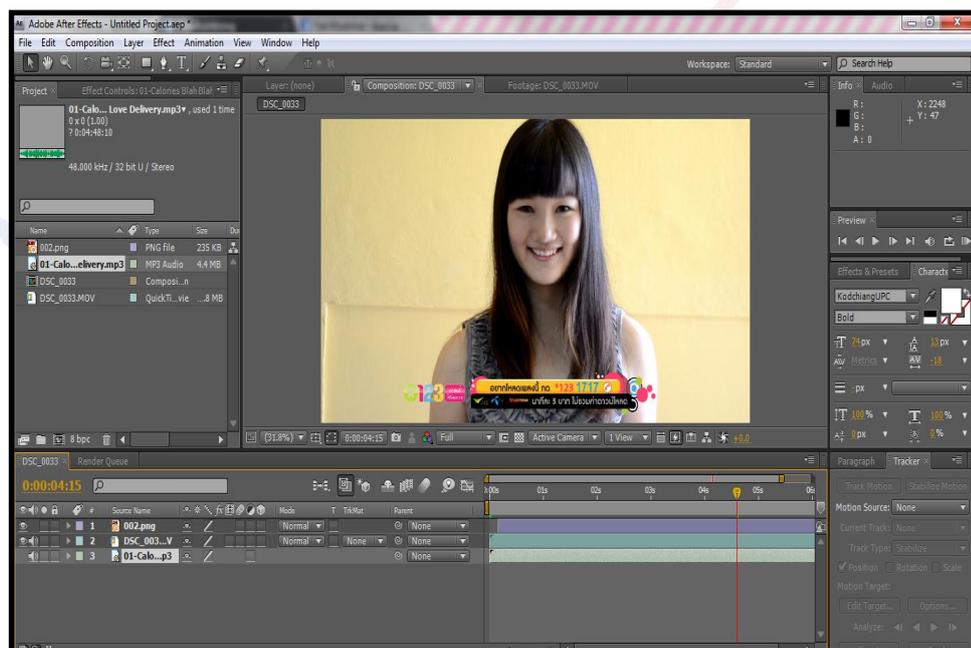


Figure 2: The MV by Adobe Premiere Pro

Test Instruments

Pre-test and post-test were hands on The Torrance Test of Creative Thinking (TTCT). Pre-test and post-test were used on the group of sample that studied and used the Adobe Premiere Pro to produce them music video. Pre-test and post-test were hands on test that required students to create an animation of imagination by following the specific properties assigned. Score were given based on how creative thinking of students in their design. The pre-test was conducted before the learning process and the post-test was conducted after the learning process.

Procedure of study

It was a case-study; it was the Test of creative thinking by TTCT comparison of creative thinking between before and after learning Music Video (MV) production to produce them MV. The data were collected and analyzed then presented in the form of table and graph; the statistics were calculated by mean scores. Creativity means score, standard deviation, t with a significance level of .05

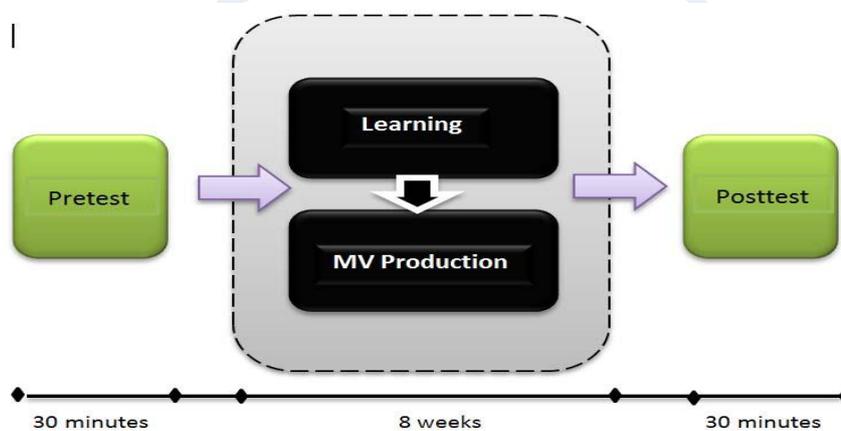


Figure 3: Research Framework

Sample of the study

The research sample comprised 45 undergraduates, whose ages ranged from 17 to 19 years and, were enrolled in a Bachelor's degree in Education.. The study was conducted pre-test by TTCT test to identify students' prior creative thinking was conducted before the study. Thirty minutes were given for them to complete the TTCT test.

After the pre-test, the group of students was studied on how to access and use the Adobe Premiere Pro to produce music video. Students were also encouraged to utilize the user-control elements in the software editor throughout according to their imagination. Approximately, 12 hrs. in 4 weeks were allocated for them to complete the study and 12 hrs, 4 weeks later students were to produce their music video. Upon the completion of the tasks, a post-test was conducted that lasted for half an hour.

Delimitation of the study

The scope of study was narrowed down to only the creative thinking of students in experiment.

Test Instruments

The Torrance Test of Creative Thinking-Figural. (TTCT-Figural), the TTCT-Figural is formally titled “Thinking Creatively with Pictures” It consists of three activities; Picture Construction, Picture Completion, and Repeated Figures of Lines or Circles. Ten minutes are required to complete each activity.

Data collection and interpretation

The primary data were collected from the TTCT-Figural on the drawing by students and analyzed with statistics (creativity mean score, standard deviation, t with a significance level of .05.). The formula used to calculate T (t-test) was SPSS17.0. The data were presented in the form of table and graph.

	Pre-test	Post-test
Fluency	11.24	16.23
Flexibility	10.22	16.38
Originality	12.23	30.45
Elaboration	54.98	83.76

Table 1: Comparison of mean scores, Pre-test and Post-test.

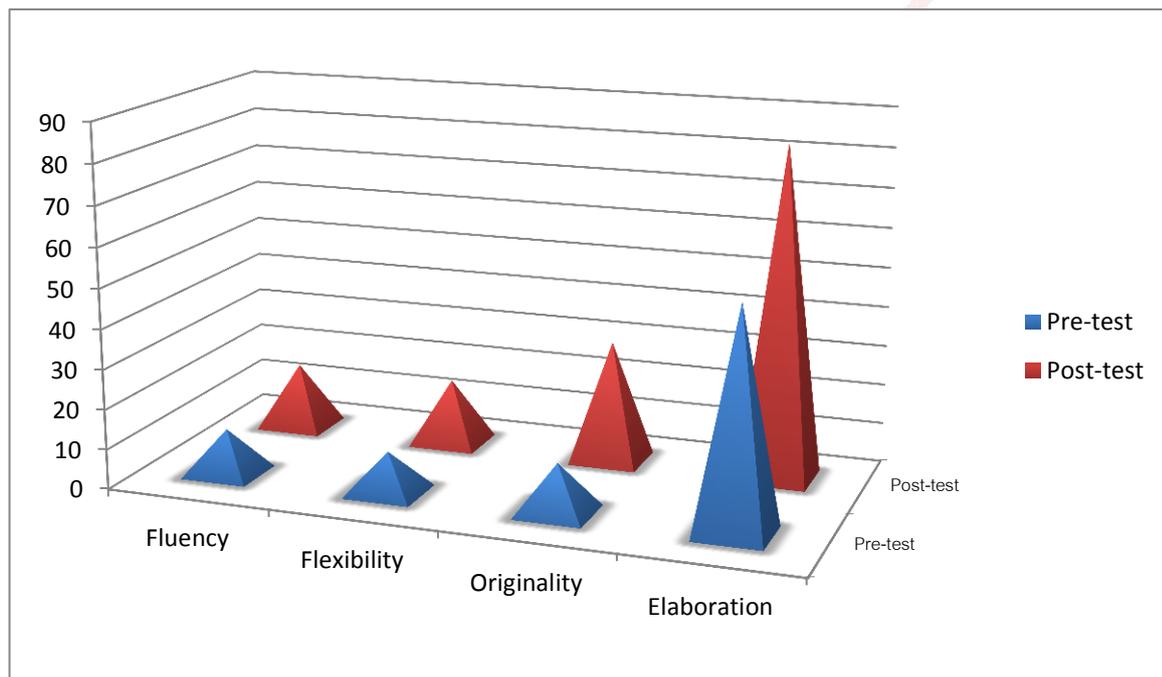


Figure 4: Comparison of mean scores, Pre-test and Post-test.

Results

The results show that the creative thinking of Pre-test and Post-test were significantly different. The Post-test mean scores for Fluency (16.23), Flexibility (16.38), Originality (30.45), and Elaboration (83.76) were significantly higher than the Pre-test mean scores for Fluency (11.24), Flexibility (10.22), Originality(12.23), and Elaboration(54.98)..To summarize, the creative thinking of students before MV activities were lower than after MV activities, to a statistically significant level of .05

The findings of this research tend to shown a difference on the fluency, flexibility, originality, and elaboration. Thus, it can be concluded that the effects of software for music video production can enhance creative thinking of students. This section will discuss which effective on the two places above, considering the present approaches and the results of the studies.

Discussion

In view of the growing influence of technology on the individual and society, technology in education is increasingly becoming an integral component of education for students. This study highlighted the editor software to produce music videos in technology education to promote higher order creative thinking skills in undergraduates. The perception of creative thinking as a synthesis of lateral and vertical thinking emphasizes the cognitive implications of technology education. Technology presents many opportunities for promoting imagination and a wealth of ideas and for developing new products to fulfill human needs and realize human aspirations. Dealing with these issues at campus may engender growth in lateral thinking skills.

Digital technology gives everyone the means to express themselves, and it empowers them to speak... in ways that previous generations could only have imagined. Creators no longer need to rely on the old gatekeepers like professional agencies, editorial boards, and producers. Digital technology allows creators 'to route around' the traditional intermediaries by using the hardware and software in their dorms and homes. (Palfrey & Gasser, 2008, p. 125)

With the emergence of music video production by computer software, learners can have the opportunity to learn in conducive learning environments that are both visually appealing and cognitively compelling. When used appropriately and judiciously, a music video production activity, being a dynamic visual representation, plays a potential role in assisting creative thinking.

Digital technology has indeed changed the way to create music video. Adobe Premeire Pro allowed all students to access their dreams and publish them as films along with music. Most of the techniques they used were learned informally by doing and became a creative thinking process; this included skills in technology, music, and imagination out of the box by using Adobe Premeire Pro. Discussion of new ideas will be based on the information gathered in the case study that will help readers better understand how software editor for music video has effected creative thinking.

Imagine, as one extreme case, a situation in which one person did everything: made everything, invented everything, had all the ideas, performed or executed the work, experienced and appreciated it, all without the assistance or help of anyone else. We can hardly imagine such a thing, because all the arts we know,

like all human activities we know, involve the cooperation of others (Becker, 2008/1982, p. 7).

Another highlight of this study is that the students were able to complete the Music Video as requested. However, based on the observation, they seem have some difficulty in completing some picture follow them imagination, because of lack the expertise

The reason is that the production of music video can develop their creativity, not only from technology in the software. The another factor is music because music are effect in learning, memory and thinking. The influence of music on society can be clearly seen from modern history. Music helped Thomas Jefferson write the Declaration of Independence. When he could not figure out the right wording for a certain part, he would play his violin to help him. The music helped him get the words from his brain onto the paper (Lundin Robert,1985) Even though, Albert Einstein is recognized as one of the smartest men who has ever lived. Einstein himself says that the reason he was so smart is because he played the violin. He loved the music of Mozart and Bach the most. A friend of Einstein, G.J. Withrow, said that the way Einstein figured out his problems and equations was by improvising on the violin. Moreover, in creativity, music is a phenomenal catalyst for connecting with creative energy(Jourdain, Robert,1997)

“Even if you don't feel any urges, continue listening to the music while you work on your project. You will not know how this part works until after you are done creating, so don't try to think it through. Just create while listening.”

Music may be effective not only at "hiding" or covering up some of creative thinking, but also as a tool for enhancing the learning process. Thus, when students interact with music by the implementation of their activities such as make astory board, script writting for MV and video editing with the use of imagination and logical reasoning which creativity occurs. The power of music to affect memory is quite intriguing. The simultaneous left and right brain action maximizes learning and retention of information. The information being studied activates the left brain while the music activates the right brain. Also, activities which engage both sides of the brain at the same time, such as playing an instrument or singing, causes the brain to be more capable of processing information.

However, fulfillment of the existing potential in technology education for promoting higher order competencies does not happen spontaneously.

Conclusion

This study shows that introducing “software to produce MV” into technology helps to develop an awareness of thinking among the students and gives them new tools for observing, thinking, and reflecting on thinking. The suggested assessment scale of creative thinking. The Journal of Technology Studies can help educators strive for a gradual development of higher order thinking skills in two main areas. The first is choosing the project topics for the pupils, their complexity, level of expectation for originality and creativity on the one hand, and the extent of using mathematical-logical and scientific thinking on the other hand. The second area of gradual progress is developing learning and thinking processes in class, problem solving, teamwork, and reflection on thinking. Thus, learning through technology projects based on music video production and directed towards a systematic development of vertical and lateral thinking may promote teaching and learning that assist the undergraduate’s successful integration into a dynamic and changing world.

Recommendation

Further study is warranted to explore the impacts of other multimedia elements on learning particularly on the effects of text as verbal information via the promising instructional screencast design strategy. Another focus that may interest researchers is the examination of this learning tool on higher taxonomic level of cognition

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From Mirror Neurons to Comportment: The Role of Motor Learning in Second Language Acquisition

Randall Ulveland

0242

Western Oregon University, USA

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Abstract:

This paper examines some implications for language learning from a non-representationalist philosophical, biological, and cognitive perspective. The works of Martin Heidegger, Humberto Maturana, and Giacomo Rizzolatti are the primary works referenced. I examine some historical events, from Leonardo Da Vinci's interest in optics, through Heidegger's and Maturana's arguments against representationalist thinking, to some of the most recent insights into Mirror Neurons developed by Giacomo Rizzolatti. These ideas help inform some of the work I have been doing in developing language learning programs.

When I was a child my father taught me how to make a camera obscura. We would take a shoe box, paint the inside black, tape a white sheet on the inside at one end and poke a pin-hole through the side at the other end. Then we would cut an opening in the top so that we could peer into the box without allowing any light, other than through the pinhole, to enter the box. When we looked into the box we could see images of the outside world projected on the inside screen.

“Look, you can see the tree,” I imagine my words ringing out.

“Turn it over this way and see if you can see our house,” may have been my father’s reply.

While I don’t remember the exact words I used in conversing with my father, I can remember the wonder and excitement I felt with my little hand-held camera. Much later in my life I heard that 17th century Leonardo Da Vinci, too, knew of the camera obscura. I wondered if he shared a similar experience to mine as he first peered at an image projected onto the wall of a darkened chamber. It was certainly meaningful enough for him to liken the workings of the eye to the physics of the camera obscura.¹ He wrote:

Who would believe that so small a space could contain the image of all the universe? O mighty process! What talent can avail to penetrate a nature such as these? What tongue will it be that can unfold so great a wonder? Verily, none! This it is that guides the human discourse to the considering of divine things. Here the figures, here the colors, here all the images of every part of the universe are contracted to a point. O what a point is so marvelous! (McCurdy 1908, p. 117)

Da Vinci recognized nothing less than the divine, the mechanisms of science, and the workings of the visual anatomy, in what today seems like a simple event. He also recognized the unexplained, whether the divine or the infinite. In our reading of Da Vinci’s passage we are apt to consider how representations of the outside universe enter into this little box, or indeed, for Da Vinci, into the eye.² We are drawn into his language, a language that suggests an outside world distinct from the on-looking observer. Perhaps we are taken or moved by the language because that is the language that dominates our own thinking. I know that as a child I did not think in such grandiose terms. I, of course, lacked the developed sensitivity to art, science, and language that Da Vinci had achieved. But I, too, witnessed the outside projected onto the screen of an interior chamber.

Our everyday language suggests that Da Vinci brought an elaborated frame of reference and a background of understanding to his encounter with the camera obscura, one that far surpassed my child-like observations. It is easy to think that Da Vinci’s descriptions differ because of his knowledge—his sophisticated perception and eloquent descriptions clearly set him apart from my seeming innocence. But perhaps this is faulty thinking. It may be that Da Vinci’s experience was far more similar to my child-like experience than

¹ See also Calder for a description of how Da Vinci used a sheet of paper with a small hole in it to visually examine how light rays converged into a cone and then diverged to project an image on a white wall. (Calder 1970, pp. 57 – 59)

² See Richter for a translation of Da Vinci’s discussion and explanation of the eye as it relates to the camera obscura. (Richter 1970, pp. 71-72)

what might appear. His description was written after his encounter with the camera obscura. If we could travel back in time and stand with Leonardo as he first peered onto the screen of the darkened chamber, his initial response might well have been, “Isn’t this interesting. I can see that tree.” Da Vinci’s observations depicting the divine were written in hindsight, from an observer’s point of view, perhaps giving us the illusion of one ‘bringing background understanding to the experience.’ One might, rather, suggest that Da Vinci brings his corporeal experience with the camera obscura to the conceptual considerations of the eye as well as to the infinite and the divine, not the infinite and the divine to the camera obscura. But perhaps more importantly our language elicits the idea of Da Vinci bringing some *thing* forward to his writing. ‘Bringing-to’ suggests a distinction between subject and object, between subject and knowledge. Our everyday language gives us the impression that what we experience is distinct, thing-like, which we then bring forward to our experience so that we might bring meaning to the experience. Perhaps herein lies what Da Vinci and I really shared—the intuition that there is a real world viewed by an independent viewer as my own child-like description as well as Da Vinci’s observations seem to attest.

Da Vinci’s written observations, and our considerations of ‘bringing-to,’ are derived from an observer’s perspective, not from the direct experience of the one experiencing. The conceptual language of the observer differs from the experience of the one directly experiencing an event. The one experiencing the event first hand has a ‘pre-conceptual’ engagement. Giacomo Rizzolatti (2006), another Italian researcher, though living 400 years after Da Vinci, shares an example of similar pre-conceptual understanding from his research on neuronal activity. According to Rizzolatti, when we see someone reach for a cup of coffee, we understand his/her actions, not because we bring something to the interpretation, but rather because, the same neurons that are fired when *we* reach for a cup of coffee are fired when we see *the other* reach for a cup of coffee (pp. 34-36). The other’s actions move us, we move the other. The other’s words move us, ours the other. It would seem that we simply share that same compartment vocabulary.

Let us not forget the camera obscura. What begins in wonder can be transformed into metaphor and any variety of interpretations. The experience of a simple camera obscura that presumably began in wonderment was historically transformed into, and in many ways remains, a metaphor for rationalist and empiricist thought of how the world can be represented or mirrored in the mind.

Seventeenth century philosopher John Locke allowed this piece of technology to enframe his understanding of the working of the human brain. In his influential work, *Essay Concerning Human Understanding* Locke (1836) wrote:

[E]xternal and internal sensations are the only passages, that I can find, of knowledge to the understanding. These alone, as far as I can discover, are the windows by which light is let into this dark room: for, methinks, the understanding is not much unlike a closet wholly shut from light, with only some little opening left, to let in external visible resemblances, or ideas of things without; would the pictures coming into such a dark room but stay there, and lie

so orderly as to be found upon occasion, it would very much resemble the understanding of a man, in reference to all objects of sight, and the ideas of them. (Locke, J., p. 95)

As a child, I had nothing in need of explanation that might benefit from my dealings with a camera obscura—no leaps of faith. For philosophers and scientists in need of explanations, it is easy for technologies to form the metaphors for the unexplained. When trying to explain the unknown we are quick to adopt our experiences-with-artifacts to bring meaning to the unexplained. By doing so we do explain: but, by doing so, we enframe. It seems that little can escape the enframing once the metaphoric language is a part of the discourse.

I am interested in the way our corporeal experiences with technologies shape our language. When I say “technologies shape our language” I am referring to the compartments that we establish by using artifacts that are in turn outered in and as language. By compartment, I mean a definable bodily act—an intentional act defined through language as having a distinct beginning and end. For example: I opened the drawer; I turned on the computer; I picked up my coffee cup and took a drink. Each is an act that stands on its own. I am also interested in the way our compartments and our language are connected. For it seems that an understanding of this holds interesting possibilities in language learning—in all learning. Our corporeal experiences and our language intertwine.

The 20th century writings of German philosopher Martin Heidegger had a substantial influence in shifting thinking away from the representationalist / rationalistic tradition, a tradition that accepts the existence of an objective reality with property bearing-objects from which information is gathered by cognitive beings. Heidegger worked resolutely to challenge representationalism and overthrow our reliance on the metaphysical / Cartesian thinking that held sway.³ With Heidegger, everyday *experience* began to play a greater role in understanding our everyday ‘being-in-the-world.’ In our everyday dwelling, according to Heidegger, human beings do not perceive a distinct set of objects in everyday dealings with the world. Cognition is not based on the systematic manipulation of representations. Any subject / object split denies the more fundamental unity of being-in-the-world. Pre-reflective thinking, the primacy of experience and understanding, operates without reflection. Human beings are, rather, coping in their being-in-the-world. According to Heidegger, transparent coping, a nonthematic circumspective, is the way of Dasein.⁴ It is only when we encounter problems needing deliberate attention—breakdown—that we find ourselves falling out of absorbed coping. This way of thinking has implications not only for understanding one’s corporeal being but also for understanding the corporeal nature of language.

³ Much of Heidegger’s work argued against representationalist thinking comes from his seminal work *Being and Time*. For an excellent commentary on *Being and Time*, see, Dreyfus (1995).

⁴ Dasein roughly translate to “everyday human existence.”

Had Locke known of Heidegger's work at the time he likened human understanding to a camera obscura, he might rather have said, "I experience the camera obscura as an object independent from myself only when there is breakdown in my everyday dealings with things. Only during breakdown do I feel the need to explain." Of course, we have no way of knowing what Locke would have said.

While Heidegger was performing his ontological analysis, Jerome Letting, along with Cognitive biologist Humberto Maturana and others, from MIT, were carrying out neurophysiological studies on frogs. From their early work came the seminal paper, "What The Frog's Eye Tells The Frog's Brain." Ultimately what this paper, and future experiments from these authors, showed, or perhaps confirmed, is that what is perceived from our senses is far from anything that would be considered a direct representation of an image of the outside world. We live and experience a nervous system—a system that has more to do with the excitation of fibers and electric impulses resulting in a structural coupling between our nervous system and our environment. The researchers showed that according to the make-up of the frog's eye, the frog doesn't have a representation of a fly. Rather, a certain fiber in the eye responds to light and dark triggering a response from the tongue. Also, the researchers recognized that our nervous system does not differentiate between perturbations from outside of the body or perturbations induced within. Importantly, the nervous system does not have inputs and outputs, as our traditional discourse suggests, but, rather, is perturbed by the structural changes in the network itself. This ultimately influenced Maturana's theory of structural coupling. Not only is the nervous system perturbed by the medium in which it exists, the structure of the nervous system specifies what structural configurations of the medium can perturb it (Winnograd p. 43).

Maturana and Varela (1992) extended this work into a new conception of language. We are reminded: "Every human act takes place in language. Every act in language brings forth a world created with others in the act of coexistence which gives rise to what is human" (p. 247). We live language not to codify things but, rather, to orient ourselves to the world and to couple structurally with others and the world in which we live, much like the dance-like patterns of a male and female in a mating ritual. In this way of thinking, the function of language is not to point out independent entities and gather information about those entities but rather to orient one to one's coupling with entities. To quote from Maturana (1980):

"The basic function of language as a system of orienting behavior is not the transmission of information or the description of an independent universe about which we can talk, but the creation of a consensual domain of behavior between linguistically interacting systems through the development of a cooperative domain of interactions." (p. 50)

This, of course, has powerful implications for how one might perceive learning. In Maturana's way of thinking:

“Learning is not a process of accumulation of representation of the environment; it is a continuous process of transformation of behavior through continuous change in the capacity of the nervous system to synthesize it. Recall does not depend on the indefinite retention of a structural invariant that represents an entity (an idea, image, or symbol), but on the functional ability of the system to create, when certain recurrent conditions are given, a behavior that satisfies the recurrent demands of what the observer would class as a reenacting of a previous one.” (p. 45)

Had Locke known of Maturana’s work he might have said: “As a structure-determined system, my experience with the camera obscura will have me evolve in such a way that my nervous system is properly coupled to this device. Given that my nervous system is perturbed by this medium I must change so that I generate appropriate changes of state.”

Of course, we have no idea what Locke might have said.

In 1963, shortly after Maturana’s early involvement with the frog experiments, two researchers at Brandeis University, Richard Held and Alan Hein (1963), were researching into how exposure to the environment influenced spatial perception and coordination. By restricting the physical experience of newborn kittens, Held and Hein were able to suggest that spatial perception and coordination would be affected if the animal’s physical movement was confined or constructed. The purpose of the experiment was to test whether an animal’s visual system and corporeal understanding of the world would develop without accompanying bodily exploration. In other words, do individuals need to experience self-generated movement to learn?

The experiment involved 10 pairs of kittens, each from a different litter. Each of the paired kittens was exposed to the test environment; however, one was comfortably confined to a basket, with its legs extending through the base, while the other was able to move freely around the confinement. The kitten in the basket was tethered in such a way that even though it was immobile, it visually witnessed the same environmental aspects as did the mobile kitten.

For six weeks the kittens spent three hours a day in the testing environment; the remaining hours were spent in darkness with the mother and the rest of the litter. After six weeks the kittens were tested on their ability to discriminate depths, avoid objects, visually guide and place their paws, and blink in reaction to approaching objects. The kittens having been prevented from using self-produced movements lacked these abilities suggesting that, the development of visually-guided behavior requires exploration, self-produced movement, and concurrent visual feedback.

Had Locke known of this experiment he might have brought kinesthetic exploration to the forefront of his thinking. He might have said, “I only understand what I see in this little box because I have had bodily, corporeal, experience with those objects projected on the screen.” Of course, we have no way of knowing what Locke might have said.

Nearly four decades after Held and Hein were developing their insights on the importance of motor activity, neuroscientist Giacomo Rizzolatti (2006), along with some of his graduate students, were recording electrical activity from neurons in the brain of a macaque monkey. Rizzolatti was looking for neurons in the monkey's brain that would fire when the monkey performed certain actions. The researchers were able to pinpoint sets of neurons that would fire when the macaque would reach and grasp an object, or bring food up to its mouth to eat. The monkey, as the story goes, was sitting with electrodes still attached to its pre-motor cortex while the researchers took a lunch break. Suddenly, when the monkey saw one of the graduate students grasping some food, the monkey's grasping neurons fired, the same 'grasping' neurons that fired in the previous test when the monkey had actually grasped something. What was striking was that the monkey's grasping neurons fired even though the monkey had not moved.

Rizzolatti later called these neurons mirror neurons because they seemed to mirror the activity witnessed. Rizzolatti later hypothesized that our understanding of others' actions is a result of sharing the same bodily actions. Of great interest is that the area of the brain that becomes very active when humans do something with their hands, or see someone else do something with their hands is Broca's area—the language area of the brain. Furthermore, similar motor / language neurons re-fire when people see objects that they have come to understand from previous manipulation, such as a box or a telephone.

Had Locke had experience with a functional magnetic resonance imaging device as had Rizzolatti, rather than a camera obscura, he might have said, "Neurons are triggered by the eye. There are no images. Nothing seems to be stored. Simply a re-firing of neurons that have been patterned on previous experience." Of course, we have no way of knowing what Locke might have said.

Conclusion

Studying the works of Heidegger, Maturana, Rizzolatti, and others, and reflecting on the challenges in helping students learn, I have been increasingly convinced that motor components of intact acts are important in conceptual learning and important in language learning. I have attempted, in the preceding, to articulate some of the thinking that has informed the work that I have been doing with language learning—specifically, a program I refer to as Language Dance. Language Dance is a language learning program that includes a dance component whereby students act out, with music, typical components. The music and components are structured in such a way that there is enough repetition of language and motor movements to be memorable and stimulating yet enacted at a pace that is not overly frustrating. There is enough variety that once a language/motor component is established the student is able to advance to other components. The objectives for the program have been largely established by the works of Heidegger, Maturana, and Rizzolatti:

1. Begin by rejecting representationalism.
2. Attempt to deal with the world and others in a way that promotes transparent dealings.

3. Find a way to structurally couple the language learner to what is being learned.
4. Focus on compartments that hold together meaningful acts and understandings.
5. Allow the motor vocabulary that grounds compartments to be vocalized through language.
6. Develop the motor vocabulary and the vocalizations along with intentions.

Our understanding of the interaction between body and language are still in its infancy. But, as new developments are made into understanding the workings of the neural mechanisms of language and motor compartments, we may see some of the language programs based on representationalist thinking give way to innovations that recognize the need for motor thinking.

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Conceptualizing the Role of the English Language Teacher Within and Beyond the Native Speaker Construct: A Focus on Japan

Nathanael Rudolph, Yuko Igarashi

0245

Mukogawa Women's University, Japan

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Abstract:

This critical literature review presents two conceptual portraits of the roles of “Native English Speaker Teachers (NESTs)” and “Non-Native English Speaker Teachers (NNESTs),” with a subsequent focus on the Japanese context. One conceptualization, characterizes the NS as the owner and gatekeeper of English. Rendered deficient by the construct, the NNEST may serve as a *gatekeeper* of a portion of this knowledge, as well as a gatekeeper of his or her language and “culture.” In contrast, literature seeking to move beyond the NS construct conceptualizes both NESTs and NNESTs as individuals who necessarily relinquish the linguistic and cultural authority afforded them by the NS construct. As *negotiators*, these teachers challenge the regimes of truth (Foucault, 1984) that privilege the NS, while practicing critical pragmatism (Pennycook, 1997). The authors argue that this article may serve as a catalyst for discussion of community building, professionalism and practice in English language teaching.

1. Introduction

In English language-related theory, research, policy and practice, there exist two conflicting conceptual portraits of the roles of “Native” and “Non-Native” English Speakers (NSs and NNSs) as teachers.¹ The first and most dominant conceptualization, presents an idealized NS as the legitimate owner of English, and by birthright the most capable teacher (e.g., Widdowson, 1994; Canagarajah, 1999; Leung, 2005). As such, the NS serves as the chief *gatekeeper* of the linguistic and sociocultural riches of the language, rendering the Non Native English Speaker Teacher (NNEST) deficient. According to this construct, NNESTs may also serve as *gatekeepers*, though ultimate linguistic and cultural authority rests in the hands of the NS. This authority works in the reverse as well. The NNEST possesses his or her own linguistic and sociocultural knowledge and identity that individuals whose mother tongue and “culture” are not Japanese, may only attempt to approximate.

Postcolonial (e.g., Kachru, 1985, 1992; Phillipson, 1992; Nayar, 1997; Rajadurai, 2005), postmodern (e.g., Bhabha, 1994, 1996; Norton Pierce, 1995; Norton, 1997, 2006, 2010; Canagarajah, 1999; 2006a, 2006b, 2006c, 2007; Appadurai, 2000; Alptekin, 2002; Jenkins, 2006a, 2006b) and sociocultural-informed scholarship (e.g., Donato, 1994; Lantolf and Appel, 1994; Firth, 1996, 2009; Firth and Wagner, 1997; Lantolf, 2000; Swain, 2000, 2006; Block, 2003; Swain and Deters, 2007), has provided for an alternative approach to conceptualizing NNESTs and Native English Speaker Teachers (NESTs). This perspective argues English is used in a variety of contexts around the world for a plethora of reasons, between a wide range of peoples (e.g., Canagarajah, 2007). As a result, the language and culture of the idealized NS will likely not serve the localized needs of learners (e.g., Widdowson, 1998, 2004; Canagarajah, 2006c). The goal of instruction is to equip students with the linguistic and cultural knowledge that will allow him or her to successfully negotiate meaning in interaction in the context in which he or she functions (e.g., Kachru, 1997; Alptekin, 2002; McKay, 2003; Leung, 2005; Canagarajah, 2007). “Native” or “Non-Native” is, in essence, a moot question. The question instead becomes who might be equipped to prepare learners for the contexts in which they will likely use English.

Both NESTs and NNESTs from this perspective are *negotiators*, challenging an NS construct that renders the contextualized use and users of English marginalized. In doing so, these teachers are charged with pursuing knowledge of the context in which their learners will likely use English. They are charged with the pursuit of community building and inclusivity in their interactions with all stakeholders in the field of English language teaching (ELT), with the interest of their students ultimately in mind. NESTs would be willing to relinquish ownership of English. NNESTs would also surrender the linguistic and cultural authority they are afforded by the NS construct governing their own language.

The ramifications of conceptualizing NESTs and NNESTs as negotiators are potentially great for researchers, policymakers, practitioners, and students alike. Indeed, such a reconceptualization reaches beyond English language-related research, policy, practice, towards the sociohistorically-situated macro-discourses that perpetuate the regimes of truth (Foucault, 1984) regarding language ownership, and the relationship between language and identity.

There is one important caveat that we contend must be addressed upfront. In employing the terms “gatekeeper” and “negotiator,” we are not constructing a new binary, like that of the NS/NNS or NEST/NNEST. Indeed, we have selected the terms “gatekeeper” and “negotiator,” as they are difficult to fathom as logical opposites. Our purpose for presenting these two conceptualizations is to

incite and/or further dialogue related to how theoretical perspectives of NESTs and NNESTs translate into real-world, contextualized action in the field of ELT. Doing so, we believe, will draw attention to the following issues: 1) working towards meeting the contextualized needs and goals of language learners around the world; 2) issues of inequity within ELT; 3) the continuing professionalization of ELT; 4) laying the groundwork for community building between “Native” and “Non-Native” teachers.

2. Organization of the Paper

We first present portraits of the NEST and NNEST as theoretically grounded in the NS construct. We will draw upon the literature in order to paint a picture of how the roles of NESTs and NNESTs are conceptualized. We then explore the way in which such a conceptualization manifests in the Japanese context, as an example. Next, we examine how postcolonial, postmodern and sociocultural-inspired inquiry conceptualizes the NEST and NNEST. We pay particular attention to the ways in which such theory challenges the regimes of truth perpetuating the NS construct. We subsequently discuss the implications theory intending to move beyond the NS construct might have critically and practically upon ELT, with a contextualized focus on Japan.

3. NESTs, NNESTs and Gate-keeping

In this section, we explore the nature and prominence of the NS construct in English language-related theory, research, policy, teacher training, curriculum and materials development, and practice. Grounded in theory underpinning the NS construct, we then present a conceptualization of NESTs and NNESTs as gatekeepers.

3.1 NSs and NESTs

The NS construct is a framework that assigns an idealized NS as the linguistic and cultural target for acquisition. As such, the idealized NS is deemed the owner and gatekeeper of English (e.g., Leung, 2005), and the yardstick by which all users of English might be measured, regardless of context (e.g., Medgyes, 1994; Leung, 2005; Canagarajah, 2007.). The roots of linguistic theory underpinning the construct can be traced to Noam Chomsky’s (1965) scholarship related to language competence. Chomsky (1965) divides language competence into competence and performance. Competence is the knowledge possessed by an ideal (native) speaker/listener within a homogenous speech community; performance refers to the underlying rules of performance, and not use: “Linguistic theory is concerned primarily with an ideal speaker-listener, in a completely homogeneous speech community, who knows its language perfectly and is unaffected by such grammatically irrelevant conditions as memory limitations, distractions, shifts of attention and interests, and errors (random or characteristic) in applying his knowledge of the language in actual performance” (Chomsky, 1965, p.3). In this model, linguistic knowledge exists apart from socio-cultural elements.

Hymes (1972) took issue with the notion of an ‘idealized speaker’ of a language, the lack of a place for the socio-cultural features of a language, and with the confusion over the nature of ‘performance.’ According to Hymes (1972), who first coined the term communicative competence, competence involves four components: the formal *possibility* of something in use; the *feasibility of something* in terms of cognitive resources and time; the *appropriateness* of something in relation to a context in which it is used and evaluated; the *actual use* of something within a speech community. Hymes (1972, pp. 277-279) made a few key observations related to competency, noting children,

“develop a general theory of the speaking appropriate in their community, which they employ, like other forms of tacit cultural knowledge (competence) in conducting and interpreting social life”, and that “The competency of users of language entails abilities and judgments relative to, and interdependent with, socio-cultural features.” Hymes was therefore negating the notion of an idealized speaker, as well as noting that competency included much more than the grammar and lexis of a language. Socio-cultural factors were not to be overlooked, as they were intertwined with structure and lexicon.

Despite such challenges, however, the NS construct persisted. Canale and Swain’s (1980) framework for communicative competence, which serves as “the bedrock of transnationalized ELT” (Leung, 2005, p. 128), ironically unified the NS construct and Hymesian communicative competence. According to Canale and Swain (1980, p. 16): “[k]nowledge of what a native speaker is likely to say in a given context is to us a crucial component of second language learners’ competence to understand second language communication and to express themselves in a native-like way...” In other words, sociocultural knowledge was key to communicative competence, though an idealized NS remained the linguistic and cultural target for acquisition.

Subsequent frameworks for communicative competence (e.g., Canale, 1983; Bachman, 1990; Celce-Murcia et al., 1995; Celce-Murcia, 1995; Bachman and Palmer, 1996; Celce-Murcia, 2007) also ground themselves in Canale and Swain’s (1980) original framework. Jenkins (2006b, p. 139) contends the NS construct permeates mainstreamⁱⁱ second language acquisition (SLA) theory: “Differences between NS and NNS production (and reception), whether linguistic, pragmatic or sociocultural, can, in this sense, be considered errors that result from incomplete L2 acquisition and that require remediation, and code-switching/code-mixing as primarily the result of gaps in knowledge of the appropriate NS forms.” Kachru (2005) concurs, noting that SLA theory does not transcend the notion of an idealized speaker.

When speaking of the NS construct, the question always emerges: who is the NS whose linguistic, pragmatic and sociocultural knowledge is to be privileged? According to Braine (2010) and Kubota (1998, 2002, 2011) this NS is most often perceived as Western and Caucasian (and often male) in nature, both implicitly and explicitly within the literature and by the majority of stakeholders within the field of ELT around the world. As a result, this NS is deemed the owner and *gatekeeper* of English (e.g., Widdowson, 1994, 1999, 2004; Leung, 2005). Canagarajah (1999) notes that this NS “fallacy” (Phillipson, 1992) grants NSs default expertise as language teachers, researchers and users, thereby privileging NSs by birth, and not by professional training. As teachers, via their status as NSs, these individuals are excused from knowledge of the linguistic and sociocultural context in which they teach (Canagarajah, 1999).

According to Pennycook (1994) and Phillipson (1992), teacher education programs do not broach subjects related to sociology and culture. Kachru (1992) states that the NS Fallacy has been extended to include individuals such as the developers of ELT materials, who in turn perpetuate notions of the necessary centrality (and superiority) of the NS. Nayar (1997) argues that publishing companies and other materials developers have exploited the NS construct, mass producing materials, for sale around the world, wherein the idealized NS is supreme, and whoever controls the flow of such materials controls the wealth of the field. Kachru (2005, p. 160) concurs, noting the “tremendous cultural, economic and political advantages” the control of such affords a target country. Thus, around the world, for countless NSs and NNSs alike, in SLA, Applied Linguistics and ELT literature, in educational institutions, publishing and other companies, and in government settings,

the NS construct remains dominant (e.g., Firth, 2009; Braine, 2010; Mahboob, 2010). Rooted in the construct, the NS and therefore NEST is an expert, and most importantly, a *gatekeeper*.

3.2 NNSs and NNESTs

What of the NNS? The linguistic and cultural knowledge of the NNS is rendered deficient as measured against the yardstick of the idealized NS (e.g., Jenkins, 2006b). NNS linguistic and cultural knowledge is deemed “interlanguage” (Selinker, 1992, p. 231): “the observable output resulting from a speaker’s attempt to produce a foreign norm, i.e., both his errors and non errors.” As such, for the NNS, “the standard always wins, the ‘comparee’ always loses” (Nelson, 1985, p. 249). The identity of the NNS, as well as the context in which they are potentially using English, may therefore be neglected and/or marginalized as the culture and language of the NS is prioritized (Alptekin, 2002; Widdowson, 2004).

NNESTs face particular challenges as a result of the NS construct. They may self-depreciate their linguistic proficiency in concert with being rendered deficient via the influence of the NS construct (Braine, 2010). NNSs’ may question their viability as instructors and full members of the ELT and research community, as may others (Canagarajah, 1999). Lacking confidence, NNESTs may rely heavily on textbooks, though such textbooks may reinforce a feeling of deficiency as NNESTs may lack the linguistic and sociocultural knowledge prioritized within (Braine, 2010). In addition, many NNESTs travel to Core countriesⁱⁱⁱ to study and gain some semblance of authority (Braine, 2010). Even with such training, NNESTs face difficulties in finding employment, as their professional standing as researchers and teachers is denigrated by nature of their identities and origins (Canagarajah, 1999). NNESTs may, like many of their NS counterparts, come to serve as “gatekeepers” (Widdowson, 1994) of the English language, mediating between the world of the NS and that of their students. In such a case, ownership of English rests with the idealized NS (Widdowson, 1994) and the NNEST may only serve as a deficient shadow of such an individual (Nelson, 1985; Leung, 2005).

3.3 Gate-keeping and Japan

Gate-keeping in terms of English in the Japanese context, has manifested in numerous ways since its arrival as a means by which to transmit Western thought into Japan in the interest of modernization (see: Iino, 2002) in the Meiji period (Law, 1995). The historical discourses of *datsu-a-ron*, *nihonjinron* and *kokusaika*,^{iv} coupled with the use of standardized testing (e.g., entrance examinations, the center shiken, TOEIC and TOEFL), and a pervading belief in the NS Fallacy (Phillipson, 1992) have all led to a perpetuation of the NS construct. NSs, particularly those of Anglo-Saxon origin (Kubota, 1998, 2011; Braine, 2010)^v continue to be privileged as the linguistic and cultural targets for acquisition, and the ideal gatekeepers of the English language. Such NSs are often privileged in hiring practices (over other speakers of English, and at times over Japanese teachers of English), and as representatives of schools (Kubota, 1998, 2011; Canagarajah, 1999; Braine, 2010).^{vi} In terms of professional participation, The Japan Association for Language Teaching (JALT), the allotted representative of TESOL International in Japan and the largest professional language teaching organization in country, is NS-centric (e.g., Oda, 1999).

Through the lens of the NS construct, NNEST gate keeping materializes in many complex ways in Japan. The NNEST serves concomitantly as a gatekeeper of an incomplete portion of the linguistic and cultural knowledge of the NS, and as a teacher-as-gatekeeper within an academic and social

system influenced by Confucianism (e.g., Taylor and Taylor, 1995), wherein the teacher is the authority, imparting knowledge to students whose role is receptive in nature (Nguyen et al., 2006). This NNEST is, in addition, a gatekeeper of the linguistic and sociocultural knowledge of Japanese. As such, an impassible cultural and linguistic divide exists between NESTs and NNESTs. Each serves a role, yet cannot fulfill the role of the other. Situated in Japan, the NS is both afforded advantages and isolated (Rudolph, 2011). The NNEST is marginalized by the NS construct related to English, yet advantaged by the NS construct as applied to Japanese. Whatever the case, according to the NS construct, both NESTs and NNESTs are gatekeepers.

4. “NESTs” and “NNESTs” as Negotiators

In this section we examine literature seeking to move beyond the NS construct. Grounded in the literature, we present a conceptual portrait of the role of NESTs and NNESTs. We then discuss the implications that theory intending to move beyond the NS construct might have critically and practically upon ELT, as contextualized in Japan.

4.1 Towards Moving Beyond the NS Construct

In recent decades, in the spirit of addressing Alistair Pennycook's (1990, p. 26) call for “the need to rethink language acquisition in its social, cultural and political contexts, taking into account gender, race, and other relations of power as well as the notion of the subject as multiple and formed within different discourses”, scholars and teachers have sought to challenge the NS as the appropriate cultural and linguistic target for acquisition in each and every context for English language learning and use around the world. These challenges are both pragmatic and critical in nature, positing that deconstructing the NS construct is about both examining learning and instruction-related theory AND scrutinizing the power perpetuated by the regimes of truth guiding the NS construct (e.g., Phillipson, 1992; Widdowson, 1994; Leung, 2005; Jenkins, 2006b; Canagarajah, 2007; Firth, 2009). Inspired by postcolonial, postmodern and sociocultural-informed theory and inquiry, such scholarship^{vii} calls for the reconceptualization of language ownership (e.g., Kachru, 1985, 1991; Nelson, 1985; Pennycook, 1990, 1994, 1999; Widdowson, 1994, 1998, 2004; Leung, 2005; Jenkins, 2006b; Canagarajah, 2007), and by proxy the way in which communicative competence (e.g., Alptekin, 2002; Kachru, 2005; Leung, 2005; Rajadurai, 2005; Canagarajah, 2006a, 2006b, 2006c; Jenkins, 2006b), identity (e.g., Norton Pierce, 1995; Norton, 1997, 2006, 2010; McKay and Wong, 1996; Blackledge and Pavlenko, 2001; Kubota, 2001; Pavlenko, 2002; Miller, 2004), “culture” (e.g., Kramersch, 1998; Pavlenko, 2002; Norton, 2010) language policy (e.g., Phillipson, 1992, 2003; Canagarajah, 2005, 2006c, 2007), language assessment (e.g., Lowenberg, 1993, 2000, 2002; Canagarajah, 2006b; Firth, 2009), curriculum and materials development (e.g., Alptekin, 2002; McKay, 2005; Kramersch, 2006, 2008; Canagarajah, 2007; Kramersch and Whiteside, 2008), and hiring practices (e.g., Nayar, 1997; Canagarajah, 1999; Cook, 1999; Braine, 1999; 2010) are approached.

In challenging the NS construct theoretically, scholars have returned to the deconstruction of the idealized NS as proposed by Hymes (1972). Leung (2005, p. 127) argues that though Hymes (1972, 1977) “advocated the need to investigate and understand language use in specific social and cultural contexts”, communicative competence has been instead been “operationalized.” According to Dubin (1989, p. 174), “it is apparent that over time there has been a shift away from an agenda for finding out what is happening in a community regarding language use to a set of statements about what an idealized curriculum for L2 learning/acquisition should entail...” As a result, Leung (2005, p. 119)

contends, “abstracted contexts and idealized social rules of use based on (English language) native-speakerness” have found their way into the realm of ELT.

Inherent in the NS framework, is the envisioning of culture in “reductionist, static and homogenous” terms (Pavlenko, 2002, p. 280). Alpetkin (2002) notes that the attempt at presenting one “monolithic” set of cultural ideas and behaviors as the yardstick by which competence is to be measured, is to neglect the diverse nature of language found in the many different communities that employ it. Kramersch (1998) argues that language pregnant with culture and is culture; it is both doing and representing, in addition to perpetuating. Often, according to Kramersch (1998, p. 83), teachers “teach language and culture, or culture in language, but not language as culture.” Widdowson (2004, p. 361) states that such is “the authoritarian imposition of socio-cultural values which makes learners subservient and prevents them from appropriating the language as an expression of their identity.” Furthermore, Widdowson (1998, p. 708) writes that what might be real and “authentic” for NSs, will most certainly not be so for learners, as “when people use language appropriately, in a normal pragmatic way, they localise it, they key it into what is familiar in the communities they belong to.” In other words, the transfer of contrived “NS” pragmatic norms, will not suit the localized needs of those individuals. As Widdowson (2004, p. 361) notes, “one objection to insisting on conformity to native-speaker norms is that to do so sets goals for learners which are both unrealistic and unnecessary.”

When challenging the NS construct, scholars note the diversity of contextualized English use around the world wherein there is “a fluid mixture of cultural heritage... and popular culture... of change and tradition, of border crossing and ethnic affiliation, of global appropriation and local contextualization” (Pennycook, 2003, p. 10). Crystal (2003) states that NNSs comprise roughly 80% of the world’s English speaking population, while Charles (2007, p. 262) argues, “more international business is actually done in English between NNSs than between NSs.” Japan is no exception, as according to trade and tourism statistics (see: MOF, 2008; JETRO, 2008; Japan Tourism Marketing Co., 2009), around 75-80% of trade conducted and tourism to and from Japan involved nations not considered Western and native English-speaking.

English language use around the world, according to Kachru (2005), is undergoing “nativization” (p. 158). Language is injected with the localized, contextualized values, beliefs and behaviors of people, and subsequently evolves as such people interact with others from within or beyond that context. According to Canagarajah, (2006b, p. 234), “As multilingual speakers focus more on intelligibility rather than on grammatical correctness, they are developing new norms of English that are different from both the local and the metropolitan varieties.”^{viii} Canagarajah (2007, pp. 925-926) argues that in such a context, “speakers are able to monitor each other’s language proficiency to determine mutually the appropriate grammar, phonology, lexical range, and pragmatic conventions that would ensure intelligibility.” As a result, Canagarajah (2006c, p. 26) posits the following: “The combined forces of technology, globalization, and World Englishes raise new questions for our profession. What does it mean to be competent in the English language? What do we mean by correctness? What is the best corpus of English or communicative genres for teaching purposes? What do we mean by language identity and speech community?” This approach to language acquisition, instruction and use is in line with Kachru (1991), who argued that moving beyond the NS construct would not facilitate the disintegration of intelligibility. In other words, Kachru believed that the need for a standard English-as-reference point (Quirk, 1990) to be misguided in terms both of theory and real-world language use.

4.2 Language Teachers as Negotiators

In deconstructing the NS construct, scholars are calling for the reconceptualization of all embedded assumptions regarding ELT. No longer is an idealized NS to be considered the exclusive owner of English, and by proxy its chief gatekeeper (e.g., Leung, 2005; Canagarajah, 2007). Communicative competence would no longer be grounded in the NS construct, but would instead take into account the contextualized uses of English around the globe. NS-centric assessment that neglects context (Lowenberg, 1993, 2000, 2002; Savignon, 2007), would instead reflect the diverse, localized uses of English, and contextual realities (e.g., Canagarajah, 2006a; 2006b). In a similar vein, the notion of the NS as a linguistic and cultural expert universally desirable and necessary (Phillipson, 1992; Canagarajah, 1999) would be debunked. This also challenges the role of an NNEST as a gatekeeper of the cultural and linguistic knowledge of that NS.

Teaching would pay attention to the contextualized users and uses of English in the setting in which the instruction takes place (e.g., Kachru, 1997; Alptekin, 2002; McKay, 2003; Y. Kachru, 2005; Leung, 2005;). Such teaching, grounded in “curricula and pedagogies that have local relevance” (Canagarajah, 2006c, p. 20), would prepare learners to be “both global and local speakers of English” who would “feel at home in both international and national cultures” (Kramsch and Sullivan, 1996, p. 211, as cited in Alptekin, 2002, p. 63). Classroom materials would facilitate connections between students and context in which they will likely employ English. Content-wise, Canagarajah (2006b, p. 243) contends, “we have to shift our emphases from language as a system to language as social practice, from grammar to pragmatics, from competence to performance”, and argues for a need to focus on the role of both (or all) individuals participating in interaction: “Defining language use as *performative* involves placing an emphasis on the second construct in each pair and considering how language diversity is actively negotiated in acts of communication under changing contextual conditions. In other words, it is not what we know as much as it is the versatility with which we do things with English that defines proficiency” (Canagarajah, 2006b, p. 234).

An English language teacher from this perspective is conceptualized as a “*negotiator*”: an individual actively engaging with and challenging a regime of truth, which in this case is embodied in the NS construct. Foucault, in addressing the issue of agency in challenging regimes of truth, speaks of studying the “games of truth” (Foucault in Gauthier, 1988, p. 3). These games of truth, according to Foucault, are, “an ensemble of rules for the production of truth ... It is an ensemble of procedures which lead to a certain result, which can be considered in function of its principles and its rules of procedure as valid or not, as winner or loser” (Gauthier 1988, p. 15). For Foucault, “it is these games of power that one must study in terms of tactics and strategy, in terms of order and of chance, in terms of stakes and objective” (Foucault in Davidson 1997, p. 4). We contend the body of literature that seeks to move beyond the NS construct highlights the importance of challenging the regimes of truth that privilege the NS, while reconciling such action and beliefs with the parameters placed around what constitutes teaching and learning in a given context (Benesch, 2001). This is what Pennycook (1997) terms “critical pragmatism.” The teacher, therefore, would actively seek out ways to tailor curricula and practice to the contextualized needs and goals of learners, while acknowledging the expectations placed upon him or her and his or her students and how “success” or “performance” might be defined by such expectations. This may indeed result in the negotiator serving as a gatekeeper.

4.3 Negotiation and Japan

Conceptualized as negotiators, NESTs and NNESTs alike are challenged to relinquish the power bequeathed to them by serving as gatekeepers and perpetuators of the NS construct. This may be threatening to NESTs and NNESTs alike. In doing so, the NEST is acknowledging that he or she is not in fact that expert he or she believe, or be purported to be. No longer excused from “understanding the local languages, cultures, and social conditions of the communities where they are teaching,” and “the larger social, political, and cultural conditions of the communities where their students come from” (Canagarajah, 1999, p. 84), NESTs are now responsible to actively pursue a knowledge of their students and the context in which the students are studying and might use English in the future. This may leave such teachers with the feeling that they are much less prepared and employable than previously believed. The threat to NNESTs might also be great. Serving as a gatekeeper may afford the NNEST a means by which to isolate themselves from NSs and NNSs alike. Their possession of a portion of NS-related linguistic and cultural knowledge, coupled with their status as Japanese, might seemingly excuse them from knowledge of the contextualized needs of their learners. “Knowing Japan” and “knowing something about the NS” no longer suffices, a notion that may indeed erode the Japanese NNEST’s authority, and cause a loss of face. With the “threatening” of power embedded in the NS construct as a regime of truth, discomfort is bound to ensue.

As negotiators, NESTs and NNESTs alike are challenged to facilitate community building within their ranks. Again, this involves a willingness to move beyond the NS construct, whether speaking of English or Japanese. Divides between NESTs and NNESTs would require addressing, both on an institutional level and within professional activities. The pegging of NESTs into classes that purportedly require “NS knowledge” (e.g., English conversation or writing) or “ability” (e.g., pronunciation) and NNESTs into courses wherein their “deficiencies” in English might be minimized, would disappear. NESTs and NNESTs would need to be able to communicate and fulfill duties, whether in English or Japanese, in order to serve the needs of their student population. The same would be true for the professional organizations in which NESTs and NNESTs participate. This is all, in essence, a fundamental reconceptualization of professionalism in language teaching in Japan.

The NS construct continues to dominate discourse in Japan related to language theory, research, policy and practice (Kubota, 1998), and the teacher-as-negotiator and any teachers NS-ing or NNS-ing falling outside of the confines of the NS construct for that matter, are yet to find him or herself in any great demand. Both NESTs and NNESTs who attempt to serve as negotiators may encounter resistance, particularly due to the practical implications for the role of teachers inscribed in a move away from the NS construct. As the call for a reconceptualization of language and its connection to “culture,” identity and power increases in concert with postmodern globalization and the real-world uses of English around the world within, however, change cannot be far behind. For the time being, as stated previously, we would argue that scholarship seeking to move beyond the NS construct posits that teachers looking to serve as negotiators be mindful of how the construct affects the expectations of individuals with a stake in ELT. Teachers, in effect, would be well served to study the rules of the “game of ELT” in Japan, locate themselves contextually, and seek constructive opportunities for agency as they appear (Pennycook, 1997).

5. Conclusion

The primary purpose of this literature review is to present how the roles of NESTs and NNESTs are conceptualized theoretically, and to then trace how such conceptualizations might play out in practice. It is not our intention to accuse teachers of impropriety or dereliction of duty by measuring their “worth” by a yardstick replacing that of the idealized NS. There are, however, inherent in the literature, seeds of controversy in terms of challenging the regimes of truth that privilege who is hired to serve learners. Indeed, it can be insinuated from literature seeking to move beyond the NS construct, that in the interest of meeting the contextualized needs of students, there would be a necessary reconsideration of who is employed as a teacher and for what purpose. Again, however, in implying such, it is inherent that decisions would necessarily be contextualized; linked to the needs and goals of the students therein.

There is another key issue we have briefly mentioned, that cannot be overlooked: negotiators may at times serve as gatekeepers. As pointed out in our introduction, we do not intend for the terms “gatekeeper” and “negotiator” to serve as a binary construct. In line with critical pragmatism (Pennycook, 1997), the negotiator must work within the parameters of the context in which he or she teaches. Should an institution or student population demand that a teacher serve as a gatekeeper, the teacher would acquiesce, while working towards transformation within the context. This “gate-keeping” is underpinned by a worldview that seeks to challenge the NS construct and not perpetuate the regimes of truth that perpetuate its power.

As stated in the introduction, we believe that dialogue surrounding the two conceptual portraits is a location from which to begin to address questions of learning, practice and community building. Such dialogue is one further constructive step forward towards serving the language learning community both within Japan and around the world.

ⁱ We choose to retain the terms “NS” and “NNS” in this paper, in the interest of providing a point from which to both create dialogue about and deconstruct (Derrida, 1976) the binary to which they belong.

ⁱⁱ “Mainstream” for Jenkins (2006b), entails psycholinguistic, cognitive approaches. Jenkins does not include sociocultural theorists and researchers under the banner of mainstream SLA. She quotes from Zuengler and Miller (2006, p. 35), noting that sociocultural approaches to theory and research and “mainstream cognitive” approaches exist in “two parallel SLA worlds.”

ⁱⁱⁱ Here we are drawing from Phillipson (1992), who outlines a Core and Periphery distinguishing between a Native-Speaking Core and a Periphery consisting of countries wherein English was either a colonial or additional language.

^{iv} *Datsu-A-Ron*, an intellectual position and article by Yukichi Fukuzawa in 1885 (in Banno, 1981), argued that in the interest of modernization and standing on equal footing with Western nations, Japan needed to leave Asia politically, socially and philosophically, focusing its attention instead on what Western civilization was offering. *Kokusaika*, or internationalization (Kubota, 1998; Oliver, 2009), was, according to Kubota (1998, p. 300): “A strategy that Japan employed in order to fulfill this need was neither to subjugate the nation to the West nor to seek a counter-hegemony against the West; it was to accommodate the hegemony of the West by becoming one of the equal members of the West and to convince the West and other nations of its position based on a distinct cultural heritage.” The discourse of *nihonjinron* is one means by which interested parties in Japan could assert the uniqueness of Japanese society. Literature related to *nihonjinron*, appearing first in the 1960’s (written by Japanese and non-Japanese alike), accentuated the “sociological, psychological and linguistic uniqueness” of the Japanese (Kubota, 1998, p. 300).

^v The privileging of Western, Caucasian speakers further carries over into the way many Japanese view NNSs, and/or NSs of color (see: Nakamura, 1991; Kubota, 1998, 2002).

^{vi} Rudolph (2011, p. 33) notes: “Any NS, regardless of education or experience, may as a result be seen as more valuable than a Japanese colleague in many facets of English language teaching. Ironically, this often leads to the view that NSs are replaceable cogs in a wheel. Any NS can do the job of any NS.” As a result, *this* allows for the marginalization of NSs within educational contexts across Japan.

^{vii} Indeed, positions grounded in postcolonial, postmodern and sociocultural theory differ greatly at times when discussing constructs such as “culture” and “identity” (see for example: Leung, 2005; Canagarajah, 2007; Swain and Deters, 2007; Firth, 2009; Norton, 2010). This is beyond the scope of this literature review. We are instead interested in presenting how such scholarship is challenging the NS construct and how such work conceptualizes the roles of NESTs and NNESTs.

^{viii} There is continuing debate over whether such English, can be described as function and variability (e.g., Canagarajah, 2007) or as existing as a code; a distinct language in itself (See, for example: House, 2003; Seidlhofer, 2004; Jenkins, 2006b; Canagarajah, 2006b, 2007; Berns, 2008). This debate is beyond the scope of this literature review.



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The logo for the International Association for Applied Linguistics (iafor) is centered on the page. It consists of the lowercase letters "iafor" in a light blue, sans-serif font. The text is enclosed within a circular graphic composed of two overlapping, semi-transparent arcs. The upper arc is a light blue color, and the lower arc is a light red color. The arcs are thick and have a slightly irregular, hand-drawn appearance.

Transcribing and L2 Correction as a Route to Autonomous Focus on Form

Afsar Rouhi*1, Leila Hajipour*2

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*1Payame Noor University, *2Islamic Azad University - Ardabil Bran

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Abstract:

The present study focuses on transcribing and follow-up correction as a new way of urging L2 learners to take responsibility of monitoring their L2 production and making any improvements based on their own individualistic readiness. To examine the effects of this kind of intervention, 59 Iranian English majors were assigned to a self-transcribing + self-editing, a teachertranscribing + self-editing, a teacher-transcribing + pair-editing, and a no-transcribing + noediting group. The groups were assured to be homogeneous in terms of L2 proficiency. All the groups watched an episode of a silent cartoon and narrated their accounts of watching orally which were recorded on tapes. The participants of the first group were instructed to transcribe their production and make any corrections required. The production of groups 2 and 3 were transcribed by one of the researchers and were given back to groups 2 and 3 for self-editing and pair-editing, respectively. The control group, however, neither transcribed nor edited. To examine the effects of the treatments provided the participants of the 4 groups were required to take a narration task, a picture description task, and a grammaticality judgment task once as a pre-test and one more time as a delayed post-test. The repeated-measures ANOVAs run on the data obtained from the tasks administered as the pre-test and post-test of the study revealed that participants in the experimental and contrast groups outperformed those in the control group significantly lending some support to this claim that L2 learners can be prompted to self-edit their own production.

Over the last two decades drawing learners' attention to form has been one of the main themes of SLA research studies (Norris and Ortega, 2000; Ellis, 2006). Based on the premise that noticing plays a crucial role in learning L2, recent studies have focused on how to draw learners' attention to linguistic features to promote learning (Schmidt, 1990). Noticing—the crucial cognitive construct—is taken to be a key to focus on form (FonF) literature. To Lyster (2004) noticing activities are effective catalysts which can draw learners' attention to problematic target features. Among such activities are consciousness-raising, grammar interpretation, grammaring, and dictogloss tasks. Lynch (2001), however, employed proof-listening technique to encourage a reactive FonF on his students' own output to inducing noticing. It involves recording, transcribing, and then editing learners' oral output by themselves. This task appears to foster autonomous learning.

The concept of learner autonomy has been emphasized in the field of language learning since the 1970s (Littlewood, 1999). As learner autonomy increases, teachers give power to students (Lo, 2010) and teaching becomes more student-centered than teacher-centered (Giles, et al., 2006). Fostering learner autonomy is an incontrovertible goal for EFL professionals (Chan, 2001) to manage time and learning. Therefore, it is desirable to explore language learning tasks that encourage learner autonomy. Transcribing + editing oral output is assumed to have the potentiality to guide learners along the route towards autonomous FonF. One of the central issues in FonF is how to lead the learners notice the gap between the interlanguage and the target language (Doughty and Williams, 1998a). Recognition of this mismatch can be achieved autonomously through comparing the transcribed version to the edited one. Furthermore, transcribing or editing can be done by learners autonomously independent of the teacher. It is likely to empower learners to actively choose their learning focus and have reflections on their own production. Hence, it might be argued that transcribing + editing might not only promote noticing, but it may also enable practitioners to develop autonomy-based pedagogy using this activity in the speaking classes.

Of significant interest to the present study is investigating the efficacy of Lynch's (2007) noticing activity: Who should do transcribing and editing? It is also aimed to identify—based on the findings of the current study—areas of language (vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation) that might benefit more from transcribing + editing options and also to survey students' attitudes towards this activity.

Transcribing and autonomy

Active learning (Lammers and Murphy, 2002) allows learners to acquire higher levels of learning skills (Vandiver and Walsh, 2010). It is primarily student-centered rather than predominately teacher-centered. Active involvement of learners in the learning process maintains autonomous learning (Lo, 2010) which is regarded as an important goal by EFL teaching professionals (Cotterall, 2000). Littlewood (1999) comments that it is incontrovertible for learners to be autonomous since no students, anywhere, will have teachers to accompany them. Van Lier (1996) argues that the central features of autonomy include responsibility and choice. In the current climate of increasing recognition of the value of learner autonomy, self-monitoring deserves attention. Cotterall (1995) links autonomy with successful language learning through the capacity for self-monitoring. Self-monitoring (Charles, 1990), by giving students control over the feedback, enables teachers to provide effective feedback (Xiang, 2004). It seems that encouraging autonomy and self-monitoring is increasingly recognized as a beneficial practice to promote language learning. Classroom tasks can foster autonomous language learning habits (Dam, 2001). Transcribing + editing is likely to enable learners to engage in multi-domain learning and might encourage them to actively participate in their learning. At the same time, it provides a portrait of learners' learning focus and teachers' response can be conformed to the developmental stage of

every single learner. It is held to relinquish power to students to do transcribing and editing any time they wish independent of the teacher. Moreover, having learners transcribe and edit their oral output seems to allow them to be autonomous in their ability to find their own errors.

Huang (2008) demonstrates that when language learners have a chance to transcribe their oral output and answer reflection questions on their transcripts, they turn from passive receivers to active learners of language.

Transcribing and FonF

While Long and Robinson (1998) take FonF mainly as a reactive response to communication problems rendered after the event, Doughty and Williams (1998b) made a distinction between proactive and reactive FonF. The former involves preselecting a form by the teacher whereas reactive FonF can be instigated by the students' output where the focus is on the structures that students themselves have produced (Ellis, et al., 2001). There are different options to achieve reactive FonF. Mennim (2003) proposed scrutiny of output to achieve reactive FonF. Swain (1998, 2000) used dictogloss task in which there was a collaborative or joint reaction to the students' output. Similar tasks can be exploited to draw learners' attention to focus on their own output. Lynch (2001) has explored a proof-listening technique, whereby learners record their oral production, transcribe output, and then edit it, so that the teacher can react to oral production.

SLA has placed much emphasis on the constructs of attention (Gass, Svetics and Lemelin, 2003; Robinson, 1995; Schmidt, 1990) and noticing (Philp, 2003; Leiser, 2008). Psycholinguists have highlighted the role of attention in cognitive domains of L2 development (Gass, 1988; Pienemann, 1989). The noticing hypothesis (Schmidt, 1993) emphasized the significance of focal attention and awareness and downplayed learning without awareness. Empirical evidence provided by the studies conducted lends support to the beneficial effects of awareness on L2 learning and consequently to the noticing hypothesis (Williams and Evans, 1998; Mackey, 2006). Although noticing is associated with attention to input, it is claimed that learners can attend to their own output to become aware of their production (Swain and Lapkin, 1995). In this vein, noticing can be encouraged through the reactive FonF. Thornbury (1997) acknowledges that there is no guarantee for noticing to take place in the language classroom but it can be encouraged through different activities.

Tasks that allow the learner to devote some focus on form in a meaning-first context can provide opportunities for noticing. Lynch's (2001) noticing activity provides opportunity to FonF in speaking and listening classes. Maximum benefit from these classes might be achieved when their speech becomes accessible through making a transcript of the recording and editing it.

Relatively few studies to date have investigated the transcribing + editing activity. Lynch (2001) carried out a study in an adult EAP context in Scotland. The treatment included transcribing of an audio sound track of learners' performance and editing it collaboratively in pairs. The statistical analysis of the changes in transcripts revealed that transcribing allowed learners to notice their errors and mistakes and focus on form. Lynch found that learners showed improvements in grammar more than other areas of language and they found transcribing + editing a useful task.

Building upon the earlier study, Lynch (2007) aimed to explore whether student-initiated or teacher-initiated transcribing procedures lead to higher rates of accuracy. This study involved two groups who differed in terms of transcribing procedure. After completion of the task, class 1 transcribed their recordings, but class 2 gave back the recordings to the teacher for transcribing. The two groups edited the transcripts themselves collaboratively. It was found that the self-transcribing group accuracy improved to a significant extent.

Mennim (2003) asked Japanese adult learners to perform a private rehearsal of a topic, record, transcribe, and correct the transcripts. Comparing the next performance of the same topic with the earlier production revealed improvements in pronunciation, grammar, and in the organization of content. Based on the results, Mennim concluded that transcribing was successful for drawing learners' attention towards the language forms. Moreover, making corrections to the transcripts allowed the students to modify their output.

Mennim (2007) examined the effects of noticing exercises on accuracy among EFL learners in Japan. The learners researched a topic and gave oral presentation three times during nine months. He incorporated noticing via language development awareness sheets, post-presentation questionnaires and transcribing + editing exercises. The results indicated that nine months later their accuracy improved. He attributed improvements to the learners' noticing.

Research Questions

This study addresses the following research questions:

1. Would self-transcribing + self-editing (ST + SE), full teacher-transcribing + self-editing (FTT + SE), full teacher-transcribing + pair-editing (FTT + PE), and no-transcribing + no-editing (NT + NE) of oral production lead to differing rates of L2 accuracy?
2. Would different areas of language (i. e., vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation) benefit differently from the experimental conditions specified in research question 1?
3. Would learners find transcription a useful activity in their classes?

Method

Operationalizations

As Lynch (2007) states the main difference between self-transcribing and teacher-transcribing procedures lies in the source of the transcription. In the first, which he calls student-initiated, learners themselves are responsible for transcribing. In the teacher-initiated, the teacher listens to the learners' recording and transcribes their output. Besides, he distinguishes between complete and partial transcription. In the first, whole of the output is transcribed, but in the latter only incorrect parts of the output are transcribed. The same definitions are adopted in this study for self-transcribing and full teacher-transcribing. Moreover, self-editing is operationalized as the speakers' revisions of their own texts and pair-revision in a collaborative activity involving students' reading, critiquing, talking with their pairs and providing feedback on each other's texts (Suzuki, 2009).

Participants

The data for the current study came from 59 intermediate adult EFL learners, attending a university in Ardabil, Iran. There were 21 male and 38 female, aged 21-27. The learners were from two different language backgrounds, namely Azari-Turkish and Persian. Over half of the participants ($n = 38$ or 63.3 %) reported that they had not participated in any private English classes. They all had studied English in junior high school for 2 hours a week for approximately 3 years, in high school for 4 hours a week for 4 years, as it is typical in formal educational settings in Iran and in the university, English was their major. They were pursuing BA degree in English Literature. For those who reported receiving private English prior to/or during majoring in English, the average length of English study was 1.3 year. The participants were assigned to one of the four groups: Group one: ST + SE ($n = 15$: F = 8, M = 7), group two: FTT + SE ($n = 15$: F = 10, M = 5), group three: FTT+ PE ($n = 14$: F = 10, M = 4), and group four: NT+ NE ($n = 15$: F = 10, M = 5). To satisfy the homogeneity concern, the scores of the proficiency test (PET) were entered into a one-way ANOVA. The results confirmed that there were no significant differences across the four participating groups, $F = .083$, $p = .969$.

Target structure

Two functional uses of English article system were chosen as the forms in focus: referential indefinite article *a/an* for referring to something for the first time and the referential definite article *the* for referring to something that has been mentioned before. There are many reasons for choosing this function of article system: English article system is considered to be very difficult (Dulay, Burt and Krashen, 1982) and complex (Andersen, 1984). This holds true even about those learners who have already studied English for many years (Agnihotri, Khanna and Mukhrjee, 1984). Hence, articles cause problems for learners across different English language proficiency levels (Bitchener and Knoch, 2009), especially for those whose L1 does not contain articles. Also, they are used in almost every sentence and then are easy to elicit for testing purposes. Although they do not constitute one to one form and meaning correspondence and are multifunctional, this function can be easily understood by learners (Ellis, Sheen, Murakami and Takashima, 2008).

Materials

Three tests including a silent film, a picture description task, and a grammaticality judgment task were used, with test 1 as the pre-test and tests 1, 2, and 3 as the post-tests.

Silent film was chosen to prevent direct translation of the film. It was story of a cat and a mouse, *Tom and Jerry*. The picture description task included 6 pictures which portrayed a girl and a boy going to picnic. The task was taken from Tavakoli and Foster (2008). The participants were asked to write a small story or six sentences for pictures.

Although narrating and picture description tasks may create obligatory opportunities for the use of English article system, learners might avoid such uses and choose other determiners such as one, two, this and that as we found examples of such uses in the picture description task. Therefore, a grammaticality judgment test to examine forms in focus was also exploited. It included sentences which targeted English article system. Of the 20 sentences, 9 were grammatically correct and 11 were grammatically incorrect. Grammatical and ungrammatical sentences were randomly scrambled. Reliability (Cronbach's alpha) was calculated through a pilot study. This test was adapted from Bitchener and Knoch (2008). In their study, it was in the form of controlled exercise, but we modified it to suit the grammaticality judgment test.

Since learners' beliefs might influence teachers' classroom activities (Burgess and Etherington, 2002) and a mismatch between their attitudes and teachers' might affect learning (Spada, et al., 2009), one questionnaire was used. It surveyed their beliefs about the usefulness of transcribing + editing as a technique to provide feedback on learners' oral production. It consisted of 6 items and an open-ended question.

Data collection procedures

When volunteer students were found, they were provided with enough information about the study, were asked to complete a consent and background questionnaire. Furthermore, to ensure about the approximate homogeneity of the four groups, an adapted version of a proficiency test (i.e., PET) was administered. To elicit learners' output, all of the groups involved watched a cartoon in 5 minutes in a language laboratory. They narrated it orally and recorded their presentation. When group one recorded their presentation they were required to transcribe their recorded presentation themselves. Then, they reviewed and edited their transcripts individually using dictionary or by pooling their linguistic resources. They handed over their paper to us for final correction since they might have missed some points or might have made incorrect changes. In contrast, the production recorded by groups two and three were passed on to us for transcribing. What they had recorded was transcribed word for word. When the transcribing task

was completed, the transcripts were submitted to them for editing. Group two reviewed their transcripts individually, using dictionary or relying on their own knowledge. FTT + PE group was paired. There were 7 pairs. They edited each other's transcripts collaboratively. The groups involved were asked to edit their transcription by underlining the erroneous forms and writing the correct form above it. As group 1 did, these two groups (2, 3) also handed back their edited transcripts to us for final correction. We did not limit ourselves only to one area (incidental FonF), though there were grammatical forms in focus. Next, groups 1, 2, and 3 came to the laboratory. We returned their papers. They were asked to study changes and compare the original forms to the corrected forms to notice their errors and mistakes. Twenty minutes were allotted to study the paper. During this time, everybody from every group could ask for clarification. Then, the papers were collected. For no-transcribing + no-editing group, the story was different. After recording oral narration, we took their tapes. They had no transcribing and editing.

In the immediate post-test, the four participating groups narrated the same episode again and recorded their narration. Moreover, they completed the picture description and the grammaticality judgment task after collecting the tapes on the same day. Two weeks later, the same tasks (1, 2, and 3) were administered to the four groups involved in the language laboratory as the delayed post-test. At the end of this session, groups one, two, and three (those who received the treatment) completed one questionnaire to survey their attitudes about the usefulness of transcribing + editing.

Data scoring

A percentage of incorrect linguistic features (vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation) gave us scores for the narration task in the pre-test and post-tests. That is, the number of words they had produced was counted. Then, the number of incorrect linguistic features was identified. Next, the percentage of incorrect linguistic usage was calculated.

For the grammaticality judgment test, learners' responses were scored as either correct, 1 point, or incorrect, 0 point. When scoring the learners' picture description task, the focus of scoring was only on the article system. The maximum possible score for their paper was 20. For every incorrect usage of articles, 1 point was subtracted. In this case, incorrect usage referred to 1) ignoring obligatory occasions of the articles and 2) incorrect usage of articles in these occasions.

To answer research question 2, first the number of incorrect linguistic features for each area of language was calculated separately. Then, a percentage of them was calculated. A mean of percentages for each group and various areas of language was calculated for the pre-test and immediate + delayed post-tests.

For survey questionnaire, a five-point Likert scale was exploited. Value of 1 to 5 to scale from right to left was assigned.

Statistical analyses and results

Descriptive statistics for the tests 1, 2, and 3 over the immediate and delayed post-tests are presented in Tables 1 and 2.

Table 1
 Descriptive statistics on the immediate post-test

Groups	Test 1			Test 2		Test 3	
	n	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
ST + SE	15	2.93	1.43	17.13	1.59	18.60	.98

FTT + SE	15	6.55	1.26	17.00	1.60	18.40	1.12
FTT + PE	14	4.42	1.48	17.28	1.38	18.21	.89
NT +NE	15	8.63	1.56	15.86	1.18	16.33	1.44

Table 2
 Descriptive statistics on the delayed post-test

Groups	Test 1			Test 2		Test 3	
	n	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
ST + SE	15	4.41	1.35	17.26	1.38	18.53	1.12
FTT + SE	15	7.23	1.11	16.93	1.27	18.46	.83
FTT + PE	14	5.60	1.35	16.92	1.14	18.07	.99
NT +NE	15	8.81	1.31	15.66	1.34	16.06	1.43



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Research Question 1

The first research question was concerned with the advantage of one type of transcribing + editing option over the other. The results of repeated-measures ANOVA revealed that the group differences in the narrating task were significant, $F = 45.11$, $p = .001$. The post-hoc test (Bonferroni correction) showed significant differences between groups one and two, one and three, one and four, groups two and three, two and four as well as groups three and four ($p < .001$, $p < .01$, $p < .001$, $p < .001$, $p < .001$, $p < .001$, respectively). With regard to descriptive statistics for the narrating task, the ST + SE group ($M = 3.67$) outperformed the other groups. In addition to these findings, the ANOVA revealed statistically significant difference between post-test 1 and 2, $F = 44.279$, $p < .001$ and a significant interaction effect between time and the group option, $F = 4.687$, $p < .001$.

The repeated-measures ANOVA conducted for narration task scores indicated that there was statistically significant difference across the groups, $F = 4.443$, $p < .01$. The post-hoc comparisons showed that the control group was statistically different from all the other groups ($p < .01$, $p = .010$, $p < .01$, groups one, two, and three respectively). None of the other three groups differed from each other significantly ($p = .604$, $p = .839$, $p = .759$, groups one and two, one and three, two and three respectively). Descriptive statistics revealing the mean scores illustrate greater performance for the ST + SE group ($M = 17.19$). There was, however, no statistically significant difference between post-test 1 and 2, $F = .565$, $p = .455$. No interaction effect between time and groups was observed, $F = .401$, $p = .753$.

The results of the repeated-measures ANOVA run on the data obtained from the grammaticality judgment test revealed that the difference across the groups was statistically significant, $F = 16.757$, $p < .001$. The post-hoc comparisons (Bonferroni correction) showed that the control group differed from all the other groups significantly ($p < .001$), while the difference between groups one and two, one and three, two and three was not significant ($p = .728$, $p = .280$, $p = .457$, respectively). Descriptive statistics suggest that ST + SE group ($M = 18.56$) performed better than the other groups. Moreover, the results of ANOVA revealed that no statistically significant difference was located between the post-test 1 and post-test 2, $F = .839$, $p = .364$. No statistically interaction effect between time and feedback options was found, $F = .396$, $P = .756$. Better performance in the immediate ($M = 17.88$) not delayed post-test ($M = 17.77$) was observed.

Research Question 2

If we look at Table 3, under the ST + SE condition students paid more attention to vocabulary (the mean difference of the pre-test and post-tests for vocabulary is +3.84), whereas they worked better for grammar during FTT + SE (the mean difference of the pre-test and post-tests for grammar is +4.37). For the FTT + PE group, the story is similar to the first group. Vocabulary has been attended more than other areas (the mean difference is +9.90). The NT + NE group, which had no treatment, worked better for the vocabulary (the mean difference is +8.46).

Some points emerge from Table 3 when vertically viewed. Across the groups, the FTT + PE group prioritized vocabulary. For grammar, the FTT + SE group did better than other groups. The ST + SE group improved in terms of pronunciation more than other groups. Although the participants produced different rates of text and used different vocabularies and structures in the pre-test and post-tests, the results made it clear that vocabulary benefited more than the other areas from transcribing + editing ($31.67 > 26.03$). Comparing the total means of grammar ($47.18 < 50.29$) and pronunciation ($20.17 < 22.55$) in the pre-test and post-tests manifested that the treatment impacted pronunciation more than grammar.

Table 3
 Mean of percentage of errors (%)

Pre-test Groups	Post-tests					
	V	G	P	V	G	P
ST + SE	32.6	46.06	20.93	28.76	51.53	19.13
FTT + SE	30.8	47.66	20.66	30.43	43.29	25.56
FTT + PE	31.64	50.21	17.07	21.74	56.21	21.28
NT + NE	31.66	44.8	22.02	23.2	50.16	23.93
Total	31.67	47.18	20.17	26.03	50.29	22.55

Research question 3

Conducting one sample *t*-test revealed that there was statistically significant difference between those whose choice was neutral (I don't know) and those who voted for the different points of the scale, $t = 48.257, p < .001$. In addition to the questionnaire items, the participants were given one open-ended question. They commented that it was very an interesting and new experience. For example, one of them commented: "It helped me understand I am weak in English and I need to study more".

Discussion and conclusion

The results suggest that the ST + SE and FTT + SE/PE groups outperformed the NT + NE group. This result demonstrates the beneficial effects of the transcribing + editing activity in any forms. This activity through making oral production objective, provides negative evidence, promotes explicit knowledge, and leads to noticing. The results of this study are in line with Schmidt's (1990; 1993; 2001) noticing hypothesis and studies that encourage explicit knowledge (Carroll and Swain, 1993; Nagata, 1997; Muranoi, 2000; Burgess and Etherington, 2002). ST and FTT groups which had a chance to compare non-target features with the target model fell under the noticing the gap process (Thornbury, 1997) and outperformed the NT + NE group. The results also lend support to the effectiveness of planning time (Ellis, 1987; Hulstijn and Hulstijn, 1984; Ortega, 1999), specifically monitoring (Mclaughlin, 1987). The groups that were provided with enough time to monitor their output showed superiority over the groups that did not. When participants of this study in the ST and FTT groups were provided with an opportunity to pay attention to the formulation through transcribing + editing of output, their performance in the post-tests improved. While in the pre-test they were involved in conceptualizing the message and their speech was full of the errors. There is now clear support for VanPatten's (2004) primacy of meaning principle that takes conceptualizer as the winner in the pre-test. It is possible to consider the results in light of Robinson's (2001) multiple-attention model. He rejects limited capacity processing and calls for attentional resources that don't compete. The participants in the ST and FTT groups were fluent in the first performance but not accurate. Their oral output became accurate when cognitive resources became free from the meaning through transcribing in the immediate post-test.

The results showed that learners that had received ST + SE treatment manifested a higher improvement. This result is in line with Lynch's (2007) study that reported the superiority of self-transcribing group over teacher-transcribing group. Higher rates of accuracy for self-transcribing group can be attributed to the greater depth of processing. When learners transcribe their own output, they can identify their errors and mistakes. In this study, the self-transcribing group reported such identification when they transcribed their output, but they were asked to delay their corrections until the editing stage. Mennim (2007) also has reported that his participants identified their errors during transcribing. It means that they had declarative knowledge of linguistic forms but it was not accessible during speaking. Transcribing by learners enabled them to notice their declarative knowledge. If the learner himself/herself is involved in transcribing, the source of noticing is doubled; one comes from transcribing and the second from the editing

output. When the teacher does transcribing for the learner, he/she misses multiple resources of attention. Hence, the source of noticing for teacher-transcribing group is restricted only to the editing stage. The value of self-transcribing procedure lies not just in further noticing potentiality, but also in the opportunities it provides for learners to proceduralize their declarative knowledge. Learners transcribing their own output, perform private speech which causes to practice (mind practice) linguistic features. Self-regulation as a final goal can be achieved through private speech (Foley, 1991). When learners do transcribing themselves, they attend much more closely to form since such identification reflects clear gaps in their linguistic competence. Relinquishing the task of transcribing to learners not only reduces teacher workload, it also encourages learners to elicit their linguistic knowledge and find answers for what they want. It allows learners to practice autonomous learning skills. Having learners compare their transcribed texts to the edited one seems to allow them to be autonomous in their ability to find their own output errors.

FTT + SE and FTT + PE share transcribing element and differ in editing part. It is no surprise that the FTT + PE outperformed the other group. The literature reports positive effects for peer feedback (Chaudron, 1984). From a sociocultural perspective, peer-editing pushes the learners to receive social support and scaffolding (Jacobs, et al., 1998). Collective scaffolding (Storch, 2002, 2005) enables learners pool linguistic resources to solve their language problems. Scaffolding in its own right, assists language learning (Nassaji and Cumming, 2000; Nassaji and Swain, 2000). But what makes it more useful is language-related episodes (LREs) (Swain, 1998; Swain and Lapkin, 1995) which contributes to the language development. LREs can contribute to the comprehension of target features (Qin, 2008) since it includes new input. Moreover, peer feedback can be considered as other regulation that results in the self-regulation.

The possible reason why the difference across the performance of the four groups was significant in the narration task but not significant in the picture description and grammaticality judgment task may lead us to hypothesize that various conditions of transcribing + editing work differently for incidental focus on form but not for planned one. The difference between the narrating and two other tests is that the provision of feedback was not limited to forms in focus in the narrating task and consequently it influenced scoring.

Transcribing + editing engages learners in multiple-domain learning. Research question 2 and its results manifested that various conditions of transcribing + editing benefit different areas of language. Through this activity, EFL learners attend to vocabulary, pronunciation, and grammar respectively.

In conclusion, with respect to the first aim, it was found that the ST + SE group improved better than the other groups in the three tests and the FTT + PE group was more successful at obtaining higher scores for accuracy in comparison to the FTT + ST and NT + NE groups. Between these two latter groups, the FTT + SE showed superiority over the other group. Concerning the second aim, the study found that vocabulary, pronunciation and grammar (respectively) have been benefited from transcribing + editing. As far as the third aim was concerned, survey clarified learners' satisfaction with this activity.

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Blogging Impact on L2 Arab Undergraduates' Affect and Writing Performance

Rachid Bendriss

0262

Weill Cornell Medical College in Qatar, Qatar

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Abstract:

Adult Arab undergraduates studying English for Academic Purposes often enter colleges and universities with weak writing skills due to various skills. However, their technological savvy indicates that motivating them through the use of online tools could have an impact on the improvement of their writing skills. To this end, in the fall break of 2011, the study participants read books of their choice for three weeks and wrote entries and responses to other students' entries on a blog created for the course. Through a survey and interviews about affective conditions such as class community, self-efficacy, and writing anxiety, the study results suggest a perceived improvement in writing fluency, vocabulary development and class community. Results also show students' writing anxiety decreased while the blogging method encouraged their awareness of the discovery process of writing. Finally, the research findings reveal that blogging is an additional tool that can facilitate student academic writing and provide a learning opportunity for today's digitally inclined second language learners.

Literature Review

In the Arab world, there is a major concern about the number of students who lack pre-college academic competence because of reading skills and abilities. According to Ayari (1996), the phenomenon of diglossia has a negative impact on Arab children's ability to acquire reading and writing in Arabic. Ayari (1996) claims that parents and teachers need to change their attitudes towards modern standard Arabic and give it its due importance at school instead of focusing on colloquial Arabic, French, and English. In his study of the effects of exposure to literary Arabic on reading comprehension in a diglossic situation, Abu Rabia (2000) concluded that the 144-student experimental group that was exposed to literary Arabic performed better on reading comprehension tests than the 138-student control group that was exposed to colloquial Arabic.

There are many reasons why second language educators may choose to use a blog. According to the British Council Teaching English (2005), one reason is to provide students with a real audience for their writing. This audience includes not only the teacher but also students' peers, students from other classes, their families, and even a global audience. Jones (2006) researched the importance of using blogs in an English as a Second Language writing class and perceptions of teachers and students on the use of blogs. Study participants used blogs for writing, editing, revising, peer editing, and publishing their writing assignments. According to Jones (2006), the use of blogs helped students improve their critical thinking skills, enhanced their writing abilities, created an authentic reading environment through blog entries and responses to peers' reading contributions, and encouraged student interaction through publishing to a real audience. The research participants also reported paying more attention to editing their spelling mistakes and word choice thanks to the feedback from students and teacher.

Not only do blogs encourage students to write more, they also promote the development of reading skills. A variety of blogs on the Internet provide genuine materials that students can choose from and read based on their interests. Blogs also promote active reading "because through writing, the writer becomes more aware of the notion of audience; and through blogging, s/he becomes more familiar with the corresponding idea of purpose" (Ward, 2004, p. 6). This online material is an excellent source of real language used in authentic communication. Chun (1998) supports this notion of interactive competence by stating "computer networks and electronic mail provide students with opportunities for authentic communication with native speakers of the target language" (p. 57).

Reading strategies play an active part in achieving reading competence necessary for academic readiness. Bendriss and Golkowska (2011) conducted a study on the role of extensive reading and found that 47% of the 72 surveyed Qatari college students responded that they were not taught reading strategies before enrolling in their first year of college, and 10% did not know what reading strategies meant.

Therefore, an attempt at integrating assistive technology such as a blog with the teaching of reading and writing in an English for Academic Purposes curriculum may have a positive impact on Arab foundation college students to prepare them for the rigors of postsecondary education and aid their academic competence.

Objectives

The present study aimed at gathering information on Qatari foundation students' experience using a blog modality in an integrated reading and writing curriculum. Arab students start their first-year college experience with a poor academic literacy due to the lack of a reading culture. Hence, this approach involved the use of a winter break reading program that allowed students time to read and write their responses, reactions, and thoughts about their texts via the medium of a blog. Upon completion of the program, participants responded to a survey about their blogging experience and impressions of its impact on their writing.

The study aimed to answer the following research questions:

- What are Arab students' overall impressions of blogging in an EAP setting?
- What are Arab students' perceptions of the role of blogging in the improvement of their writing?
- To what extent did blogging change Arab students' attitude towards writing in English?

The logo for the International Association for Foreign Language Research (iafor) is centered on the page. It consists of the lowercase letters "iafor" in a light blue, sans-serif font. The logo is surrounded by two large, overlapping circular arcs: a red one on the left and a blue one on the right, which together form a partial circle around the text.

Methodology

A total of 17 Qatari university-level students (11 female, 6 male) were enrolled in a foundation program of a North-American higher education institution in Qatar. Participants ranged in age between 17 and 20 years old. They joined the foundation program after graduating from private and public high schools in Qatar. The mean TOEFL score of the class was 95. In addition to an integrated curriculum English foundation course, students took science courses such as biology, physics, chemistry, and mathematics. The foundation program is a two-semester sequence for students to acquire basic principles in these courses and develop their critical thinking and problem-solving skills before they enroll in their chosen career path.

Near the end of the 2011 fall semester, the researcher provided students with a variety of fiction and nonfiction books to choose from and be prepared to read in the winter break. During the book choice meeting, students perused through the books and exchanged reactions to the titles, cover pages, and the back cover testimonials. In the spirit of extensive reading principles and motivating students to read, they had the total liberty to pick any book they wanted. The following list includes the books that students decided to read:

- The Last Town on Earth by Thomas Mullen
- My Sister's Keeper by Jodi Picoult
- Good Germs, Bad Germs by Jessica Snyder Sachs
- The Road by Cormac McCarthy
- The Great Gatsby by F.Scott Fitzgerald
- Angels & Demons by Dan Brown
- Under the Tuscan Sun by Frances Mayes
- Have a Little Faith by Mitch Albom
- The Man who Mistook his Wife for a Hat by Oliver Sacks
- The Fellowship of the Ring by J.R.R. Tolkien
- The Kite Runner by Khaled Hosseini
- The Last Lecture by Randy Pausch
- 13 Reasons Why by Jay Asher
- The Scarlet Letter by Nathaniel Hawthorne
- The Snake Charmer by Sanjay Nigam
- The Pilgrimage by Paulo Coelho

After students brainstormed a name for the blog, they were asked to post ten entries that capture their emotions, thoughts, ideas, reactions, or observations about the texts they read. To create a lively conversation and interest in other texts, students were also asked to reply to at least three blog entries by their classmates.

Results and Discussion

Only 12 students out of 17 responded to the survey questionnaire. Six respondents said that they had never heard of blogs while the other six reported that they had heard of them but never used them before.

The first research question asked about Arab students' overall impressions of blogging in an EAP setting. Students' responses yielded interesting answers that could be encompassed under the themes of excitement and fun in learning, opportunity for self-expression, and sharing ideas and opinions through reading.

Therefore, as students perceive an online tool such as a blog to be a fun and exciting medium, second language educators need to find ways to include interactive and engaging learning opportunities such as blogs, wikis, and social media. These tools have become so natural for students because they are digital natives, as Marc Prensky (2001) labels this millennial generation. According to Prensky (2001), "today's students ... represent the first generations to grow up with this new technology. They have spent their entire lives surrounded by and using computers, videogames, digital music players, video cams, cell phones, and all the other toys and tools of the digital age. Computer games, email, the Internet, cell phones and instant messaging are integral parts of their lives."

In addition, it can be deduced from students' responses that the idea of sharing reading information not only with their peers but also with their families is a source of pride for them. Publishing one's thoughts, especially in a second language environment, gives a sense of ownership and accomplishment to students. Their families get to read their posts and have something tangible to read and discuss because it is at their fingertips. This idea of publishing and sharing is fundamental to the development of literacy in the Arab world.

Research question one was:

What are Arab students' overall impressions of blogging in an EAP setting?

In response to the survey questions, students contributed the following impressions.

I do believe that blogging is really fun. You never get bored when it comes to blogging because you always express your feelings. It was very exciting. Being able to speak my mind was great, and getting positive feedback on my entries made me want to write more. I actually enjoyed blogging a lot. I thought it was a great experience of expressing my thoughts and ideas and sharing them with others. I thought the blogging experience was really fun, because after reading each chapter from my book, I went and wrote about the chapter. At the end of finishing my last blog entry, I read all my blogs again and remembered everything about the book. My family also read my entries and understood the important elements of the book. It was good especially that we stayed in contact outside campus. Also, getting feedback from what you write widens your horizon, meaning that it makes you think of aspects in the story that you have never thought of while reading.

This was a good experience to originate ideas. The blog made me more aware of my writing. The idea of creating a blog for the foundation class was an excellent choice because I would love others to read my posts and to think about the things that I write. Through the blog, I could share my experience about any book I read and could read about other students' experiences. It was just so similar to the way I usually do with my friends whenever we gather, but by writing and hence it can help improve my writing skills. It was the first time for me to blog. It was kind of entertaining to share my thoughts and ideas about a book with others. Also, some of the conversations about my ideas that I had with others were very entertaining."

Furthermore, the second research question asked the following:

What are Arab students' perceptions of the role of blogging in the improvement of their writing?

The themes that emerged from the respondents' answers include critical thinking, the desire to write more because of the immediate feedback, linguistic awareness (sentence structure, spelling, punctuation), writing in different styles, applying reading strategies to texts, vocabulary acquisition, focused writing, and audience awareness.

Students in this study reiterated their desire to write more thanks to having a blog is further supported by Bernstein's (2004) blog research findings that frequent writing can improve composition through the audience presence and the frequency of updating one's entries. Bernstein (2004) also found that his study participants felt that their writing improved because of the peers' comments and feedback on content and structure. Jones (2006) found that his ESL students believed that could improve their writing accuracy and fluency using a blog medium in their composition class. Similarly, this study supports Bernstein and Jones' results since participants also indicated their satisfaction to write in a blog because of the immediate feedback and linguistic awareness since they were aware that their work would be published for an authentic audience.

The following excerpts reflect students' perceptions of the impact blogging had on their writing.

Blogging is another way to improve critical thinking and writing. It makes me visualize scenes, contemplate, and think deeply before I write something down. Yes, although blogging is different from academic writing in which you do not have to care about the organization of content as much, it encourages the person to write more and learn from mistakes. The on-spot feedback also helps! Sure it did. When I was writing in the blog, I used to check my spelling and grammar constantly because I knew what I was writing was going to be read by many people, not only the professor. Also, I kept on trying to write in different styles so that the reader would be interested and would keep on reading my posts. Yes, it allowed me to capture the main idea of each chapter and summarize it into a short paragraph. It also helped me to be more expressive.

I am not sure if it had anything to do with improving my writing, but it did help in expressing ideas. Yes, because I was more aware of my ideas and grammatical errors. Of course, because the goal of the blog was to read our books and then summarize and respond to what we read, so it was an integral experience. Yes, blogging had a great influence on my writing. Blogging helped to change my style in writing, conjure up everything in my mind, and expand my ideas and thoughts as well. Yes, blogging helped me write my thoughts down and share them with many other people than only my friends. Blogging is an important way to improve writing skills of students, but in a formal way.

Yes, I was forced to expand my vocabulary to be able to explain my thoughts, ideas and feelings towards anything. I also learned to become straightforward about any idea and not to drift away from the idea. Yes, because I was thinking about the correct sentence structure before posting, and I used to read my posts a lot to check grammatical, spelling and punctuation errors. I would say it did help me improve in expressing my opinion about a certain subject.

To what extent did blogging change Arab students' attitude towards writing in English?

Finally, the third research question asked whether blogging changed students' attitude towards writing in English. Based on a careful analysis of students' survey responses, some themes were

observed. Respondents reiterated careful thinking before writing, analysis of texts, organization of reading events, increase in self-confidence, creating one's own writing voice, free and creative expression, and a desire to write more. These findings are supported by Jones' research conclusions that "scholars and researchers see weblogs uses as a means of building grammar and writing skills (product and process writing), representing and expressing self and forming identity (process), facilitating student-centered learning, contributing to collaboration and social interaction, creating and building community, disseminating information (process and post-process), and recognizing audience and context (post-process and genre), as a means of writing for audience, situation, and various purposes" (p. 79).

A sample of students' responses is below:

Absolutely, yes. In fact, I used to write whatever comes to my mind, but now I think carefully and deeply before I write an essay. This is because I analyze what I have read along with cutting events into chunks. Yes. I activated my own blog account on another website and started writing about books I like, things I like and everything in my day. I loved to write before and now I love to write even more.

Yes. I became more interested in writing essays that describe my own point of view of something. Before, I used to write in general and not include my opinion, but after blogging I started to write my own thoughts in most of my essays. Well, I have always liked to express myself in English, and blogging was actually good as you know people are reading your thoughts. Yes, I have learned that there are many forums if English writing. Yes, even as I mentioned before that I did not like the blog that much because of the points, but I like it from the free "creative" writing perspective, so I can express my feelings and emotions freely.

Yes, it makes me think deeply, enhances my critical and writing skills. No, blogging did not change my attitude because I am already interested in reading books and writing about them. However, blogging encourages me to write because I was happy that my thoughts would be public. Yes, I really started to like blogging. I like to express my feelings to others about anything and blogging is a very good way to be out in the open with everyone. Yes, I knew that writing in English is easier than what I expected. I knew that writing 100 words per post was easy for me, and I could even write more than 100 words. Blogging made it easier for me to express my opinion.

Students' final thoughts

Based on students' responses, the use of weblogs in the second language classroom, especially in an integrated reading-writing curriculum has myriad benefits. Study participants reported enjoying reading their chosen books and writing entries on the blog because this online tool allowed them to express their thoughts freely, share their ideas, and receive immediate feedback from peers. The blogging tool also promoted a sense of idea ownership, which encouraged students to want to write more and more. The idea of sharing content and publishing their reading posts fostered a feeling of accomplishment and pride.

What follows is a group of responses from students on the question whether they had some more comments they wished to add about their experience with using a blog to write about what they read.

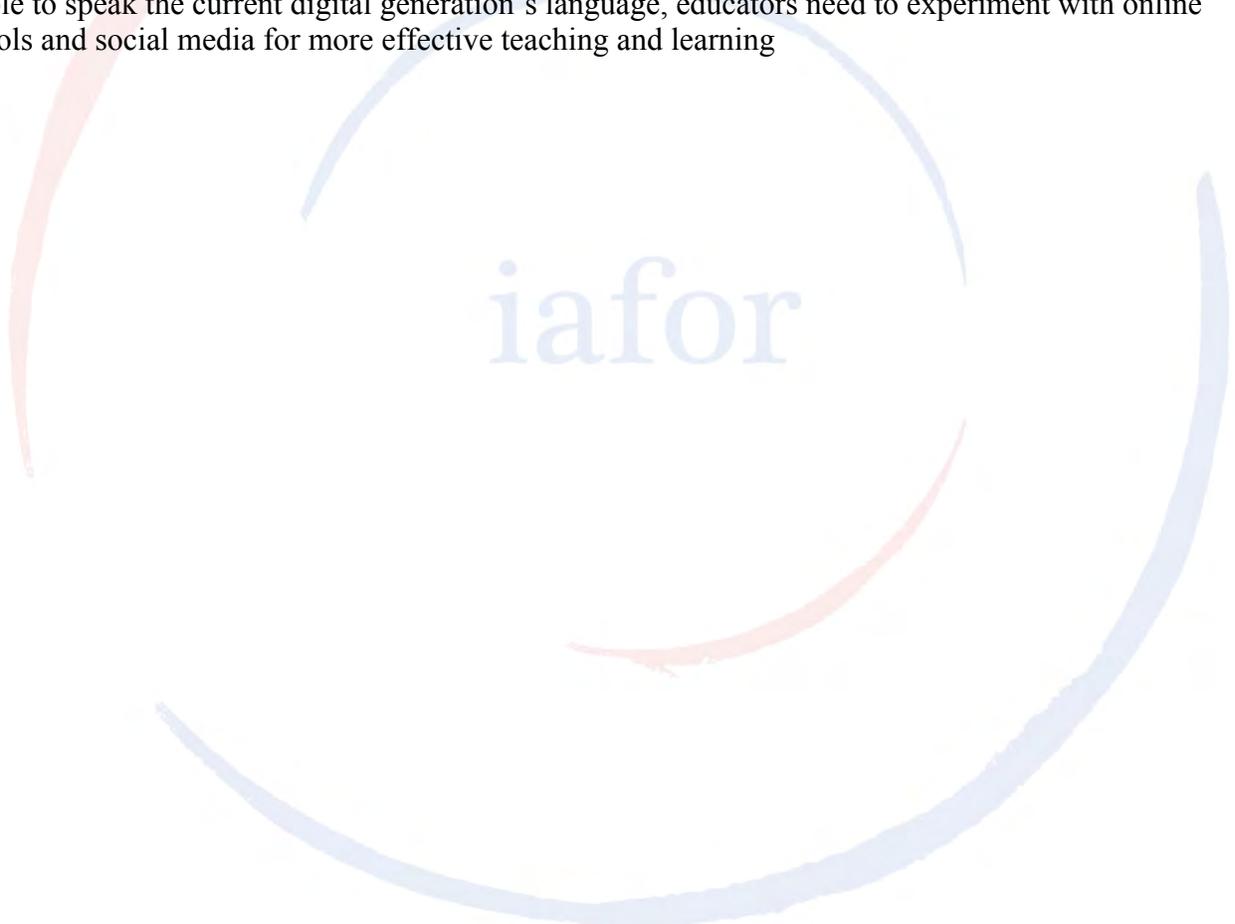
I enjoyed blogging very much. I never actually looked at the word count and made sure it was above what the professor asked for because whenever I started writing I went on and on. I believe that blogging encourages young writers to write more because of others praising their work and being able to freely speak their mind. I believe that each one of us should have a blog!

Yes. I think we should do it again! Can we post our essays in the blog so that other students can read them? I thought blogging in class was a wonderful idea to be expressive. Moreover, seeing other people's entries increases someone's knowledge; it was helpful because in summer I am planning to read some of the books the students discussed in class. It is a very good way for students to learn how to express their thoughts. It also increases the love of reading. It did for me at least.

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Conclusion

The use of blogs in a reading-writing class can have several advantages. Teachers may use a blog as a supplemental aid where students can use it once a semester to turn in a paper, weekly or monthly for assignments, or any other convenient way for the teacher. Teachers can also view all students writing posts or papers in one central location and can access them from anywhere where is Internet access. Giving feedback is another feature that teachers can give collectively to students if there are recurring errors in the class. More importantly, students can gain significantly from the use of blogs to motivate reading literacy and encourage more writing. Based on this study, students have reported they had had a great experience blogging and increased their confidence. Furthermore, respondents indicated that the use of a blog motivated students' writing and interaction with their peers and the instructor. Blogging also heightened their awareness of linguistic skills, encouraged clear and deep thinking, and provided a forum for self-expression. Finally and most importantly for Arab students, the use of blogs fostered a love of reading and writing and promoted a learning community. To be able to speak the current digital generation's language, educators need to experiment with online tools and social media for more effective teaching and learning

The logo for the International Association for Language Acquisition (iafor) is centered on the page. It consists of the lowercase letters "iafor" in a light blue, sans-serif font. The text is surrounded by several large, overlapping, curved lines in shades of light blue and light red, creating a circular, abstract frame around the text.

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A Study of Learning Style and Some Characteristics Affecting English Learning Achievement of Chinese and Thai Undergraduates

Pongwat Fongkanta, Fisik Sean Buakanok

0263

Lampang Rajabhat University, Thailand

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Abstract:

The purpose of this research is to 1) Study the learning styles and some characteristics affecting English learning achievement of Chinese and Thai undergraduates at Rajabhat Lampang University Lampang province, Thailand. 2) Study whether the attitudes of Chinese and Thai undergraduates in English affect their learning. The subjects of this study were 40 undergraduates with average age of 20 years old of Chinese and Thai ethnicities who were studying at the Faculty of Education, Rajabhat Lampang University. They were selected and assessed with 1) The learning style Test and evaluation. 2) The questionnaire of the opinions toward student attitude. Statistics used in data analysis included mean, standard deviation and analysis of variance by using the SPSS for Windows program.

The research findings are reported as follows:

The different in-class and out-class learning styles significantly affected learning achievement ($p > 0.05$).

The results indicated statistically significant differences in relation to the nationality of the undergraduates ($p > 0.05$).

Chinese undergraduates have a better attitude towards learning English than their Thai counterpart ($p > 0.05$)

Introduction

Teaching and Learning in classroom that empower efficiency teaching. The important methodology make the best of teaching compose of understand the learner, understand the natural of learner, learning style the learner. In addition, Problem of learning this one factor affecting to lose of efficiency (Phitoon,1982). Students have several of Learning Style and individual Learning style (Bogue,1974) and learning style is the way in which human beings concentrate on, absorb, process, retain new and difficult information (Mclaren,1998). Teachers have to percept learning style learner toward their make teaching style according to learning style and the natural of learner for efficiently teaching. The perceptions about how learning style of learner is the first step to teach them through totally succeed. In the other hand teacher able to describe learning style learner in classroom for everyone can know strength or weak of learning and awareness in themselves then they can adjust learning style the best in classroom (Ian and Chris, 2003). According to Alastair Sharp (2004) the perception individual learning style that important for both teacher and learner into successful of learning.

Perception individual learning style has evaluated with reliability instrument that questionnaires consist of the situation how to learn or test of activities in classroom. The instruments have several that one of instrument Felder & Solomon (1994) were established the questionnaire of "Index of Learning Style (ILS)". The ILS was discriminate four dimensions compose of perception dimensions, input dimensions, processing dimensions and understanding dimensions.

Rajabhat Lampang University, Thailand has offered to many programs compose of diploma, undergraduates and graduates that many foreign students have walked to study any programs. The current foreign students have more Chinese students in undergraduate program. However, Learning style offer the efficiency learning that they have many learning styles so should be make classroom accord to individual learning style and respond needs of student to learn. At currently, English is the most important in communication global. Mostly countries put English Program into study curriculum. The English language effected toward many nations that communication international, interacted people in their lifestyle so they have English language ability well. Therefore in this study the researcher was study the learning styles and some characteristics affecting English learning achievement of Chinese and Thai undergraduates at Rajabhat Lampang University Lampang province, Thailand and whether the attitudes of Chinese and Thai undergraduates in English affect their learning.

Objective

1. Study the learning styles of Chinese and Thai undergraduates and learning correlation classifies by sex, ethnicity and English learning achievement at Rajabhat Lampang University, Lampang province, Thailand.
2. Study the attitudes of Chinese and Thai undergraduates towards learning English.

Methodology

Participants

In this study the subjects were 40 undergraduates with average age of 20 years old of Chinese and Thai ethnicities who were studying one year at least at the Faculty of Management Sciences, Rajabhat Lampang University. The samples were selected by using purposive

sampling from both Chinese and Thai who English language learner majoring in International Business Management. The Chinese and Thai students were selected to make the sample as representative as possible.

Instrument for collecting data

The research instrument for collecting data was questionnaire which developed from Index of Learning Styles Questionnaire of Felder & Soloman consist of

Part 1 : The questionnaires about information of people were checklist statement

Part 2 : The questionnaires of Index of Learning Styles Questionnaire by Felder & Soloman(1994). The forty four multiple choice questionnaires reflect the psychological and behavioral characteristics of four dimension of learning style. Questionnaires were eleven questions in each dimension and two choices in each question reflect the two dichotomous learning styles.

Part 3 : The questionnaires about attitude of English language learning.

Questionnaires were ten questions .This is Likert scale.

This questionnaire used in the present study has been installed on the World Wide. The instrument has been translated several other languages and later researchers have testified to the validity and reliability of the instrument (Cook D.A. 2005, Felder & Spurlin, 2005). In this study the Cronbach alpha coefficients were ranged from 0.55 to 0.61 all greater than the criterion value 0.50 and attitude questionnaires were 0.70 Try out for Thai student and Chinese student who have learn with short course.

Sources of data

Researcher personally visited the sample was 40 undergraduates to collect the data through questionnaire.

Analysis of data (Research design)

Firstly, Statistics used in sample data analysis include frequency, percentage by using the SPSS for Windows program.

Secondly, analysis base on criteria of Felder & Soloman. Questionnaires were eleven questions in each dimension and two choices in each question that evaluate a learner's learning style preference based upon your answers to the questionnaire. Two choices in each question reflect the two dichotomous learning styles when their selection of "A" indicates a preference for one dichotomous and selection of "B" indicates preference another one dichotomous .For example ,in processing dimension a selection of "A" indicates a preference for active learning style and a selection of "B" indicates preference for a reflective learning style. If a participant chooses A five times and B three times responses, you are regarded as more of active learner and your score are 2A from the frequency of choice A minus the frequency of choice B (5A-3B). The criteria of Felder & Soloman offer if your score on a scale is 1-3, you are fairly well balanced on the two dimensions of that scale. If your score on a scale is 5 or 7, you have a moderate preference for one dimensions of the scale and will learn more easily in teaching environment which favor that dimension and if your score on a scale is 9 or 11, you have a very strong preference for one dimension of the scale. You may have difficulty learning in an environment which does not support that preference. Then on above you are fairly well balanced on the two dimensions between active learning style and reflective learning style. After that, the statistics used in ILS data analysis include Chi-square,

Cramer's V by using the SPSS for Windows program to describe the correlation. The criteria of coefficient of correlation if this score on a scale 0 is no association, 0.01 - 0.25 is weak association, 0.26 - 0.55 is moderate association, 0.56 - 0.75 is strong association, 0.76 - 0.99 is very strong association and score on a scale 1 is perfect association (kullaya, 2011)

Thirdly, Statistics used in attitude data analysis include mean, standard deviation by using the SPSS for Windows program

The result (Finding)

Figure1 show that the percentages of Chinese undergraduates learning style were verbal learner in input dimension the first that it was 75 percent (35% to low level, 40% to moderate level), global learner in understanding dimension was 70 percent (45% to low level, 25% to moderate level), reflective learner in processing dimension was 70 percent (30% to low level, 30% to moderate level, 10% to low level), respectively. The last, they were visual learner in input dimension was 25 % (20% to low level, 5% to moderate level).

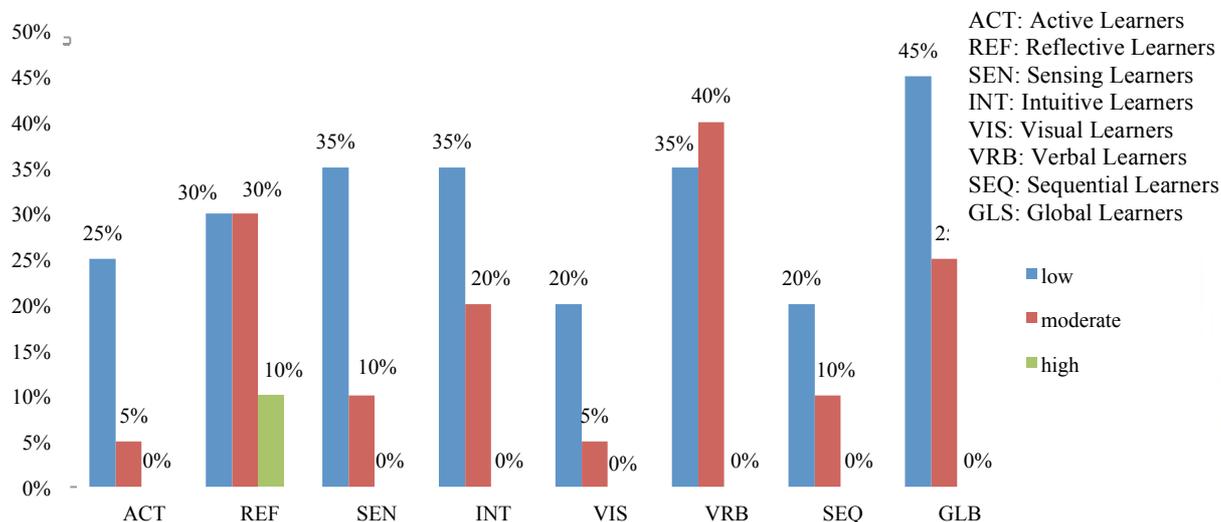


Figure 1 Chinese undergraduates learning style, Preference Percentage

Figure 2 show that the percentages of Thai undergraduates learning style were sensing learner in perception dimension the first that it was 90 % (45% to low level, 45% to moderate level), active learner in processing dimension was 65 percent (55% to low level, 10% to moderate level), visual learner in input dimension was 60 percent (55% to low level, 5% to moderate level), respectively. The last, they were intuitive learner in perception dimension was 20 % (15% to low level, 5% to moderate level).

ACT: Active Learners
 REF: Reflective Learners
 SEN: Sensing Learners
 INT: Intuitive Learners
 VIS: Visual Learners
 VRB: Verbal Learners
 SEQ: Sequential Learners
 GLS: Global Learners

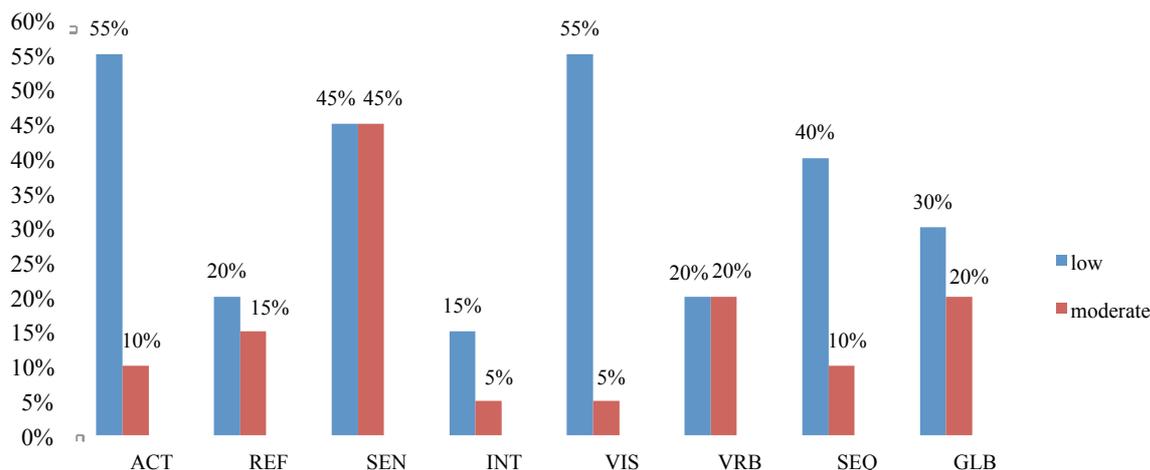


Figure 2 Thai undergraduates learning style, Preference Percentage

Table1, Chi- square test finding that the result indicated statistically significant differences in relation to the ethnicity and learning style ($p < .05$) in processing, perception and input dimensions that mean the ethnicity to be associated with learning style in processing, perception and input dimensions. Thai undergraduates were learning style of perception dimension better than Chinese undergraduates. In addition to that the relations to ethnicity and learning style were moderate association level.

Table 1 The Learning Style of Chinese and Thai undergraduates classify by ethnicity

Ethnicity / Learning style		Chinese (%)	Thai (%)	Chi-square (V)
PROCESSING	ACT	6 (30%)	13 (65%)	4.912* (.350)
	REF	14 (70%)	7 (35%)	
PRECEPTION	SEN	9 (45%)	16 (80%)	5.227* (.361)
	INT	11 (55%)	4 (20%)	
INPUT	VIS	5 (25%)	12 (60%)	5.013* (.354)
	VRB	15 (75%)	8 (40%)	
UNDERSTANDING	SEQ	6 (30%)	10 (50%)	1.667
	GLB	14 (70%)	10 (50%)	

* $p < .05$

In Table2, Chi- square test finding that the result indicated statistically significant differences in relation to sex and learning style ($p < .05$) in processing dimensions that mean sex to be associated with learning style in processing dimension. In addition to that the relations to sex and learning style in processing dimension were moderate association level

Table 2 The Learning Style of Chinese and Thai undergraduates classify by sex

Sex / Learning style		Male (%)	Female (%)	Chi-square (V)
PROCESSING	ACT	8 (73%)	11 (38%)	3.872* (.311)
	REF	3 (27%)	18 (62%)	
PRECEPTION	SEN	8 (73%)	17 (59%)	.677
	INT	3 (27%)	12 (41%)	
INPUT	VIS	5 (45%)	12 (41%)	.054
	VRB	6 (55%)	17 (59%)	
UNDERSTANDING	SEQ	6 (55%)	11 (38%)	1.338
	GLB	5 (45%)	18 (62%)	

* p < .05

In Table3, Chi- square test finding that the result indicated statistically significant differences in relation to English learning achievement and learning style (p < .05) in processing dimensions that mean the English learning achievement to be associated with learning style in processing dimension. In addition to that the relations to English learning achievement and learning style in processing dimension were moderate association level

Table 3 The Learning Style of Chinese and Thai undergraduates classify by learning achievement

Grade / Learning style		D (%) very low	C (%) low	B (%) Moderate	A (%) high	Chi-square (V)
PROCESSING	ACT	2 (100%)	9 (60%)	8 (47%)	0 (0%)	8.580* (.463)
	REF	0 (0%)	6 (40%)	9 (53%)	6 (100%)	
PRECEPTION	SEN	2 (100%)	8 (53%)	10 (59%)	5 (83%)	.271
	INT	0 (0%)	7 (47%)	7 (41%)	1 (17%)	
INPUT	VIS	0 (0%)	6 (40%)	7 (41%)	4 (67%)	.272
	VRB	2 (100%)	9 (60%)	10 (59%)	2 (33%)	
UNDERSTANDING	SEQ	0 (0%)	8 (53%)	5 (29%)	3 (50%)	.295
	GLB	2 (100%)	7 (47%)	12 (71%)	3 (50%)	

* p < .05

Study the attitudes of Chinese and Thai undergraduates towards learning English

Chinese undergraduates have attitude towards learning English in high level .In each topic, the most they have attitude on “English is necessary in the present” were highly of level. Next to the last, They have attitude on “when learning English I feel hard stress” were moderate level. Whereas, Thai undergraduates have attitude towards learning English in high level .In each topic, the most they have attitude on “English is necessary in the present” were highly of level. Next to the last, they have attitude on “English language is difficultly to learn” were low attitude level.

Table 4 The satisfaction in English learning of Chinese and Thai undergraduates

	N	Mean	S.D.	t-test
Chinese	20	3.86	.27	5.945*
Thai	20	3.32	.31	

* p < .05

The result indicated statistically significant differences in relation to attitude towards learning English of Chinese and Thai undergraduates at the 95% confidence level that Chinese undergraduates have a better attitude towards learning English than their Thai counterpart

Conclusion and Discussion

1. Finding from the study indicate that learners were vary in their preference for learning style.

Chinese undergraduates learning style were verbal learner in input dimension by a large number of them. Verbal learners, were gain understanding of write summaries or outline of course material in your own word and gain understanding of material by hearing classmates' explanation and you learn even more when you do the explaining.

In contrast, Thai undergraduates learning style were sensing learner in perception dimension by a large number of them. Sensing learner, were remember and understand information best when it connect to real world and oriented toward fact if this complicated it was quite and use long time to complete task. Liu & Littlewood(1997) said Teaching and Learning in most East Asian countries is traditionally dominated by a teacher-centred, book-cantered method and an emphasis on rote memory that same above.

2. The variation in learning style of learner by ethnicity, sex and achievement .Then find the correlation indicated statistically significant differences in relation to the ethnicity and learning style in processing, perception and input dimensions. The results, ethnicity to be associated with learning style in processing, perception and input dimensions. In addition the relations of ethnicity and learning style were moderate association level.

Then find out the correlation between sex and learning style, result indicated statistically significant differences in relation to sex and learning style in processing dimensions. According to Krause (1997) who study in chemical learning style of students the result presented that student who differences sex have differences learning style and Reid(1987) finding of “ variable of sex and age are related to differences in learning styles. In this study, Females were learning style of processing dimension better than male. The relations to sex and learning style in processing dimension were moderate association level.

Finding the correlation between English learning achievement and learning style that the result indicates the same as correlation between sex and learning style above and processing dimension were moderate association level. Referring to learning achievement is related to the processing dimension of the data. It can be said that students who were achieve will be high performers. And tend to learn by experimentation, practice, application (Merrell C. & Tymms P, 2001)

Finally, from the study shown that Chinese undergraduates have an attitude towards learning English in high level .In the other hand, Thai undergraduates have an attitude towards learning English in high level. In addition to, Chinese and Thai undergraduates have an attitude towards learning English in high level

Recommendations

The learning style of students are affected to teaching style in classroom, Lecturer must know learning style of their for efficiency in teaching. Kirby, Moore, & Shofield (1988) defined learning style as the preferred way to learn and the way a person learns best. The teacher can assign different task to different period in classroom. In this study founded Chinese undergraduates were verbal learning styles the most, teacher can do maximize teaching efficiency by assign the task to discuss in classmates including sharing the knowledge in group and guide them through write summaries or outlines of knowledge in your own word (Felder & Soloman, 1993). Thai undergraduates were sensing learning styles the most, the teacher can maximize teaching efficiency by guiding learners through phases of guessing at words and searching for holistic understanding of the main ideas, presenting multi-media materials and presenting knowledge in the way that learners can see how it connects to their prior knowledge or reflects the real world (Felder & Henriques, 1995). Teachers were motivation and reinforcement to use English and tell learners for reminds it necessary in the present.

For Thai universities, example Lampang Rajabhat University have to awareness and develop teaching curriculum including preparing instruction to consistent to learner whose variety learning style no matter Thai or Chinese. In the future, next 3 years the establish of an ASEAN Community occurred many Asian countries must use English to communicate then learning place should support changing for driving totally succeed in education including business.

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The logo for the International Association for Language Acquisition Research (iafor) is centered on the page. It consists of the lowercase letters "iafor" in a light blue, sans-serif font. The text is enclosed within a circular graphic composed of two overlapping, hand-drawn style arcs. The upper arc is a light red color, and the lower arc is a light blue color, matching the text. The arcs are thick and have a slightly irregular, brush-stroke-like appearance.

*Partnerships for Global Nuclear Security: An Intercultural, Cross-Disciplinary Model for
Bridging Language Proficiency and Content Mastery*

Alicia Brent*¹, Lisa Donohoe Luscombe*¹, Vera Verkhoturova*², Yulia Falkovich*²

0266

*¹the Monterey Institute of International Studies, *²Tomsk Polytechnic University,

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Abstract:

iafor

Today nuclear security is extremely urgent for the international community in terms of both safety of nuclear power plants and the impending threat of nuclear terrorism. To cooperate successfully in addressing these challenges, countries need a common language, a *lingua franca* for communicating a safety and security culture for nuclear energy. Thus learning foreign languages—in particular English as the lingua franca in the scientific, diplomatic, political, industrial, and multinational spheres—can serve would-be nuclear security specialists of many cultures and first languages to come together to make new discoveries and solve problems at universities all over the world. Therefore, an effective way to bridge language proficiency and content mastery for nuclear security students should be applied. This article proposes an English teaching model that will prove successful in teaching English for nuclear security students as well as raise awareness and change attitudes of university students towards tolerance and cooperation on issues of global importance. The model is based on key dimensions of content-based instruction (CBI), as well as intercultural, cross-disciplinary teams for bridging language proficiency and content mastery. Such a model was implemented at Tomsk Polytechnic University (TPU), Russia after a teacher-training program in the English Language and Nonproliferation (ELAN) Program at the Monterey Institute of International Studies (MIIS), CA, USA, sponsored by the U.S. Department of Energy.

Content-Based Instruction and the Team-Teaching Model

In CBI, “learners are exposed to language while learning about other content areas...relevant to learners’ academic and/or professional needs” (Jourdenais and Shaw, 2005, p. 2). Because emphasis is on “developing academic and/or professional language proficiency,” (p. 2) CBI involves the use of real-world sources of content, such as media, academic research, and professional materials, rather than textbooks and other materials designed specifically for language instruction. Such “authentic” materials require learners to incorporate several skills, as opposed to focusing on discrete skills, as language learning materials tend to do. Materials that are relevant to the learners’ needs serve to increase motivation and, consequently, cognitive and linguistic development. Thus, the content-based approach relies more on language as a vehicle of instruction than the object of instruction (Snow, 1993, p. 37). In the CBI classroom, although English is used to transfer knowledge through instruction, the stress is on *interactional* discourse between instructor and students (Kramsch, 1993). Through interactional discourse about real-world materials, “authenticity” in language learning is not an inherent feature of the text, but “a function of the interaction between the reader/hearer and the text which incorporates the intentions of the writer/speaker” (Widdowson, 1979, p. 166). In other words, learners have the opportunity to use their existing content and cultural knowledge in understanding the content, as well as to contribute to the body of knowledge about the content. This aspect of CBI is especially crucial in developing a shared language for and understanding of nuclear safety and security culture.

While CBI has become a crucial aspect of English language teaching, English as a second language (ESL) teachers are still often intimidated by unfamiliar subject matter, especially at the university level where the cognitive load is significant. Moreover, in academic institutions where language courses support student performance in content classes, English for academic purposes (EAP) teachers can face resistance from content experts, who often distrust their ability to teach the subject matter without introducing inaccuracies or misinformation. For these reasons, the TPU-MIIS model employed cross-disciplinary teams of MIIS content experts in nuclear physics and security with EAP faculty in the development of content-based language lessons using

relevant, authentic materials and interactive tasks to facilitate content mastery and enhance language acquisition. The model lessons were delivered to TPU nuclear physicists and English language specialists who are obligated by their institution to use English as the language of instruction in both English as a foreign language (EFL) and physics content courses for nuclear security and nonproliferation. In subsequent discussions and planning workshops, the TPU participants developed unit plans incorporating authentic materials and communicative activities. The multi-dimensional model involved the exchange of content knowledge and CBI pedagogical approaches among four teams: the TPU EFL teachers, the TPU nuclear physicists, the MIIS nuclear security specialists, and the MIIS EAP trainers. This interaction facilitated a fusion of content and language teaching mastery, intercultural competence, and ultimately mutual trust, confidence, and respect.

As a result of this TPU-MIIS collaboration, the model is being applied to the course «English for Nuclear Security» at TPU. Let's consider how the model works and what conditions have existed at TPU for years to help establishing a new approach to teaching English for technical students. To do that we need to review the challenges in language proficiency mastery for Nuclear Security Students at TPU, to look back at the Summer 2010 Monterey team teaching session, to dwell on the follow up program and curriculum design at TPU as well as to study the outcomes of the model implementation by outlining the students' feedback and their recommendations on how to improve the course and facilitate their further studies of nuclear security content in English.

Challenges to CBI at TPU

As Tomsk Polytechnic University is ranked second among 159 technical universities in Russia, one of its objectives is to make its alumni highly competitive on the international labour market. Thus an increasing importance is attached to language teaching due to the role of English as a tool for professional communication. A diverse range of English as a second language courses has been developed to meet the needs of students. Nevertheless, EFL teachers encounter several issues that can hinder effective second language acquisition.

Firstly, the majority of TPU students have low command of general English as a second language. Consequently, they fall behind the groups of more advanced students, thus losing their motivation to work hard and participate in language immersion programs. It starts to be even a greater challenge if there is a multilevel group and the teachers are unable to teach the language of professional communication effectively, since the motivation and perception levels of students differ.

Secondly, the student curriculum is designed without a sufficient number of hours allocated for CBI or professional communication. CBI is taught for graduate students, whereas the undergraduate students are mostly focused on general English. The hours allocated for English language training for graduate students are fewer than that for undergraduates, and an increase in the number of hours is unlikely to be implemented since the content curriculum is already overwhelming.

The third challenge—not easily addressed—is the insufficient content proficiency of EFL teachers. The teachers, while having background in Humanities, are unable to communicate specific concepts of a technical nature; thus students lose their trust in acquiring content through language. They have a perception of CBI lessons as a merely linguistic activity without the potential to obtain new information and ideas.

Finally, there is a lack of well-developed programs aimed at true CBI at TPU. This results from the insufficient CBI experience worldwide, as well as lack of a lingua franca between language teachers and content teachers.

CBI Implementation at TPU

As the first two challenges can be addressed at the management level, the last two are possible to confront due to the ELAN team-teaching training program at MIIS. The program objective was to put team teaching into practice and foster cooperation between nuclear security experts and English language specialists towards fruitful work with the TPU nuclear security students. Toward these ends, the program fostered:

- Content-based English for nuclear security acquisition
- Curriculum development methods and techniques with immediate application of the information to projects and the design of the course “English for Nuclear Security” at TPU
- English proficiency mastery through communicating with native speakers and completing projects specifically tailored to TPU participants
- Project-oriented tasks and teaching practices, involving both content and language teachers in developing their own projects for students
- Lecture presentation techniques for the classroom with physicists and languages teachers having concurrent lessons, clearly showing the possibility for team teaching at the same time.

As a result of intensive team teaching sessions, the cross-disciplinary model for bridging language proficiency and content mastery was implemented at Tomsk Polytechnic University. The pilot project included several stages that go beyond mere development of the “English for Nuclear Security” course.

The first stage included team work on materials development for the course book «Current Issues of Nuclear Security». The criteria for developing such a book was to start working at a higher methodological level while applying contemporary methods and techniques, as well as to go beyond pure linguistic exercises aimed at mastering language aspects such as grammar, vocabulary, and reading. The main principle was to develop exercises that provoke critical thinking, divergent thinking, and analytical and composition skills along through highly content oriented tasks connected with the students’ professional field.

The second stage involved developing criteria for evaluation and assessment that resulted in a more objective examination process. The examination and credit test procedure was conducted by both language and content teachers, while also being monitored by an MIIS trainer. This cross-

disciplinary effort proved to be an incentive for students to better prepare since they understood the necessity to study both language and content.

To simplify the process of team teaching, a curriculum and lesson timetable for concurrent lessons was developed. However, because of the difficulty of scheduling time for both both content and language teachers, fulfilling this timetable continues to be a real challenge.

To continue mastering TPU teachers' skills, the MIIS trainer provided on-line courses for nuclear security specialists and language teachers. This is regarded as an extension of the initial MIIS ELAN program, where competences acquired are developed and both language proficiency and content mastery can be highly motivating for more effective CBI implementation at TPU.

The stage of vital importance is to put forward the ideas of true CBI at Tomsk Polytechnic University through seminars and roundtables devoted to transferring CBI for Nuclear Security to other ESP courses. The teachers of other content subjects and language teachers were inspired by the TPU-MIIS model that demonstrated its effectiveness in examination results of Nuclear Security students, as well as students' positive feedback on the team teaching course. Thus, CBI courses for key research fields at TPU are currently being developed.

Despite the positive outcomes and student feedback, there are a number of shortcomings that are to be further improved. The advantages of the team teaching model include:

- Learner acquisition of a wide range of necessary vocabulary
- High content relevance to the professional field
- High level of student motivation due to engagement in projects and possibility of being evaluated and assessed by a native English-speaking teacher trainer
- Expansion of knowledge about international practices in nonproliferation and nuclear safety/security.

The feedback itself even shows an increase in students' awareness of the education process and motivation, as students self-identified the positive aspects of team teaching. Along with the advantages of such model there were some shortcomings:

- Lack of grammatical material in the lessons
- Little opportunity to speak with nuclear security specialists
- Too much content; students preferred some non-content language activities.

Such results shows that general English topics can be partially integrated into CBI in order to show that the course helps in mastering not only content but also language that can be used in other spheres of life.

Thus the students gave a list of recommendations for the teacher panel to consider:

- Concurrent teaching by a linguist and a nuclear security specialist

- More speaking and less reading
- More on-line work with specialists from abroad.

Clearly, although students are not trained in CBI, their experience in the CBI team-teaching course increased their awareness of the need for a more authentic blend of language and content through concurrent teaching, more practice in the “use” dimension of language learning inherent to CBI classrooms, and more real-world experiences with international specialists speaking in a variety of Englishes on the topics of nonproliferation and nuclear safety/security.

Cultivating an International Community for Nuclear Safety and Security

As a conclusion we could stress that the intercultural, cross-disciplinary model for bridging language proficiency and content mastery implementation process has proved to be effective as the following outcomes can be inferred from the experience mentioned above:

1. CBI team teaching develops both students' and teachers' content mastery and language proficiency.
2. It nurtures tolerance for and understanding of nuclear safety and nuclear security concepts among students.
3. It fosters cooperation and finding a common language between nuclear security specialists and language teachers.

CBI practices are just beginning to be implemented TPU, with more room for course improvement and development of the competencies related to content and language. These skills, in turn, allow specialists to engage more fully with international professional communities, benefiting the nonproliferation community and the safety and security of the nuclear industry worldwide.

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*Teachers' use of the Target Language in Beginner-level Classrooms: The Influence of
Learners' Affective State on Practice*

Susan Oguro 0268

University of Technology Sydney, Australia

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Abstract:

In language classrooms, learners bring knowledge of their first languages (L1) to the classroom context as they focus on learning an additional, target language. If their teachers are also proficient users of the learners' L1, then both the target and first languages are commonly used in classroom interactions between teacher and learners, particularly in beginner-level courses. This paper reports on a study investigating the language(s) used by teachers at an Australian university as they communicate with their beginner-level students. The experiences of 27 teachers from six different language programs (French, German, Italian, Japanese, Mandarin and Spanish) were canvassed through questionnaires and interviews. Data revealed that multiple factors impacted on the teachers' use of the L1 or the target language at specific stages of a lesson. Of particular relevance to the choice of language used was the teachers' perception of learners' unease towards extensive classroom target language use. The paper explores various consequences of this for teachers' practices, including the strategy of explicitly discussing the value of using the target language with students. This study demonstrates a valuable and strategic use of the learners' first language which may ultimately lead to more extensive use of the target language, as learners come to understand the pedagogical value of exposure to and interaction in the target language.

Background

In foreign or second language classrooms, the language being taught (the target language) is naturally a primary focus for the learners and the teacher. However, this target language is not the only language present in the language classroom since learners also bring knowledge of (at least) one other language to the learning process. For example, learners in an EFL class in Beijing typically share knowledge of Mandarin (and perhaps other languages as well). Their language teachers are also often multilingual, being proficient not only in the language being taught (English) but also in the language normally used in the broader society beyond the classroom (Mandarin in this example).

In classrooms with such multilingual participants, although learning to use the target language is the primary aim, learners and teachers may also make use of their shared, common language when communicating with each other. The use of a language other than the target language for classroom interaction is commonly referred to in the research literature as first language use or L1 use. In the example of the EFL class in Beijing, classroom interactions may take place in English (the target language), Mandarin (the L1) or a mix of both languages depending on what is being communicated and to whom, at different stages throughout a lesson.

Notwithstanding the “near consensus that teachers should aim to make maximum use of the TL” (Turnbull & Arnett, 2002, p. 211), classroom use of the L1 has been observed in a range of language learning contexts (for example: Cook, 2001; Ellis, 2007; Forman, 2010; Levine, 2011; Ma, 2009; Macaro, 2005; Murray, 2005) and many benefits of its use have been identified. The use of the L1 has been shown to facilitate the process of learning a target language (Dickson, 1992; Long, 1996; Py, 1996; Turnbull, 2001; van Lier, 1995) and Cook (1999) has argued that the learners’ first languages are an intrinsic part of their identity which should not be ignored in the classroom. Furthermore, because the practice of switching between two or more languages is a feature commonly found in the speech of multilinguals in a variety of social contexts, a teacher’s use of both the target language and L1 in the classroom provides learners with a realistic model of ‘multicompetence’ to emulate (Belz, 2003; Blyth, 1995; Cook, 1992).

However, the issue of how much and for what purposes the L1 is used in the language classroom remains a “controversial issue in applied linguistics and language teaching” (Turnbull & Dailey-O’Cain, 2009). While teachers generally support the notion of minimising their use of the L1 in favour of providing learners with greater opportunities to hear and use the target language, in practice the L1 may be utilised more extensively than teachers consider ideal for facilitating the learning process.

A range of factors have been identified which lead teachers to restrict their use of the target language with their learners. These factors include time limitations (Celik, 2003; Macaro, 1997); the need to convey administrative information to learners (Cook, 2001; Duff & Polio, 1990); the teaching of grammar (Cook, 2001; Dickson, 1996; Franklin, 1990; Kim & Elder, 2005; Macaro, 1997; Neil, 1997; Rolin-Ianziti & Brownlie, 2002) and explanations of complex notions of language and culture (Celik, 2003; Chambers, 1992; Cook, 2001). The learners’ level of target language proficiency also impacts on how much teachers feel they are able to interact with their learners through the target language. The study reported here focuses on teachers’ choice of language in courses for beginner-level learners. Research has identified that teachers tend to limit their use of the target language with learners whose level of proficiency in the language is low (Franklin, 1990; Meiring & Norman, 2002).

Although numerous factors have been identified as influential on teachers’ choice of language at specific stages of a lesson, this article focuses on one particular factor: teachers’ perceptions of the extent of learners’ unease or anxiety towards the use of the target language

in the classroom. It has been argued that foreign language learner anxiety impairs the learning process (Scovel, 1991) and that learners' anxiety is linked to the perception of difficulty of the target language (Horwitz, 1989). In terms of the relationship between learner anxiety and language pedagogy, Ariza (2002) found that the use of the 'Community Language Learning' method (Curran, 1972) which aimed to create feelings of comfort in learners was effective with reluctant and resistant learners of Spanish. Other teaching methodologies of the 1970s such as 'Suggestopedia' and 'The Silent Way' also attempted to reduce learner anxiety related to language learning (Stevick, 1980). In their discussion of the issues concerning the use of target language and the L1 in the classroom, Guest and Pachler (2001) described the need for teachers to create feelings of "confidence and security" in the classroom (p. 85). This echoes the findings of Polio and Duff's (1994) study into the attitudes and practices of US teachers towards the use of the TL and English in university classrooms. They found that teachers felt the need to create a 'relaxed atmosphere' (p. 318) and this influenced their classroom language choice.

The relationship of learner anxiety and classroom target language use is worthy of further investigation because, as Levine (2003) points out, the literature on language learning anxiety generally addresses social and personal variables whereas learners' anxiety about target language use in particular is seldom taken into account (p. 346). Levine's (2003) study of foreign language learners and teachers in the US and Canada examined the relationship between reported uses of the target language in the classroom and learner anxiety towards its use. He found that although the learners in the study appeared to appreciate the value of target language interactions for the language learning process, they nevertheless expressed some level of anxiety towards its use in the language classroom. The study reported here aimed to identify the impact of learners' affective responses towards use of the target language on teachers' practices, in particular on their language choices with beginner-level language learners.

Methodology

This study collected qualitative data from the language teaching staff at an urban Australian University. Twenty-seven language teachers out of the thirty-six employed at the university at the time of the study agreed to participate. The participant teachers taught one of the six languages offered at the university: three of the teachers taught Chinese, three taught French, six taught German, three taught Italian, ten taught Japanese and two taught Spanish. The proportionally greater number of teachers of Japanese compared to teachers of other languages reflects the larger size of the Japanese language program at the university. The majority of the language courses offered at the research site were at beginner to lower-intermediate level where the students have no or very limited experience in learning the particular foreign language before joining the course. The students are all undergraduates and have elected to study a language as part of their degree program. They receive four hours of face-to-face language instruction per week over a 14-week semester (a total of 56 hours of face-to-face instruction of the semester).

The data for this study were collected in two phases using two data collection tools: online questionnaires and semi-structured interviews. The online questionnaire was completed anonymously by twenty of the participant teachers while the remaining seven teachers were interviewed individually. Similar items were included in both the questionnaires and interviews, however the interviews allowed for more extensive responses to be recorded.

Both data collection tools also collected background information on the teachers' qualifications and level of experience. All participants reported holding formal qualifications in Languages Education/Teaching and high-level proficiency in the language taught. Regarding their length of professional experience, only one teacher reported less than two

years teaching experience with the remaining twenty-seven teachers reporting over six years teaching experience.

In the design of the questionnaires and interviews, the initial items in each did not lead participants towards particular issues of classroom language use but were intended to allow the teachers to raise any aspects they wished to comment on. Later items in both instruments sought to elicit data on particular classroom situations or teacher practices. The data reported in this study form part of a larger project but the specific questionnaire and interview items relevant to the results reported here included the items:

- *Teachers of beginner-level courses differ in how (and how much) they use the Target Language (TL) and English with their learners. What are your own views about using the target language and English in beginner-level language classes?*
- *Some teachers adjust the way they speak when they are using the TL with beginner-level learners. Do you do this?*
- *Thinking about when you teach beginner-level classes, do you ever find yourself using more English with your students than had planned?*

Each interview was recorded and transcribed and the questionnaire responses were collated. Data from both sources were sorted for examples of teachers' experience of and attitudes towards the classroom uses of the target language and L1 using the method of content analysis for common and emerging themes (Ryan & Bernard, 2000).

In the reporting of data collected in this study, the teachers' responses are reproduced here in italicized font with teachers referred to by pseudonyms. The responses also appear as originally written by the participant teachers in the online questionnaire or as transcribed spoken text collected through interviews and therefore contain some inconsistencies in expression.

Results and discussion

The findings emerging from the collected data are discussed in relation to the study's research question: To what extent do the affective responses of learners influence teachers' classroom language use? Overall, it was found that many of the participant teachers reported being concerned about the affective state of their learners, including in relation to learners' reactions to the use of the target language in the classroom. Another finding was that teachers identified the need to be aware of individual differences within groups of learners, regarding their reactions to classroom target language use. The third key finding which will be discussed is that despite the teachers' sensitivity to their learners' affective state, the study also found variety in how the teachers responded in their classroom practice.

Teachers' Concern about their Learners' Affective State

Overall, the data collected in this study show that not only did many of the group of teachers report being sensitive to their learners' reactions to the use of the target language in their classrooms, but that their perceptions of the learners' affective states influence the teachers' language choices and teaching practices. When asked for their views on using the TL and English with beginner-level learners, the teachers' responses related mostly to the many factors influencing the use of both languages at specific times. Table 1 contains a summary of their categorized responses.

Table 1: Teachers' views on using the Target Language and English in the beginner-level classrooms

<i>Themes raised by teachers (number of comments on sub-themes in brackets)</i>	<i>Number of comments</i>
<p>Classroom Use of the Target Language The teachers identify reasons for using the target language with learners, including:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>to simulate the 'real' world (6)</i> • <i>to motivate students (5)</i> • <i>to develop learners' skills in comprehending spoken language (4)</i> • <i>to provide opportunity for students to hear the target language in foreign language teaching/learning contexts (2)</i> • <i>to create a 'natural' learning environment (2)</i> • <i>to show the target language as a tool for communication (2)</i> • <i>to assist in classroom management (2)</i> <p>The teachers aim to maximise their use of the target language with learners The teachers acknowledge the limitations of the target language used with learners</p>	<p>17</p> <p>10</p> <p>3</p>
<p>Classroom Use of English The teachers identify reasons for using English with learners, including:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>in response to learners' affective condition (14)</i> • <i>to communicate complex messages or content (8)</i> • <i>to allow for greater student participation (1)</i> • <i>to save time (1)</i> <p>Teachers reject 'exclusive TL' teaching methods</p>	<p>24</p> <p>6</p>
<p>Length of teaching experience has resulted in a change in teachers' attitudes towards classroom use of the TL and English</p>	<p>3</p>
<p>Teachers' language choice is challenging because of individual differences among students</p>	<p>3</p>
<i>Total number of comments collected</i>	<p>66</p>

The intentionally general nature of this opening item in the questionnaire and interview was designed to elicit any aspects of classroom language choice which the participants identified themselves before they were later guided to respond to specific issues in later sections of the questionnaire or in the interviews.

As shown in Table 1, of the 66 individual comments collected from the group of teachers, the most common theme identified related to the teachers' use of the L1 (English) and specifically to the category termed 'in response to learners' affective condition'. Fourteen of the 66 comments collected from participants were assigned to this category. The teachers used terms such as, 'frustration', 'panic', 'feel threatened' and 'insecure' and to describe their perceptions of learners' responses to the classroom use of the target language and such comments were collected from teachers of all six language programs. For example, the teacher Silvio described the use of Italian in the classroom as desirable as long as it did not cause "excessive stress on students". During the interviews, Sandra, a teacher of German, responded that "If I use too much German it freaks them out" and Eri, a teacher of Japanese, commented that "I know they want to be exposed to target language but at the same time they feel really threatened if they don't understand much." Such comments illustrate how these teachers perceive and interpret their learners' emotional responses to the use of the target language.

Further comments collected from the teachers also suggest that the teachers' perceptions of their learners' unease regarding target language use influences their practices and choice of language at specific points of their teaching. Yuji, a teacher of Japanese, described his

practice of switching between using English and Japanese to allay student unease: *“I just quickly switch Japanese and English back-and-forth... I do that a lot. I think that helps the students. At least they don't panic that way.”* The teacher Sylvia also commented that the amount of English or Spanish used with students related to how ‘comfortable’ she perceived them to be. An extreme experience of teaching students with high levels of unease about the use of the TL in the classroom was collected in an interview with Elke, a teacher of German:

“... it's important is to immerse students ... but I did have some experience with people who did not like it at all... where students who would not understand every word I was saying if I spoke German would start crying and leave the classroom and not come back to class. For some people it is a very insecure situation.”

Even though Elke identifies the importance of providing learners with TL input and aims to maximise her use of the TL with her learners, her experience shows that it can be challenging when teaching beginner-level adult learners.

Sophie, a teacher of French, described how her attitude and practices regarding classroom language use had changed over her career of more than ten years particularly in response to her experience of learners’ affective state:

“I started my career using very little English. Little by little I noticed that only students with healthy self-esteem and a high level of tolerance for ambiguity were benefiting from that. Therefore, I started to use English more and more. I've now become an advocate of the use of the first language in language classes. I've noticed that the level of anxiety in class is much lower, and as a result the learning retention is increased.”

The comments collected from the teachers of all the language programs indicate a widespread sensitivity at the university towards students’ reactions to the use of the target language for classroom interactions.

Differences within Individual Groups of Learners

As well as sensitivity to learners’ reactions to classroom target language use, the comments of some participants also identified the need the teachers felt to adjust their approach to classroom language use in response to the individual differences amongst learners. Eri, a teacher of Japanese, summed up the sentiment in her comment that: *“...some students are threatened to be spoken Japanese all the time, but some students may not like to be spoken English to. You need to be flexible about it.”* Given that the language classes at the university may include up to 30 individual students, it is unlikely that the affective responses of all the students in any particular class would not be similar.

Rita, a teacher of German, also identified more specific differences she had encountered amongst groups of learners who had differing previous experience of FL learning. Describing students she had taught who had previously learnt other languages, she found:

“...normally they are a little bit more flexible... they are welcoming when the target language is used as much as possible, they may be a little bit more open and welcome it even more than others who are easier to be confused.”

Rita’s experience is consistent with findings from Levine’s (2003) study of university FL students’ level of anxiety towards classroom TL use. He also found that “students who come from bi- or multilingual backgrounds may feel less anxious about TL use than students from monolingual backgrounds” (p. 354).

Differences in Teachers’ Practices

The data presented above suggest that many teachers across the language programs at this university identified learner unease or anxiety as relevant to their use of the TL and English

in the classroom. However, the teachers' comments also revealed that this level of concern for learners has different consequences for their teaching practices across the participant group. For example through the questionnaire, both Chen-Xiao, a teacher of Chinese and Emiko, a teacher of Japanese raised the issue of students' level of confidence in relation to their classroom use of the target language, but reported different strategies in response to it. Chen-Xiao felt that: *"English should be the dominant Language of instruction in order to give the students more confidence."* In contrast, Emiko felt that increasing learner confidence could be achieved not by limiting the use of the target language, but by increasing it:

"...an important issue regarding the successful use of Target Language in the classroom is developing students' confidence in the language, not only using it but even being exposed to large amounts of it."

Emiko's response highlights the challenge that teachers face in allowing for low-proficiency learners minimal comprehension of the TL, yet also providing learners with opportunity to listen to more extensive uses of the TL in the classroom. The teacher provided further explanation of the approach used with students:

"So at the beginning of the course we talk about the fact that in a natural situation in the country, students would not understand everything, so in the classroom too they would not be expected to understand or certainly produce every word. (This is done in English) I then proceed to use as much Target Language as possible supporting it with gestures, teaching aids, pictures etc."

This teacher has described one technique used to reduce the unease experienced by beginner level learners: making explicit to learners the benefits of using the target language in the classroom. This strategy was specifically investigated in an item of the questionnaire and also in the interviews where teachers were asked whether they discuss their use of the target language with learners. Whereas other items in the questionnaire which probed teachers' use of different teaching techniques yielded generally consistent responses from all the teachers, responses to this item varied across the group of participants.

The open-ended comments from teachers on this issue show a divergence in attitudes about the value of discussing with their students the rationale for using the TL. The teachers who replied that they 'never' discuss classroom use of the TL with learners felt it was unnecessary as students would *"understand why I use it"* (Jacqueline, teacher of French). Similarly Ute, a teacher of German, commented that students *"don't need to know the didactics behind my strategies. They learn better sometimes, when they don't know"*

In contrast to the teachers who rejected the practice of discussing their approach to teaching with learners, there were an almost equal number who indicated it was a practice they used, particularly in the first class of the semester. Carmel, a teacher of Italian responded: *"I tell them that I will be avoiding English as soon as they are progressing in the TL."* Teachers' practice of discussing classroom language use with students was also explained by Sandra, a teacher of German:

"I also always make a point with my classes of telling them, say at the beginning of semester, that I don't expect them to understand every single word but that's not the point. It's about the importance of exposure."

Several teachers also described how they seek to allay students concerns about not comprehending the target language they may hear in the classroom (and beyond), by making explicit the processes involved in listening. For example, Eri, a teacher of Japanese, described her own experiences using the target language: *"Sometimes I tell them about how I don't understand everything in Japanese even as a native-speaker and also how I don't listen*

to everything.” By raising the issue with learners, the teachers seem to be seeking to reduce the level of learner unease about listening to the target language.

Limitations of the Study and Directions for Future Research

The level of language teachers’ sensitivity towards beginner-level students’ reactions to the use of the target language in the classroom has also been shown to be an important factor in influencing how (and in which language) teachers interact with their students in language classrooms. In particular, the study has identified a teaching strategy employed by teachers to allay students’ concerns: the explicit discussion of classroom target language use. However, given that many of the teachers in this study reported that these discussions typically occur within the first meetings of the class, subsequent research which observes classroom interactions in the first stage of a course, would allow for the investigations of the types of discussions which take place and specifically how teachers frame classroom uses of the target language for learners.

This study has explored the perceptions of a group of teachers in one educational institution. It would also be constructive for future research to investigate the perspectives of learners on the issue. This would allow an examination of how beneficial learners find discussions of classroom language use and to what extent teachers’ perceptions of the level of students anxiety were accurate or whether, as Levine (2003) found, teachers tended to overestimate the negative impact of their target language use on learners. There is also the need to investigate teachers’ attitudes and practices in different teaching contexts to test the viability of the strategy among different groups of learners.

Conclusion

This study has collected data on teacher perceptions of learner unease and the effect these perceptions have on classroom interaction practices in one university beginner-level FL learning context. However, it is important to remember that this is a study of teacher perceptions of learners’ feelings and that such perceptions may or may not be accurate. As found in the study by Levine (2003), language teachers sometimes overestimate the level of anxiety experienced by learners. In this study, even though the teacher perceptions of learners’ level of anxiety cannot be verified, it is nevertheless an important factor to investigate as many teachers expressed sensitivity to their learners’ negative reactions to the use of the target language in the classroom. It also impacted on the choice of language used in the classroom by some of the teachers.

The data collected has also shown that the issue of teachers’ use of the target language and the L1 in beginner-level language class is a complex one. The goal to maximise target language use cannot simply be achieved through teachers relentlessly using the target language with learners and ignoring a powerful resource available for communicating meaning: the learners’ L1. The teachers in this study described how they use English with their beginner-level students for a number of reasons, including to seek to allay student unease, to reduce student frustrations and to build student confidence.

This study has also revealed a teaching technique which utilises the L1 to explicitly discuss the classroom use of the target language with learners. The participant teachers described how they address student concerns about not comprehending the target language used in classroom interactions by specifying that learners do not need to comprehend all that they hear, by giving opportunities for learners to confirm understandings and by highlighting the value of being exposed to the target language. Macaro (2001) argued the need to identify “when reference to the L1 can be a valuable tool and when it is simply used as an easy

option” (p. 545). This study has highlighted one example of how the L1 tool can be valuably used: to address perceived learner unease concerning use of the target language, which may ultimately assist to create the conditions for the target language to be used more extensively in classroom interactions.



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The logo for iafor (International Association for Applied Linguistics) is centered on the page. It consists of the lowercase letters 'iafor' in a light blue, sans-serif font. The text is enclosed within a large, faint, light blue circular arc that is partially obscured by a larger, semi-transparent red arc that also surrounds the text.

Interlingual Code-switching As Verbal Tools : A Case Study of the Misings of the Brahmaputra Valley

Rajeev K. Doley

0270

Tezpur University, India

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Abstract:

Socio-cultural diversity is a significant component of human life today. In multi-ethnic societies, the speakers of one language get in contact with those of other languages and consequently acquire their languages. This acquisition leads to code-switching between the acquired languages. Code-switching is used, among others, as a verbal strategy that reflects the inter-personal and inter-group relations and their maintenance in the society at large. In general, it is used to achieve two things: (a) fill a linguistic/conceptual gap, or (b) for other multiple communicative purposes. The present work examines the language behaviour of the Misings living in the Brahmaputra valley of India with a focus on their use of code-switching during oral communications. The study specifically addresses the social meanings and motivations associated with the use of code-switching between the Mising and Assamese languages by the ethnic Mising speakers with their fellow Misings.

The Misings are one of the major ethnic groups of Assam recognized as a “scheduled tribe”. They are believed to have migrated from the South-west China around 2000 BC and now, they are settled in eight districts in upper and middle Assam.

1.1 : Introduction

Linguistic diversity is a vital component of social behaviour today. In bilingual or multilingual societies, speakers of one linguistic group quite often use phonemes, clauses and even independent sentences of other language(s) active in the social circle. Such speakers symmetrically produce utterances in which they switch in and out from one language to another several times in speech. According to Crystal (1987), code or language switching occurs when an individual alternates between two languages during his/her speech. A bilingual may be said to be one who is able to communicate, in varying degrees, in a second language (L2). In a bilingual communication, different forms of switching may take place, such as, phrases from both the languages succeeding each other, alteration of sentences, and switching for a longer narrative and return to the matrix language.

2.1 : Definitions

John Gumperz defines code-switching as “The juxtaposition within the same speech, exchange of passages of speech belonging to two different grammatical systems or subsystems” (Gumperz 1982: 59). According to Shana Poplack, “Code-switching refers to the mixing by bilinguals (or multilinguals) of two or more languages in discourse, often with no change of interlocutor or topic. Such mixing may take place at any level of linguistic structure, but its occurrence within the confines of a single sentence, constituent or even word, has attracted most linguistic attention” (Poplack 1980: 1). Carol Myers-Scotton observes that, “In many of the world’s bilingual communities, fluent bilinguals sometimes engage in code-switching by producing discourses which, in the same conversational turn or in consecutive turns, include morphemes from two or more of the varieties in their linguistic repertoire” (Myers-Scotton 1997: 217). Peter Auer refers to code-switching as the “alternating use of two or more languages within one conversation” (Auer 1998: 3). Cook (1991) gives a perspective of the degree of use of code-switching by bilinguals in normal conversations by outlining that code-switching consists of 84% single word switches, 10% phrase switches and 6% clause and sentence switching on an average. As Gysels (1992) states, code-switching implies some degree of competence in the languages being used even if bilingual fluency is not stable. “It may be used to achieve two things: (a) fill a linguistic/conceptual gap, or (b) for other multiple communicative purposes” (Gysels 1992: 41, 56).

2.2 : Types of Code-switching

There are generally two types of code-switching, i.e., intra-sentential switching and inter-sentential switching. In an intra-sentential switching, the language change takes place within the boundaries of a sentence as clauses or words or even phonemes. Speakers resort to such switching mainly (1) for filling lexical gaps; and (2) as a matter of habit or as a verbal lubricant. Inter-sentential code-switching is a change of language or variety between independent sentences but in the same conversation. The extent of switch in such a switching can be one sentence or many more in an extended discourse. The inter-sentential code-switching is more often studied for the social features and motivations associated with the switching.

3.1 : Methodology

The interpretation of interpersonal interaction and the use or choice of a given language or another in such interaction is a complex field of study, because this occurs under different situations, with different participants and on different topics. Any speech or utterance so made has some “message” or implication” in it (Myers-Scotton 2006). Therefore, the choice of language bears significant social meanings depending upon the behavioural environment of the concerned society. A number of factors influence and motivate the choices that speakers make during speech interaction. In order to interpret these factors and analyze the social values associated with the language change in regard to the target group, the Markedness Model of Myers-Scotton (1983, 2006) is employed.

3.2 : Markedness Model

The Markedness Model views linguistic choices as negotiations of self-identity and the desired relationships with others which speakers exercise taking into account the context and the prevailing social norms. Introduced by Myers-Scotton in 1983, the Markedness Model “is more centered on the notion that speakers make choices because of their own goals” (Myers-Scotton 2006). It means that by changing language in course of a conversation, the speaker tries to meet his/her goal(s) which the listeners or other participants interpret. Therefore, the speaker makes his/her choice of code as per the reaction of the listeners. Here, “‘code’ is just one of the cover terms for ways of speaking, so it can refer to separate languages, dialects, or styles” (Myers-Scotton 2006).

Unmarked choices : Unmarked choices of language are those that are more or less expected as medium of communication in the same setting, with the same participants and on the same topic. In this context, Myers-Scotton refers to a “Rights and Obligations set” as part of the normative expectations for each type of interaction. This represents a set of indexical rights and obligations of the members of a society established by the prevailing social norms. “In regard to language”, she says, “the unmarked choice is the linguistic reflection of any specific Rights and Obligation set” (Myers-Scotton 2006).

The “unmarked choice” when made by a speaker, does not create any ripples in the linguistic wave of the society because it is the expected choice. This choice is determined by the established community norms and behaviour based on cultural values. These cultural values are normally set by members of the family, social circles, mainly by the dominant members of the society. For example, if the teacher is seen bowing while wishing “good morning” to seniors over and over again, the students too will, in course of time, develop a similar habit. This is an example of influence by symbolic domination. Unmarked choices are dynamic in nature and amenable to change as per new requirements because social norms themselves are open to change over time.

Marked choices : Marked choices are those that are not pre-known or predictable in the given Rights and Obligation set. Under this principle, making a choice is a negotiation of Rights and Obligations between the speaker and the listener(s) for a given interaction. This means that the speaker making a marked choice is calling for a new situation, for a new Rights and Obligation

set to be in effect for the concerned interaction. “Thus, a choice that is marked in interaction X would be unmarked in interaction Y, the one that the speaker wishes to be in effect. Generally speaking, a marked choice is a negotiation about the speaker’s persona (who the speaker is) and the speaker’s relation to other participants. Thus, making a marked choice is a negotiation about either the solidarity or power dimension (or both)” (Myers-Scotton 2006).

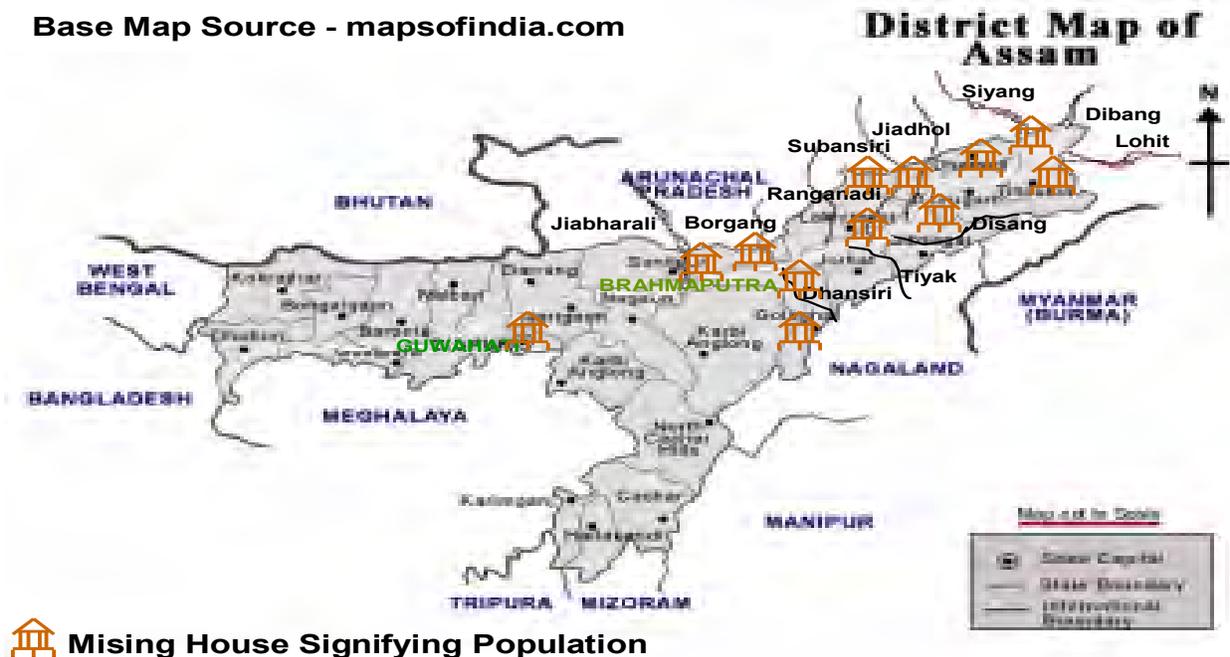
The rational aspect of the Markedness Model is that speakers make choices not because the choices are more unmarked or more marked, but they do with a sense that the choices will bring them the best results. For this purpose, they make assessments, they “weigh the relative costs and rewards of speaking one language rather than another” (Myers-Scotton 2006).

The Markedness Model applies to all kinds of language choices that speakers make under different situations and with different communicative intents.

4.1 : The Misings

The Misings are one of the major ethnic groups of Assam, India and they form the second largest tribe of the state after the Bodos. According to the 2001 census, the population of the Misings in Assam was 5,87,310 which constituted more than 17.8% of the total tribal population of the state. Of this, 88% (5,17,170) are speakers of the Mising language and the rest 12% have gradually switched to Assamese in the process of their acculturation in the Brahmaputra valley (Taid, 2010: .4). The literacy rate of the Misings, according to the same source, was 60.1% (male 71.4% and female 48.3%). However, a recent unofficial count conducted by the Takam Mising Porin Kebang (All Mising Students’ Union) and its allies has put it at 12,57,596 living in 1724 scheduled villages. The Mising population is found in the upper half of Assam spreading over the districts of Dhemaji, Lakhimpur, and Sonitpur in the North Bank and Tinsukia, Dibrugarh, Sibsagar, Jorhat, and Golaghat in the south bank of the Brahmaputra. A sizable Mising population is found in the eastern districts of Arunachal Pradesh also. With the proliferation of education among the Misings and a good number of them being inducted to government and public jobs, a large number has settled in cities like Guwahati, Jorhat, Dibrugarh, Sibsagar, Dibrugarh, Tinsukia, Tezpur, North Lakhimpur, Dhemaji and other towns of Assam; as well as Pasighat, Oyan and a few other towns in Arunachal Pradesh. The following map shows the present demography in Assam :

Base Map Source - mapsofindia.com



 **Mising House Signifying Population**

Figure 1

4.2 : Origin and entry to the Brahmaputra valley

The Misings belong to the Indo-Mongoloid group of the Indian population. Although there is no written or oral document describing exactly how and from where they migrated to the Brahmaputra valley, historians and researchers believe that they migrated from the upper courses of the river Huang-Ho and Yangtse-Kiang in North-west China and entered India around 2000 B.C. and finally landed in the Brahmaputra valley between the thirteenth century and the fourteenth century A.D. (Pegu, Nomal 1998, 34). On entering India through the north-east frontiers bordering China, they occupied a chain of lofty mountains stretching over the Subansiri, Siang and Lohit districts of present Arunachal Pradesh, formerly known as NEFA (North East Frontier Agency) and lived there for a number of centuries before they came down to the Brahmaputra valley of Assam (Pegu, Peter 1998). The early historians knew the overall population of these Hills as “Meeri-Mechmi” (Casim 1799).

4.3 : Contact with the Plains People

The Misings have been referred to as 'mediator' or 'agent' or government representatives in a number of Assam histories pertaining to medieval and modern periods. Sir Edward Gait called them 'go-between', Robert Needham Cust named them 'mediator' and R.C.R. Cumming referred to them as 'interpreter' (Pegu, Peter 1998). William Robinson (1841: 358) had discovered potential qualities in them, worthy to put them in the rank of 'emissaries' like 'katakis', messengers, and interpreters who would be able to deal with other tribes in the region. Their adaptability to amphibian dwellings as in the hills as well as plains and their fluency in the languages spoken by the inhabitants of both these geographical locations gave them advantage to

be interpreters and emissaries. The administration took advantage of these skills and inducted many of them in the civil services as *Katakis*.

While performing their job as mediators, interpreters and emissaries, the Misings had to come in contact with various languages and cultures, particularly, that of the people in the plains of the Brahmaputra valley and that of the NEFA hills. This occasioned a cross-cultural acquisition leading to the intermingling of linguistic practices among others. Adaptability being one of their inherent qualities, the Misings began to get adapted to the language, culture and even religious beliefs of the people around them.

5.1 : The Mising Language

The Mising language belongs to the Tibeto-Burman language family which originates from the Sino-Tibetan language tree. The Sino-Tibetan languages may be divided broadly into two groups, Tibeto-Burman and Sino-Shyamese. Sino-Shyamese descendent languages are spread over China, Burma, Thailand, and the range up to Cambodia (Padun 1989: 434). One of these languages Tai came to Assam in 1228 AD with the Ahom migrants. The Tibeto-Burman languages may be divided into four groups – Tibetan, Himalayan, Assam-Burman, and North Assam (Padun 1989: 434 from LSI and Dr. SK Chatterjee).

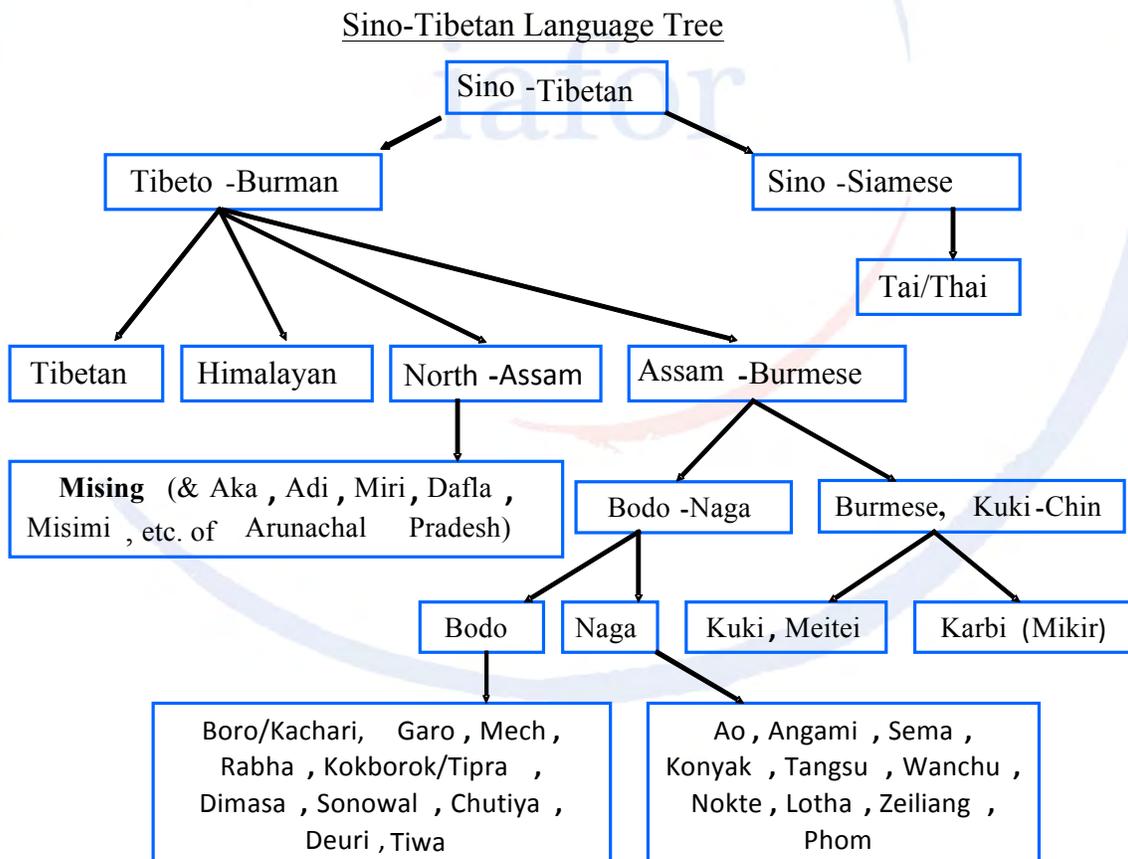


Figure 2

The Mising language comes from the North Assam Group which has mainly six speech varieties: Pagro, Sayang, Delu, Dambug, Moying and Oyan. There is a great deal of similarity between the Adi (Abor) and the Mising (Miri) speeches and therefore “Adi and Mising may, with good reasons, be considered as two dialects of the same language which, in fact, prompted J. H. Lorrain to produce the work *A Dictionary of Abor Miri Languages* in 1910” (Taid 1995: vii). There are very little differences among the other Mising sub-dialects also as one group can easily understand the other group. But each group has its distinctive accent and intonation. It is noteworthy that a Mising sub-group Bihia or Samuguria use broken Assamese as their speech.

6.1 : Code-switching as verbal strategies and indices

It is evident that change or shift of speech variety during conversation has a number of socio-psychological aspects associated with it apart from its surface value. In a multi-speech community, every well-formed member of the society has at his/her disposal a repertoire of linguistic choices from which he/she selects for use the appropriate stock depending upon the situation, topic of discourse or networks of socio-cultural relations. Krishnaswami et.al. (1992: 42-43) observes, “What we do actually produce is a rule-governed realization of a complex network of situationally and culturally determined choices”. The authors further say that these choices are determined by various factors as shifts in situation require shifts in language varieties. Such activities involve socio-psychological behaviour, mood and relative social positions of the participants, the distinguishing features of the socio-cultural setting, and the topic of discourse. Let us see the following excerpts :

Excerpt 1 : A verbal tool to include or exclude a person during discussion (Marked Switching)

Setting : The verandah of Dinesh Pegu’s (57) house at village Gomari in the Golaghat district of Assam on October 27, 2007. A distant relative of Pegu has come to fetch a house maid who happens to be the mother of an eight-year old boy staying with Pegu. Pegu is a father figure to the boy as well as his mother and guides them in all major activities. Over their morning tea, Pegu and his relative talk about the woman who is sitting on a bench in the other side of the verandah.

- 1 Pegu : Sé né:sé bík abí:n bírodo du:míndag, odokké, amodé:bulu lukín-lumíndag émna *olop kosto pai ase aru*. (This woman stays with her elder brother and she complains that her sister-in-law and others behave scornfully with her.)
- 2 : *Maiki manuhor kothatu*. (You know, it’s a matter of women.)
- 3 Relative : Bík milbo:dé ? (Her husband ?)
- 4 Pegu : Bík milbo:dé ménnýng-konnyí:bo gípackang émdag. (She says, her husband has gone away (from her) long back.)
- 5 : Su:pag *sari-pas bosor-koi idu:bo:pé*, yoknamé. (Probably, it’s already four-five years now since he went missing.)
- 6 : Aipé lagidag, *karon bí ménnýng Jibo Gogoi kolo:sin dungkatu*. (She should

- make a good domestic help, because she stayed with Jibo Gogoi (former Speaker, Assam), last year.
- 7 : *Lora-suwaliiu suwa-sita koribo pare.* (She can take care of children.)
- 8 : *Émpige:la, léko léko nappa:dé tatkgamdagnéna, ge:yé-payé mílo kerigsudag.* (But sometimes, she has a sour mouth, particularly when scolded, she replies.)
- 9 : *Édém no ka:la solai tobo péna.* (That may be taken care of by you.)
- 10 Relative: *Ma, agerdém aiyo:pé germílo, ko:ka:ngém aiyo:pé kangapmílo, okodémméi ge:pénam kadang.* (No, if she does her work properly, if she takes care of the children, what is there to scold her for.)
- 11 Pegu : *Kamtu koriboi lagibo, karubar ghorot thakok, nijor ghorot thakok.* (One has to work irrespective of his/her being at home or at someone else's home.)
- 12 : *Asolote, jotei nathakok ghorkhon nijor buli bhabi lobo lage, tetiya tat thaki, kam-bon kori bhal lage.* (Actually, wherever a person stays he/she should take that place as his/her own home, then, it becomes a comfortable place to stay and work in.)

Analysis : While introducing Rashmi to her new *Malik* (employer or owner), Pegu informs him about her family status and experience in the related field in Sentence 1, 2, 4, 5, 6 and 7. He describes this mostly in the unmarked language of Mising with naturally inserted Assamese words and phrases because he does not mind if she understands what they are talking about her such as that she is staying with her elder brother and she is unhappy with the behaviour of her sister-in-law. In Sentence 1, he effects a clausal switching and in Sentence 7, the whole sentence which indicates her inclusion in the discussion. It is also implicated that this transmission of information is directed toward preparing the new *Malik* about her and drawing a sort of sympathy towards her. In Sentence 8 and 9, he makes a marked choice when he speaks pure Mising in expressing that she is sometimes sour in replying when scolded. The speaker does not want this part of his speech to be understood by her and therefore she is excluded from the discussion. In Sentence 10, when the new *Malik* makes it clear that there is nothing to scold her about if she does her works properly, Pegu again switches to Assamese in Sentence 10 and 11 to convey the morale of what her new *Malik* says. In fact, the expression that one must work with a sense of belongingness wherever he/she stays, is directed to her to understand and grab. Through this marked choice of language, the speaker again includes Rashmi in the conversation.

Excerpt – 2 : A devise to demonstrate language skill (Marked Switching)

Setting : The fore court of a small roadside tea stall at village Gali. As usually they do, a group of people are gathered to enjoy the winter morning sun. X (name concealed to avoid possibility of derogation) is a candidate for the approaching Panchayat elections (held in Assam in 2002). The campaigning is at its peak and the candidates are making all out efforts to woo the voters in their own ways. While conversing with the gathering, X tries to impress upon the other participants about his ability to speak and work, in reply to a complaint from one of the public. The conversation progresses on a topic regarding the poor performance of the MLAs elected from the Mising areas. The following is an excerpt of the semi-formal conversation :

- 1 X : Ngolu su:pag congress *sorkar-ém ka:tobo*, *AGP sorkar-émsin ka:tobo*. (Now, we have seen the Congress Government, we have also seen the AGP Government.)
- 2 : Ngolu okkom pa:ton? (What have we got ?)
- 3 : Ngolukkosokke mélignam kídí:dok de:kkoí *Montri* pésin ika, *kintu* bulu ngoluk do:lung kídí:sok léga:pé, ngoluk réngamsok léga:pé oko agerém gerton? (Many of our elected members had become ministers also, but what have they done for these villages, and for our society ?)
- 4 Public A: Bolo Dispur bo Assembly solil du:dodém, ngoluk kosokké gíné MLA kídí:dokké agoméi lenma. (When the Assembly session is on at Dispur, no speech comes out of our MLAs (elected from our constituencies).)
- 5 : Nabbutsul du:dag. (They keep their mouth shut.)
- 6 X : Émpilangi:na asudouko kinné, agom lujo:né taniém ngolu méligpé *lagidangé*. (That's why, we have to elect/send some one who knows things and who can speak.)
- 7 : Nolu kindagéi, ngolu *kiman bosor hongothon-not asu*. (You all know, how long we have been in the organization (he refers to a students' union where he was an executive member).)
- 8 : *Aji baro bosor hol hongothon-not kaam kora*. (Now it's already twelve years that we have been working for the organization.)
- 9 : *Amar bohut obigyota hoi goise*. (Now we have acquired a lot of experience.)
- 10 : *Keneke homosti solabo lage, keneke officer-ror pora kaam adai koribo lage, amak hikabo logiya eku nai*. (We needn't be taught how to run a constituency and how to get things done through officers.)

Analysis : The candidate who is on his election campaign, talks mostly in Mising in the first part of his speech, in Sentence 1, 2, and 3, with a visible sense of patriotism and loyalty to the Mising language and culture. His apparent intention here is to project himself as a patriot, as he is generally known, because of his active association with an organization known for spearheading a series of movements for preservation of the Mising language and culture. One of the objectives of this organization is to encourage Misings to speak their ethnic language with fellow Misings instead of Assamese which is the fashion of the day, particularly, in the urban areas. But as one of the public expresses his dissatisfaction over the speaking inability of those elected by them to the State Assembly, in Sentence 4 and 5, he immediately begins to speak Assamese in Sentence 6 and 7 and completely switches over to that language in Sentence 8, 9, and 10. Here, apparently, his switching intends to communicate to the public that he is capable of speaking Assamese and so he will not keep silent when he is required to speak. This switching, therefore, is intended to demonstrate the language skill of the speaker.

Excerpt 3 : A verbal lubricant (Unmarked Switching)

Setting : The *soyar* (an open area for people to sit and sleep inside a stilted house) in the house of Sonaram Kutum (56), a primary school teacher of village Lohitmukh Bhalukaguri. *Soyar* is also

used for performing religious and ceremonial activities inside a Mising traditional house. Kutum has two sons and a daughter. His daughter Bonima who is the youngest in the family, is in college at Tezpur. One of Kutum's brothers is in Guwahati doing a job. In 2002, Bonima goes to spend her summer holidays with her uncle's family. During her stay there, she gets introduced to Sanjay who too is in Guwahati looking for a job after completion of his graduation. The friendship gradually turns to love. They think, their relationship is unlikely to be approved by her uncle and parents. So one day they decide to elope and get married in a temple. Although elopement is one of the marital traditions of the Misings, this act of Kutum's only daughter is not readily acceptable to her uncle and parents. On receiving the news, and as per the Mising traditions, Sanjay's parents/family members come to the bride's parents to offer *Orai-alig* (bride money). This is a highly formal situation under the village environment. The symbolic bride-money *Orai-alig* is arranged and kept in the middle of the *soyar* and the bride's family members are seated on one side facing the groom's party. There is one mover-speaker on both sides. The following is an excerpt of the conversation between the members of the bride's party and the bride-groom's party :

- 1 Speaker A : Ma, du:po:to. (No, wait.)
(Bride's Party)
- 2 : Ngoluk ommé porila dungai, bík *uporot amar bohut akha asile*. (Our daughter was studying, we had high hopes from her.)
- 3 : Odokké, bí bík Ba:boi ké okumbo *gorom bondho-so* dungkapéminé gíkané. (And she had gone to her uncle's place just to stay there during her summer holidays.)
- 4 Speaker B : Ngoluk omésé atér ommé, bím ngolu bottéru:pé *porai* po:pé émna mé:tungai. (She is our only daughter, and we wanted to educate her.)
(Bride's Party)
- 5 : *Heikarone ami monot bohut dukh paisu*. (Therefore, we are very hurt.)
- 6 Speaker C : Kédana, odok legangé *amaru beya lagise*. (Kedan [Parents of the bride and the bridegroom address each other as *Kédan*], we too are sorry for that.)
(Groom's Party)
- 7 : *Kintu kapiyén, ngoluk auo imurko ito, bim aík ommangí:ngé émna mé:la mé:yinsuteibongka émna nolum kumdung*. (But what to do, our son has committed a mistake, we pray that he be pardoned deeming him as your own child, and be accepted.)
- 8 Speaker B : (Bride's Uncle looking at his brother) Kaiya, kapiyébon, su:pak mituré sémpé *horaiko* patige:la kumdung. (Brother, what to do, now our *Miturs* (in-laws of daughter) are praying this way with a *horai*.)
(Bride's Party)
- 9 : *Mitur hisabe jihetu* ngolu bulum *ohotman koribo nuwaru, émpila la:rígéisula:boi émnana ludu:boné*. (Since we cannot dishonour them as *miturs*, we may perhaps accept it.)

Analysis : The above example reflects a typical situation of the Mising society related to marriage. Generally, there are four customary ways of marriage in the Mising society : first, *dugla la:nam* (elopement) which is resorted to by lovers sensing disapproval from either of the families; second, *mida:pé la:nam* (wedding) that is a formal and ritualistic marriage; third, *kumsu-do:sula la:nam* (marriage with information/blessing but without ceremony) is a low-budget marriage system normally adopted due to the crunch of money or time; and fourth, *sola la:nam* by which a girl is married forcibly. The present example which is an event of *dugla la:nam*, requires two major activities to follow immediately : *Dugtad* (information to the bride's family) and *Orai-alig* (bride-money). Through *Dugtad*, the parents of the bride is informed by especial messengers sent from the bride-groom's family that their daughter is in the possession/acceptance of the groom's family while *Orai-ali:g* is the ceremonial presentation of the bride-money to the bride's parents by the bride-groom's family. This is an example of highly sensitive and formal occasion where the rights and obligations of the members call for a *pleading and convincing* attitude from the bride-groom's family and an attitude with the power of *accepting or rejecting* from the bride's family. Behaviourally, the bride-groom's party is expected to be prepared for any eventuality. In such situations, even a misbehaviour from any member of the bride's family is tolerated and accepted with all humility by the bride-groom's party. In order to deal with such a highly sensitive issue, code-switching is used as a verbal oil to keep the expression going smoothly and spontaneously. The clausal switching *bik uporot amar bohut akha asile* in Sentence 2 is an expression of parents' expectation from children. The full-sentence switching *Heikarone ami monot bohut dukh paisu* in Sentence 5 expresses the bride's family being hurt while the use of *amaru beya lagise* in Sentence 6 is an attempt to console and share the bride-groom's party. The complementizing clause *Mitur hisabe jihetu ... ohotman koribo nuwaru* in Sentence 9 denotes the rights and obligations of the bride-groom's party from the bride's party and vice-versa in such situations. Although the italicized speech passages are the switches from L1 to L2, they form parts of an unmarked choice because this is the expected medium of interaction in the given situation. The compound word *gorom bondho* in Sentence 3, *porai* in Sentence 4 and *Kintu* in Sentence 7 are habitually inserted compensatory terms.

Excerpt 4 : A medium of communication with cattle (Unmarked Switching)

Setting and analysis : The paddy field of Binod Chintey (54) in the outskirts of Gohpur in the Sonitpur district of Assam on February 24, 2009. Binod along with his helpers is ploughing in the field preparing it for sowing the *lai* seeds, a variety of paddy cultivated in the pre-spring season. In the post-acculturation convention of manual ploughing, the ploughman drives the plough-pulling oxen with one hand holding a stick and the other holding the plough for proper tilling of the soil. While doing this, the ploughman communicates to the oxen uttering 'ja, ja' for moving forward or faster, 'guri, guri' for making a left turn, 'bahire, bahire' for making a right turn, and 'ro, ro' or 'hou, hou' for making a stop. They also utter 'ah, ah' while asking the animals to come near them. This switching to Assamese is an unmarked medium of communicating with animals. Further, Binod says that the oxen won't understand if the commands are made in the Mising language. This is an evidence of continuance of the contact culture in their original form in the Mising society. When approached, Binod says that the present way of cultivation has been adopted by the Misings from the plains Assamese society. Therefore, the Misings still use the Assamese language while communicating with the cattle.

7.1 : Concluding Remarks

Code-switching or language alternation during in-group communication is a regular feature in societies with more than one linguistic group. Apart from using L2 or L3 as fillers of linguistic gaps, the speakers also exercise language alternation to fulfill their various communicative intents and verbal strategies. In bilingual communities such as the Misings of the Brahmaputra valley, such switching is an inherent behavioural characteristic of the ethnic speakers.

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Visions of Language Teacher Education: Perspectives from Finland and Japan
Crystal Green

0289

University of Jyväskylä, Finland

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Abstract:

Globalization has intensified the need for communication between speakers of different languages. Worldwide a greater emphasis is being placed on foreign language teaching, particularly English language teaching, at the primary and secondary school levels. However foreign language teacher training institutions in most countries struggle to prepare teachers to meet the growing demands. English teachers often enter the workforce with insufficient skills to prepare their students for participation in a bi- or multi-lingual world. This research considers teacher educators as a critical link between language education policy and teacher practice. Research on teacher training has traditionally focused on curriculum design or the experiences of the teacher trainees, but has overlooked teacher educators: their professional experience, educational perspectives and collaborative relationships. By comparing Finnish and Japanese teacher educators' perspectives on pre-service teacher education, this two-part study seeks to contribute to discussions on the challenges and successes of improving English language teacher education. Through interviews with English language teacher educators, the study provides insight into teacher educators' views about current issues facing schoolteachers, as well as the ways in which teacher educators collaborate with their colleagues to prepare pre-service teachers to meet expectations. This paper presents preliminary research findings from interviews of six English language teacher educators at a university in Finland. Preliminary findings reveal international, cultural, institutional and interpersonal levels of teacher educators' discourse regarding the pathways for developing pre-service teacher education.

Globalization has intensified the need for communication between speakers of different languages throughout the world. A greater emphasis is being placed on foreign language teaching worldwide, particularly English language teaching, at the primary and secondary school levels. However foreign language teacher training institutions in most countries struggle to prepare teachers to meet growing demands. Despite efforts and progress toward improving language teaching and language teacher training, globalization and multi-cultural interactions place additional demands on teachers to rapidly prepare students for an increasingly challenging future. Teachers' capacity for professional growth, development and collegial collaboration will be vital to success in navigating the changing waters of future educational demands. The global movement toward educational accountability and standards based testing has drawn international attention to nations such as Finland, with increasing research about the educational systems that have provided such consistently positive results. Research presented here is part of a larger comparative study of English language teacher education in Finland and Japan. The current paper presents preliminary results concerning the professional collaboration in pre-service teacher preparation of English language teacher educators in Finland.

Finnish students' consistently top performance on the international PISA exam (OCED, 2001, 2004, 2007, 2010) has thrust Finland into the international educational spotlight. In Finland, the high quality of teacher education has been cited as a major reason for Finland's educational success (Simola, 2005; Niemi & Jakku-Sihvonen, 2006; Sahlberg, 2010; Darling-Hammond, 2010). Finnish teacher education is recognized for its research-based approach to teacher training (Westbury et al, 2005, Jyrhämä et al, 2008) and for the comprehensive selection process by which highly qualified candidates are recruited for teacher training (McKinsey, 2007). Foreign language pedagogy in Finland in particular has drawn international interest for its focus on communicative language teaching (CLT) and intercultural communicative competence (ICC). According to a recent report by Education First (2011) surveying English proficiency in 44 countries, Finland ranked fifth, following Norway, the Netherlands, Denmark and Sweden.

While Finland is enjoying international praise and curiosity, internal research dialogue within Finland remains aware of the areas in which teacher education may still be improved. Critical literature from within Finland paints a dynamic picture of striving for continual and incremental improvement, dealing with issues of curriculum development (Hokka et al, 2010), the impact of teacher training, and teacher trainees' experience (Jyrhämä et al, 2008; Eteläpelto and Lahti, 2008), and the increasing emphasis on testing and accountability (Sahlberg, 2010). However, there remains a gap in the research about teacher educators, particularly relating to their collaboration, professional identity and views of pre-service teacher education. In keeping with this desire to consider the ways teacher education can be improved, and considering the collaborative orientation that has been suggested (Feldman & Weiss, 2010), this research looks at the obstacles and supports for collaboration among English language teacher educators.

Teacher Education in Finland

Teacher educators are those university lectures or professors who teach courses preparing university students to become teachers. In order to teach any subject at a university in Finland, it is necessary to complete pedagogical training. In particular,

teacher educators should have a background in school teaching, as well as an advanced degree in their area of expertise. Teacher training for future English teachers is offered at eight universities in Finland. Entrance into teacher-training programs is highly selective: about ten percent of applicants will be accepted to class teacher programs (primary school level) and about sixteen percent of applicants will be accepted to subject teacher programs (secondary level) (McKinsey, 2007). For those university students who wish to become English subject teachers at the secondary school level, they must complete a Master's degree in English as well as additional pedagogical training.

Collaboration

Collaborative teacher education has been suggested as a means for increasing teacher competency and maximizing both practical and theoretical pedagogical knowledge (Feldman & Weiss, 2010). This study considers collaboration in the same way as Freeman (1993), holding that collaboration is a working relationship involving two or more people who work together to produce something that cannot be created through individual effort. Collaboration denotes both a context of collegiality as well as a sustained and long-term relationship between collaborators.

Discourse

The preliminary findings in this paper are described in terms of Foucauldian discourse theory. Hall (1992) explains Foucault's discourse as "a group of statements which provide a language for talking about – a way of representing the knowledge about – a particular topic at a particular historical moment... Discourse is about the production of knowledge through language" (as cited in Hall, 2001, p.72). Understanding the discourses that emerge in this research in the Foucauldian sense is consistent with the socio-constructivist theory of the nature of learning and meaning making as a socially constructed phenomenon. Collaboration is understood within this same paradigm. This research is not primarily concerned with dissecting issues of power or analyzing the particular words or grammatical turns of phrase participants use to describe their views and experiences. Rather, this analysis is thematic in nature, understanding that participants as a group make sense of and construct their realities in relation to a common social discourse. This process is iterative and engaged in by the individual within various groups at various times. In this paper, four levels of discourse are identified that frame the contexts in which English teacher educators describe their experiences developing their research and teaching. The levels of discourse identified serve as a framework for considering the thematic content.

Methods

This paper presents preliminary findings from larger data set that is part of a doctoral dissertation on teacher educator collaboration in Finland and Japan.

Data Collection

For this paper, data is used from interviews with six English language teacher educators at one university in Finland. Interviewees had been teaching at the university between 2 and 25+ years. Interviewees were both male and female and ranged in age from 30-55+.

Interviewees were invited to participate based on the courses they were currently listed as teaching in the online course database, or courses that they had taught within

the past five years. An initial group of four teachers was solicited, and from these solicitations other potential participants were recommended to the researcher. Participants were involved in the pre-service training of either primary or secondary school teachers with a specialization in English.

Interviews were conducted from Fall 2011 through Spring 2012. The interviews were conducted individually and in person. Interviews were semi-formal and based around the themes of academic work, collaboration and the challenges facing new teachers. Sub-themes included obstacles and supports for developing research and teaching. Each participant was interviewed once and interviews lasted between an hour and a half and three hours. Variation in the length of the interviews is attributed to participant's time schedules.

Data Analysis

Spoken interviews were digitally recorded and transcribed for analysis by the researcher. The interviews were then combined into a single text, and analyzed as a composite whole. Interview data was conceptualized as the talk emerging from a group that comprises a specific demographic (English language teacher educators) at one university. In this way, the analysis does not look at the individual experiences of each participant, but the dominant themes that emerge from the group as a whole. Qualitative content analysis was used to identify common themes emerging from the interviews. A summative content analysis approach was used (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005) in which word repetition was calculated to identify the recurring themes. The repeated words were then considered contextually to examine the ways in which the participants described the identified themes.

Findings

Four levels of discourse emerged as the English language teacher educators described their collaborative work: *international*, *national*, *institutional* and *interpersonal*. Participants framed the obstacles and supports for collaboration in research and teaching as occurring on each of these levels. This preliminary analysis explores each of the four levels of discourse through which teacher educators describe their experiences of preparing pre-service teachers. This paper does not discuss in detail all of the thematic content at each level, but provides illustrations of the dominant themes within each level of discourse.

International

The international levels of discourse centered on connections created through international teaching exchanges and by participation in international conferences. The connections formed between the teacher educators at this level are primarily facilitated through participation in the European academic community in the form of Erasmus exchanges and international academic conferences in Europe or North America. The participants framed support for collaboration at the international level in primarily terms of *opportunity*. Exchanges were seen as supporting of the development of teaching practice. Collaboration in research was supported by participation in international conferences.

“...[The exchange] was actually quite nice because I still keep in touch with some of the teachers there and actually one of them visited our summer school,

[...] it was this big international conference, so we also got visits from [abroad].”

At the international level, collaboration was characterized as *loose* and occurring primarily between individuals.

“We’ve got international cooperation with different European partners. So we’ve got – it’s actually part of a bigger European network [...] But that’s then more, sort of loose, it’s more like exchanging information and meeting every now and again.”

Long-term collaboration resulting from participation in formal exchanges or conferences was described as the result of individual initiative. International collaboration was seen as *potential yet to be realized*.

“[...] Essentially, I mean hard core collaboration, there isn’t so much to talk about [...] Maybe [in the science faculties] there is more international collaboration or collaboration between domestic and international colleagues but certainly in the faculty of education, there is a lot of potential yet to be realized.”

National

The national level of discourse was marked by a focus on the nature of the Finnish Educational system, rather than on collaborative experiences. Both English education and teacher education in Finland were seen as positive and moving in positive directions. When using this national discourse relating to the educational context, the teacher educators referenced both national and international research, as well as their personal experience. This personal experience was given as an example, relating to the quality of English education in Finland:

“We had a plumber come to our house, and he spoke really good English! I guess English teachers are doing their job quite well. So I think it might not be wise to change the way things are working too much.”

The national discourse on education was self-contained, and the participants did not use comparative frameworks to describe or validate their positive evaluation of Finnish education in relation to teacher education or English teaching elsewhere in the world.

“I think there is a lot of good in Finnish education system. And a lot of good in the educational culture - in many different levels of it. From the organization, the flexibility of it.”

When discussing the challenges facing new teachers, *social change* was a dominant theme, relating to the societal change in Finland.

“[In the past] I don’t think there has really been and need for [discussing culture] because this has been quite a closed society until recently. [...] I think that also through globalization we’ve got immigrants from so many different countries that it’s so much more versatile [...] So I don’t think that our school system and our society is actually very well prepared for this, and I don’t think we have thought of it, or what should be done about it [...] And so, I really don’t know what is going on in our society at the moment, but there seems to be some sort of turmoil and transition going on, and I’m not sure how we

should be preparing our students, but at least they ought to be aware of this kind of reality and the issues they might have to be dealing with.”

The primary theme relating to social change was preparing teachers for the multicultural classroom. Change in Finland was described as the movement from a *closed society* to a multicultural society through globalization and immigration.

Institutional

The institutional discourses reflect issues that are particular to the university where the interviews were conducted. Most of the barriers or obstacles described by the participants fall within the institutional level of discourse. Barriers to collaboration were described in terms of space and location. The possibility for informal support was described in terms of difficulties finding places to meet with other colleagues because of infrastructural barriers. At the institutional level, resources for *formal* and *informal* meetings with colleagues, such as shared space and time in scheduling, as well as structured meetings were key elements that determined the extent of participants collaboration in research and teaching. This participant describes the barriers to collaboration:

“[...] The difficulty really, the biggest obstacle for collaboration is the different locations where people work. You know, we’re so spread apart. It’s just really, really difficult. And everybody’s got busy schedules, and we’re sitting far away from each other [...] We don’t meet informally and I really miss that. And that’s a shame. It’s really a shame that you always have to arrange to meet.”

Support was discussed in terms of *freedom* granted by the institution.

“I would see the support more in freedom to develop and explore the avenues that are of interest to me, rather than having any prescribed path to follow. And I think I have benefited a lot from having the freedom to address the questions that are of interest to me.”

Institutional leadership also emerged as an important theme in the support of collaboration. The importance of the attitudes of those in leadership positions, particularly the creation of a collegial atmosphere. The theme of leadership overlapped between the interpersonal and intuitional level.

“Well, the financial support is not as significant as the social support. Social support is more important. I mean in particular you have to have, the director of the department has to be the kind of person who is open to, well I wouldn’t call it experimentation, but let’s say the kind of person who is willing to encourage and support all kinds of new things and also have a sort of collegial atmosphere and setting up committees that are open for everybody that they can work together.”

Responsibility for providing supportive leadership was described both on the level of the university’s role in determining who should be in leadership, as well as a function of the personality, gender and generation of the person in the leadership role. This later theme overlaps with the *interpersonal* discourse.

Interpersonal

When describing the resources and supports for teaching, research and collaboration in pre-service teacher preparation, the strongest support was described as collegial support. Collegial support was described in terms of mentoring, leadership and

friendship. Interpersonal collaborations were often described in terms of informal relationships or overlapping personal and professional interests.

“I’ve started meeting with [a colleague] on a relatively regular basis just to talk about ideas together. That is a really novel, new experience. It’s not formal, it’s not official, it’s not documented anywhere, but it’s really very pleasant and I know that she is extremely busy and so I find the fact that she is prepared to find this time to meet with me, I see that as a great validation.”

Finding receptive colleagues, in terms of attitude or research interest was described as a support for collaborative work.

“I think the old phrase was being on the same wavelength. Which means that, you know there is a resonance of your ideas. [...] I think it, there’s also a sense that there is a moment, a unique moment that is offered to you and you, you seize it. You see the opportunity and if somebody else happens to see that same opportunity then you have collaboration, you know a common goal, that, as you say catalyzes.”

At the interpersonal level, participants primarily discussed their collaboration in research and teaching in terms of support, rather than obstacles. Support from individual colleagues was described as a primary resource for developing one’s research and teaching.

“People are very enthusiastic. So it’s very easy, when you’ve got a new idea and you start taking and testing it out, whether or not it would be feasible and whether or not it would be reasonable nobody ever says, “Well what are you thinking, idiot?” Because in some departments I know that that happens. But here it’s very like, okay yeah, that’s a good idea! And then we start developing together. So I think that’s probably the best part, because I think the atmosphere in this department is very encouraging, research wise and also otherwise. I mean it doesn’t matter what kind, it might be also ideas for a new course for teaching and it’s always this, okay that’s a good idea! So all ideas are considered. They may not necessarily be realized, but they are always considered and taken seriously.”

Discussion

The purpose of this paper has been to present a framework for interpreting English language teacher educators’ collaborative experiences in pre-service English language teacher preparation at one university in Finland. These findings represent a preliminary overview of a partial data set from a larger study. The preliminary findings relating to multiple discourse themes on collaboration indicate directions for further analysis. The English language teacher educators interviewed for this study engaged in all of these levels of discourse simultaneously. That is to say, teacher educators utilize discourses at all of these levels, and are operating in all of these arenas simultaneously to understand and develop their research and teaching. In terms of collaboration, the strongest levels are the most local, that is, institutional and interpersonal. This finding may suggest that while teacher educators use international and national discourses to understand how their teaching could develop and the meaning of their participation in collaboration within the wider society, the majority of support for and obstacles to collaboration and professional development occur at the local level. Infrastructural change to support collaboration and facilitating

informal collaboration between colleagues is potentially more feasible and more productive at these levels.

Limitations

The data used for this paper was taken from a limited sample size (six participants) at one university in Finland. Thus, the findings cannot be generalized to all of Finland, or other contexts within Finland. The participants were also all English teacher educators, so the findings do not represent the experiences of other subject teacher educators at the university where the interviews were conducted.

The data set included in this analysis does not include follow-up interviews with the participants, which are included in the larger dissertation data. The language of the interviews was English, which is the mother tongue of the researcher, but not the mother tongue of all of the participants. Although all of the participants were native-level fluent in English, there may be limitations to the speed at which or the depth to which participants were able to express their ideas, and also the potential for issues of miscommunication or interpretation of nuance in the interview transcripts by the researcher.

Future Directions

Further analysis of this data, in combination with the follow-up interview data, and interviews at other universities in Finland will enrich the interpretation of these preliminary results. The second part of this research considers English language teacher educators' collaboration in Japan. In the light of these preliminary findings from Finland, future research should consider the discourses teacher educators in Japan use when describing their research, teaching and the development of English teacher education. In the Finnish context, barriers and supports to collaboration are discussed primarily at the institutional and interpersonal levels with colleagues at the same university. Challenges for developing teacher education, however, are conceptualized as issues originating at the national level within contexts of national transition and social change. Future research should include a wider sample of English teacher educators in Finland. Additionally, comparative research should consider the similarities and differences in the discourses surrounding English education in Finland and Japan.

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English as a Commodity: The Construction of Hybrid Identities of ESL Teachers in the Philippines

Rapunzel Tomacder

0295

University of the Philippines Diliman, the Philippines

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Abstract:

In the past decade, the teaching of English as a second language (TESL) has increasingly become a world-wide enterprise. This comes as a result of globalization, in which English has become the primary language of business, economy, culture, and education. The world has increasingly perceived English as a huge factor for success; the knowledge of which has become a measure of one's ability to interact with and become part of the global village. English, then, has turned into a valuable commodity, and as such, the schools that "sell" this valuable commodity have felt the need to utilize business strategies to increase the number of enrollees. One of these business strategies is the top-down styling of teachers' professional identities, the purpose of which is to meet the standards of the school/company and the demands of their students/clients. This styling is part of a larger structure of identity construction of 'service workers' in the globalized world. This phenomenon is explored here through an analysis of job advertisements for ESL teachers in the Philippines. The study aims to show how ESL teachers in the Philippines are instructed to take on a hybridized identity: that of an academic and a company employee. Data is lifted from job ads because these reflect company expectations and standards. Regularities and patterns of advertising are tabulated and interpreted using the following frameworks: Critical Discourse Analysis (Fairclough), Re-contextualization (Caldas-Coulthard), and Identity Construction (Piller).

I. Introduction

This paper aims to explore how hybrid identities are constructed for ESL teachers by ESL schools/companies in the Philippines. This study draws on what Fairclough terms the ‘marketization’ of public discourse, particularly the discourse of education, and on the larger framework of ‘recontextualization,’ in which the practices in the classroom are recontextualized in order to accommodate the demands of the corporate world. This study also draws on Piller’s notions of ‘identity construction’ in contemporary society and the crucial role of media in the construction of these hybrid and complex identities. An analysis of several job advertisements for English as a Second Language (ESL) teachers (or more commonly, ‘English teachers’) in the Philippines is made in order to show how the concepts of marketization, recontextualization and identity construction are realized.

In particular, this study aims to answer the following questions:

1. How do ESL schools in the Philippines construct teachers’ hybrid identities, especially as manifested in particular job advertisements?
2. What factors account for the hybridization of ESL teachers’ identities?

This study is bound by the following limitations: First, this study does not claim to speak for all the ESL schools in the Philippines. Second, the analysis in this paper is treated as a case study. This means that only job ads that appear in a particular online location and at a particular time are analyzed. What this implies is that this paper does not make any generalized claims about ESL teachers’ identities and their construction. And third, this study does not take into account the effects of hybrid identities in ESL teaching. A study that looks into the effects of identity in teaching would have to include an analysis of ESL teachers’ ‘re-construction’ of their own identities.

II. Teacher Identity in Bilingual and Second Language Education

Research on Teaching English as a Second Language (TESOL) has largely veered towards the student. Language teacher education has largely been focused on second language acquisition theories, realized in particular methodologies that ‘work best’ for the student.

It was only recently that studies that focus on the ‘teacher,’ particularly the teacher’s identity, have been conducted. There are two main areas of study that have been conducted on this topic: the identity of the Non-Native Speaker (NNS) teachers who have been marginalized in the face of a ‘native teacher fallacy’ (Phillipson, cited in Morgan 2004, p1) and the teacher’s identity, itself,

“not as a set of fixed and coherent set of traits, but as something complex, often contradictory, and subject to change across time and place” (Morgan 2004, p1).

Issues on the ‘Otherness’ of the Non-Native Speaker ESL Teacher: Wlazlinski, Von Hoene and Van Deusen-Scholl, and Hahn

On the first area of study, research has been conducted on the ‘otherness’ of the ESL educator of color in a community of white/Caucasian teachers and learners, the dichotomy between the instructor (the academic and the professional) and the lecturer (the language teacher and the semi-professional), and the foreignness of foreign language instruction.

Wlazlinski, for one, reflects on her experiences as an NNS ESL educator of color in Georgia. She notes that the “[g]rowth in the number of non-native speakers (NNSs) graduating from TESOL programs in the U.S. invariably results in the increasing presence of NNS English language educators in professional circles. In this situation, it is essential for TESOL education programs to address the needs of the NNS teacher-trainees” (Wlazlinski 2001, p242). To address the discrimination that she has earlier encountered, as evidenced by negative feedback from her students based on her race, she recommends that “[t]eacher education programs must prepare NNS teacher-trainees to address possible undue discrimination and prejudice because of their nonnative status” (Wlazlinski 2001, p254).

Von Hoene and Van Deusen-Scholl approach the problem of ‘otherness’ by drawing on postcolonial and feminist theories. In their study of language teaching professionals in postsecondary institutions, they liken the dichotomy of the instructor (the academic/professional) and the lecturer (the language teacher/semi-professional) to the relationship between the colonizer and the colonized. The lecturer is perceived as the uncivilized, child-like homogenous ‘other’ who is forever grateful to be educated or civilized, or in this case ‘professionalized’ (Von Hoene & Van Deusen-Scholl 2001, p230-232). To counter this view, Van Hoene and Van Deusen-Scholl create a framework which encourages dialogue in training and differentiation in the perception of lecturers. This framework is realized in the Berkeley Language Center (BLC).

Hahn summarizes the issues of ‘otherness’ based on the dichotomy of native/foreign by highlighting what it is about foreign language teaching that is, in fact, ‘foreign.’ For her, the idea of foreignness should produce in the learner and the teacher an attitude of ‘expansion’ and ‘inclusivity,’ instead of otherness. She states:

As the experience of being foreign in one’s native land continues from generation to generation and one feels forced to choose between two identities, both of which define oneself, is it not clear that one must move beyond the native-foreign dichotomy? That it

is not about choice, but rather expansion. Or perhaps even more to the point, it is about inclusivity. It is about including more of the world within ourselves without giving up who we are. This is what foreign language education should be. This is what we should be. We should be a more inclusive “we” (Hahn 2001, p265).

*Issues on the Complex, Contradictory and Changing Nature of the ESL Teacher’s Identity:
Brown, Morgan, Edstam, Vhargese, and Cross*

In contrast to the first area of study, the issues on teacher identity, itself, are mostly devoid of questions of race. Rather, the discussions on this area of study veer toward notions of the ‘self-defining other’ as found in the dynamics of classroom interaction, teaching and learning as sites of identity negotiation, embedded in a wider structure of power relations, and conceptualizations of professionalism and ‘professionalization.’

In her study of teachers’ construction of their students’ identities, Brown first underscores the presence of power in all instances of identity construction. She says:

The role played by, or assigned to, the other is fundamental to understandings of identity, both group and self. Power is present in all representations of self and other, as it is always present in conditions of unequal relations, relations such as those which exist between teacher and student, teacher and administrator (Brown 2003)

But, although power relations are ever-present in student-teacher interactions, she notes that the teacher’s construction of his or her students’ identities, in turn, constructs his or her identity. Thus, instead of seeing power as monolithic and belonging to only one particular set of individuals (in this case, the teachers and administrators), power is seen as fluid, dynamic and shared and/or passed around in the classroom setting. The ‘self-defining other’ is evidence of this fluidity. As much as teachers have the power to construct the identity of their students, their very construction of their students’ identity also constructs who they are as teachers.

Morgan’s study of identity negotiations between a white male ESL teacher (himself) and (his) Chinese students of English somewhat take off from the concept of the ‘self-defining other.’ He does this by highlighting the very notions of power in the broader context of teacher-student relations within the society, not just within the classroom. Drawing on Cummins’s framework of negotiating identities within language and pedagogy, Morgan believes that “[t]eaching, learning, and identity negotiation are thus ultimately caught up with power relations” (Morgan 2004, p175).

By studying how his students reacted to his relationship with his wife—his wife being the

manager of their finances and him being the one who cooks and cleans the house—he believes that he has experienced firsthand how students provide the avenue for the construction of his own identity. Morgan, thus, concludes, “[C]lassroom interactions and interpersonal relations do articulate with students’ memories, beliefs, and perceptions of the dominant society. Together, these aligning factors potentially bring about gradual and cumulative shifts in the identity options students imagine for themselves and their communities” (Morgan 2004, p183).

Identity as a process of negotiation is further seen in Varghese’s study of bilingual teachers in teacher training programs. She shows that “instructors, administrators and teachers expressed, contested and negotiated the specific knowledge base of bilingual teaching (what bilingual teachers should know) and the professional identities of bilingual teachers (what bilingual teachers should be) during a professional development series” (Varghese 2001, p193). She also shows “that there is not an abstract and uniform knowledge base and notion of professional identity for bilingual teachers. In fact, local and dominant discourses, as well as the process of delivery between teachers and instructors during the [Professional Development Institute], reflects and partially contributed to a non-uniform and contradictory notion of bilingual teacher identities” (Varghese 2001, p193). In the study, she recommends that, in the conceptualization of programs for the construction of ESL teachers’ knowledge base, administrators must become aware that they are involved in a wider process of professional identity construction for the teachers. She also recommends an unpacking of previous assumptions of professionalism as language teachers comprise a very diverse community belonging to very different contexts. Thus, a homogenous body of knowledge of what needs to be taught to students, a single knowledge base, is never sufficient (Varghese 2001, p209).

Edstam further studies notions of professionalism in her study of ESL teachers in a public elementary school setting. Advocating notions similar to Varghese’s, she believes that the perception of ESL teachers as professionals in their field empowers them. “It stands to reason, then, that the more empowered elementary ESL teachers become to carry out their jobs professionally and to be seen as professionals, the more empowered these English language learners become to learn to their fullest potential” (Edstam 2001, p225).

Cross further expands Varghese’s study by first widening the framework from ‘identity-in-discourse’ and ‘identity-in-practice’ to ‘identity-in-activity.’ Drawing on Vygotskian sociocultural theory and activity theory, he advocates “moving away from a ‘world of objects’, to a world of social relations which constitute a context for the use of those objects” (Cross 2006, p2). Cross then questions Varghese’s notion of multiple contexts to which language teachers belong. He notes that “even the ‘same’ contexts are subject to continual change and transformation over time” (Cross 2006, p7). He thus recommends moving away from questions of “what to teach” (including questions of context-appropriate content and ‘good’

teaching practices) and instead moving toward questions of “who language teachers are” and “what language teaching is” (Cross 2006, p7).

Questions of ESL and/or language teacher identities have sprouted from these two branches of study: issues of ‘otherness’ and issues of ‘identity’ as a complex and ever-changing process of negotiation. Drawing on concepts from these two branches, I wish to contribute to the study a perspective of ESL teacher identity as a product of constructive and reproductive power structures. Using Fairclough’s framework of ‘marketization’ of public discourse, particularly of education, Caldas-Coulthard’s framework of ‘recontextualization’ and Piller’s framework of ‘identity construction,’ I will make a multimodal analysis of several job advertisements for ESL teachers in the Philippines. I work around the following thesis: In the Philippine context, hybrid identities are constructed by ESL schools/companies for ESL teachers¹ mainly through perceiving the teacher as both an academic and a paid company employee. I shall argue that the hybridization of the Filipino English teacher’s identity is largely the result of the commodification of English as the language of the international community and the language of “success.” I shall also argue that this hybridization is part of a larger phenomenon of colonization of the discourse of education by the discourse of business.

Before I proceed to my analysis, a review of the frameworks I used is in order.

III. English, ESL and Power

In the past decade, the teaching of English as a second language (TESL) has increasingly become a world-wide enterprise. This comes as a result of globalization; English has become the primary language of business, economy, culture, education, and many other fields. The world has increasingly perceived English as a huge factor for success; the knowledge of which has become a measure of one’s ability to interact with and become part of the global village. English, then, has turned into a valuable commodity, and as such, the schools that “sell” this valuable commodity have felt the need to utilize business strategies to increase the number of their enrollees. One of these business strategies is the top-down construction of teachers’ professional identities, the purpose of which, according to some ESL schools, is “to meet the standards of the school/company” and “to cater to the needs of their students/clients.” This top-down construction is part of a larger structure of identity construction of ‘service workers’ in the globalized world. This particular perspective comes from a notion of ESL teacher identity as a product of constructive and reproductive power structures, and these power structures make use of language.

According to Fairclough, language (discourse) should never be viewed apart from the society. It is “socially shaped” and “socially shaping” at the same time (Fairclough 1993, p134). The

¹ ‘ESL teacher’ and ‘English teacher’ are used interchangeably in this paper, as these two terms are also used interchangeably in the data.

constitutive and transformative quality of language, however, is largely dependent on power relations surrounding the particular language use. “Language use is [...] constitutive in both conventional, socially reproductive ways, and creative, socially transformative ways, with the emphasis upon the one or the other in particular cases depending upon their social circumstances (e.g. whether they are generated within, broadly, stable and rigid, or flexible and open, power relations)” (Fairclough 1993, p134). Some discourses are reproduced and foregrounded because powerful structures make them so. Furthermore, these discourses are presented as the norm, the status quo, thereby screening the power structure behind the supposed foregrounding of the discourse. This is the very work of ideology, making opaque the power structures behind the normalcy of the status quo.

In Late Modernity, the discourse of education has largely come to be dominated by the discourse of advertising in subtle, almost innocuous, means. Knowledge has become a commodity; therefore, providers of knowledge have turned to corporate practices in managing the flow of knowledge. This phenomenon can be explained by the concept of ‘recontextualization.’ According to Caldas-Coulthard, “[t]exts and images are representations of given practices, not the practices themselves. As soon as one writes or speaks about any social practice, one is already recontextualising. The moment we recontextualise, we are transforming and creating other practices” (Caldas-Coulthard 2007, p281). In the university setting, “there is a pressure on academics to communicate values, to advertise and ‘sell’ themselves. They have to recontextualise their self-identities in order to do this” (Caldas-Coulthard 2007, p281).

And this is where hybrid identities stem from. An academic who constructs himself or herself as a member of the modern, globalized and corporate world is in the midst of the two often conflicting discourses of education and business. The academic is no longer just an academic but a pseudo-salesperson of knowledge. In her study of bilingual advertisements in Germany, Piller notes that “[c]ontemporary cultural identities are hybrid, complex, and often contradictory, and the media play a crucial role in their reconfiguration” (Piller 2001, p155). She further underscores the disintegration of the political identity that is “based on citizenship in a national community” (Piller 2001, p155) and the rise of the economic identity that is “based on participation in a global consumer market” (Piller 2001, p155). This hybridization of identity is also evident in the way ESL schools in the Philippines construct their identity as companies. This identity construction trickles down to the ‘human capital,’ that is, the ESL teachers.

IV. Data and Methodology

The data is lifted from a collection of job advertisements for ESL teachers in an online job search website, namely Jobstreet.com, one of the most popular sites for job search in the Philippines. The collection consists of 15 ads, gathered in three weeks. Three weeks is deemed enough for

data gathering because ESL schools/companies tend to re-upload their advertisements once a month. They upload the same advertisements, so in the span of six months, for example, the same ad tends to appear six times.

After the selection of job ads, regularities and patterns of advertising are observed and tabulated. In particular, the school/company profiles and the requirements and qualifications for the prospective teacher are gathered. The results are then analyzed and interpreted using the frameworks of CDA, recontextualization, and identity construction.

School/Company Profiles

Of the 15 ads, only 2 provided specific information on the type of classes, the number of students per class, and the schedule of classes (*JumpHigh Academy Inc.* and *3D Avatar School*). The rest are partly-informative/partly-promotional profiles containing the following trends:

- corporate but service-oriented
- international and local (in the cosmopolitan sense)
- successful and/but fast-growing
- unique and personalized (in their curriculum and teaching methods)

Corporate but Service-Oriented

12 out of 15 company names bore the tag “Inc.” or “Corp.” Strangely, the company association is made complex by the conceptualization of each “company” as, at the same time, a “school.” Examples that show these are:

- one of the fastest growing *schools* (Unhoop Philippines Inc.)
- educational institution* (Tongkeun Call Service Corp.)
- best *learning institution* (Talking Smart Edu Inc.)
- English institute* (Easy Language and Mission Academy Inc.)
- English language school* (JumpHigh Academy Inc.)
- education center* (International Review and Integrated Studies, Inc.)

Perhaps this hybrid identity of school/company is best shown in the description “online teaching company” (Eduplaza and Spicus Global Inc.) and in the conceptualization of the student as “clients” (Tongkeun Call Service Corp.) and in a more sophisticated sense, “clientèle” (LGS Staff Management Services, Inc.). This is further compounded by adding the component of service, seen best in the use of the word “cater” in several instances:

cater to the needs (Elitopia Academy)
catering to Korean-based students (Keymedia Online Inc.)
cater to students with different needs (Unhoop Philippines Inc.)
caters [sic] foreign students (Talking Smart Edu Inc.)

International and Local (Cosmopolitan)

All the companies openly purport to be international by citing that their clients/students come from different parts of Asia, particularly from Korea, Japan and China. The sense of being international is equated to being successful. This international component is mixed with the local, the Philippines, as the setting of English education. However, this local setting is constructed to be cosmopolitan. This is shown in descriptions like “at the heart of Ortigas Center” (JumpHigh Academy Inc.) and “in the heart of the Philippines” (Unhoop Philippines Inc.).

Successful and/but Fast-growing

All the companies attempt to establish their success factor at the beginning of their profiles. The position of this success component at the beginning of the profile is evidence of the promotional nature of these profiles because emphasis is given more to the success factor. This success is seen in varying degrees; either they are “the best” or “one of the best.” This factor is also related to the “growth” of the company. Below are some examples:

best learning institution (Talking Smart Edu Inc.)
best resources and courses (International Review and Integrated Studies, Inc.)
best-selling English textbooks (Keymedia Online Inc.)
growing company [...] continue to *grow* (Story Share, Inc.)
one of the fastest growing English schools (Unhoop Philippines, Inc.)

Unique and Personalized (Curriculum and Teaching Methods)

All of the companies want to differentiate themselves from the others by noting that their curriculum and/or methods are one-of-a-kind and personalized. With the exception of one company, they fail to detail what this unique approach is and instead use terms such as:

unique forum for communication (Tongkeun Call Service Corp.)
a comprehensive and collaborative program (Cyber English Class Tutorial Services)
unique method (Story Share, Inc.)
high quality English lessons that cater to students with *different needs* (Unhoop

Philippines Inc.)
holistic learning experience (Keymedia Online Inc.)
different grading systems and evaluations (Easy Language and Missions Academy Inc.)
wider range of materials [...] selected to suit their levels and learning preferences
(Elitopia Academy)
suits busy lifestyles (Eduplaza and Spicus Global Inc.)
English tutorial [...] for *every level* (Talking Smart Edu Inc.)

Teacher/Company Employee Profiles

The teacher/company employee profile comes as an immediate result of the company/school profile. This is perhaps best seen in the inclusion of the teacher/company employee profile in the school/company profile, itself. An example of this is seen in the following excerpt from a school/company profile:

This is the reason we hired first-rate, vibrant, beautiful and admirable young professionals (20-25 year old, Bachelor's Degree) who share our vision, which is to create a nationally known company that is highly regarded for Filipina teachers who cater speakers of other language to be globally competitive. (Cyber English Class Tutorial Services, Inc., font, italics and emphases originally in the text)

The descriptions above perhaps sum up all the trends for the ESL teacher/company employee:

- young and dynamic
- professional/cooperative
- adaptable/versatile/willing (to work in a particular place and time, in particular conditions)
- educated (teaching certifications, degree, computer skills, teaching experience)
- with an American or neutral accent
- female

Young and Dynamic

There is a considerable number of ads that specify the age range of the teacher/company employee that the school/company needs. This range is from the early 20's to the early 30's. The assumption is that the younger the individual, the more dynamic, vibrant and energetic he or she is, making him or her more efficient as an employee for the company. At the same time, this age range safely assumes that these are fresh graduates/entry-level applicants or applicants with 1-4 years of experience, thereby making them more compliant to company policies and

needier of a job.

Professional/Cooperative

Emphasis is also given to the “professional” characteristic of applicants. This professionalism easily translates to appearance, education, and most frequently, cooperation with company policies. Here are some examples:

Be in appropriate *professional* appearance. Put on light make up. (Cyber English Class Tutorial Services)

[The company] provides a fun, comfortable and *professional* environment (Tongkeun Call Service Corp.)

[Candidate must possess] a *professional* license (Story Share Inc.)

Adaptable/Versatile/Willing

This versatility encompasses a lot of things: workplace, race and age of students, working hours, working conditions, and other company restrictions. This versatility is easily equated to a willingness to work in various conditions. Here is an example:

Must be willing to teach Korean Elementary School Students.

Must be willing to work in Eastwood City, Libis, Pasig.

Must be hardworking, diligent, patient and enjoy teaching kids.

Must be willing to start immediately. (Eastwood Pre-edu Corp.)

Educated

The degrees that are considered are not necessarily English or Education, but advantage is given to people with TESOL or CELTA certifications, professional licenses, and/or teaching experience. The positions are open, in fact, to many other courses, as illustrated by the following example:

SPECIAL ANNOUNCEMENT:

We are now accepting OJTs for BS Tourism students (Tongkeun Call Service Corp.)

One school/company even downplays the academic component by claiming that their company “gathers the best and most talented English *speakers* from Manila and trains them to be the most *inspiring and efficient* teachers” (Unhoop Philippines Inc., italics mine).

With an American Accent

As if openly prescribing to the ‘native speaker fallacy,’ advantage is given to applicants with an American (or neutral) accent. American and neutral are easily interchangeably used. The assumption is that those who have these kinds of accents are more fluent and more eloquent speakers of English. Some schools/companies even directly look for Americans to become teachers/company employees. Here are some examples:

Fluent speaker with *Neutral or American Accent* (International Review and Integrated Studies Inc.)

With *American or neutralized accent* (Elitopia Academy)

[Must be willing to undergo trainings such as] *American Accent* Trainings (Easy Language and Mission Academy Inc.)

Have a good command of the English language with *neutral or American accent* (Cyber English Class Tutorial Services)

Female

A large number of the ads conceive of the teacher as a young beautiful exotic female. The example at the beginning of this segment shows this through the use of the word “Filipina.” This can also be seen in the use of the personal pronoun “she,” as in the following excerpt:

Qualified applicants will be tasked to handle English Proficiency courses for International Qualifications as well as prepare modules. *She* must be able to evaluate and monitor competency level of each student. (International Review and Integrated Studies Inc., italics mine)

V. Conclusion

ESL teaching in the Philippines is highly conceived of as a business as evidenced by the number of schools that construct themselves as companies or corporations. These hybrid schools/companies use discursive practices found in the corporate setting, mainly advertising through school/company profiles, thereby recontextualizing education to fit the ever-growing market of ESL learners. This market is the source of the hybridization of the ESL school/company. English has now become a commodity, without which one cannot survive or even fit into the international community. Furthermore, in the globalized world, one is thought unable to succeed without knowledge of English. The hybridization of the ESL school/company trickles down to the ESL teacher whose identity is also hybridized and recontextualized to include qualities and characteristics suitable for the corporate world. The teacher/company

employee is conceived of as a young (fun and charming), versatile (willing), educated (in any field) female with an American (or neutral) accent, the very image of a cosmopolitan woman who is successful in the modern globalized world.

This study of the hybrid identities constructed for the ESL teacher/company employee is admittedly one-sided in the sense that the construction of identity comes only from the perspective of the ESL school/company. This study, however, opens up a new research area in which the ESL teachers/company employees' reactions to these identity constructions could be analyzed. Following studies on 'identity negotiation' made by Varghese (2001), Morgan (2004) and Cross (2006), how then do ESL teachers/company employees in the Philippines negotiate (if they do) their identities, knowing full well what their ESL school administrators/managers expect of them? Considering the fact that the setting of ESL education, the Philippines, is a Third World country, this future study could also be seen through perspectives of 'otherness' in postcolonial/feminist discourses.

I would like to end this paper by proposing that the hybrid identity constructions mentioned here are possible sites of resistance or, in a broader sense, re-negotiation, if and only if ESL teachers/company employees are made aware of these hybrid constructions. These resistances and re-negotiations could bring about a further re-definition of boundaries between discourses, in which the discourse of education once again can claim, itself, more as a discourse of knowledge, than as a discourse of business. This bottom-to-top change can also claim for the ESL teacher the professional status and academic growth that have been constantly denied him or her, primarily because of the business connotations associated with the teaching of ESL.

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Age Matters: Motivated Language Learning and the Over Fifty

Ryan Smithers

0305

Osaka Institute of Technology, Japan

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Abstract:

In current L2 motivation research, Dörnyei's (2005, 2009) L2 Motivational Self System Theory is dominating motivational research. Numerous studies have empirically tested and validated this theoretical framework on students studying at educational institutions, but there is little data on adults studying at public or private language schools. To date, there seems to be no data from medium or large-scale surveys conducted on a demographic with a mean age of over fifty. This study provides quantitative evidence to further explore the validity of the L2 Motivational Self System on an unstudied demographic.

At the centre of this case study is a group of 156 Japanese EFL students all over the age of 50, with a mean age of 64.2, who have been accepted into a four-year English conversation program organized by a municipal government. Data from this study concur with Dörnyei et al.'s (2006) findings that integrativeness subsumes all other motivational factors, but correlations between the ideal L2 self and integrativeness suggest that these factors might not be tapping into the same pool of emotions. Additionally, the correlations between integrativeness and intended learning effort are much lower than Dörnyei et al.'s findings.

Based on the foundations of Dörnyei's (2005) seminal work, this study does partially validate Dörnyei's L2 Motivational Self System, but it also reveals how important it is to systematically study age-related variations in regards to the motivational profile of language learners. Furthermore, this survey sheds some light on an often over looked demographic in the realm of FLA research.

1. Introduction

As a result of the work of Zoltán Dörnyei over the past 25 years, there is now a re-conceptualization of L2 motivation from a ‘self perspective’. Dörnyei’s (2005, 2009a) ‘L2 Motivational Self System’ proposes a comprehensive motivational topography comprised of three basins of attraction; the *ideal L2 self*, the *ought-to L2 self* and the *L2 learning experience*. These basins of attraction detail how motivational factors operate in unison with cognitive factors as they interrelate with surrounding influences. The first basin of attraction revolves around the “internal desires of the learner,” the second, “the motivational regulations of social pressures exercised by significant or authoritative people in the learner’s environment,” and the third, “the actual experience of being engaged in the learning process” (Dörnyei 2009b, p. 218). It is Dörnyei’s (2009b) conviction that any of the three basins of attraction are able to individually elicit sufficient effect on the foreign language acquisition (FLA) or second language acquisition (SLA) learning process so that a learner can attain at minimum a functioning knowledge of the L2, but he stresses that chances for ultimate success in attaining language proficiency are heightened when the three basins of attraction are working in concert with each other.

Based on the foundations of Dörnyei’s seminal work and the theoretical constructs of Dörnyei, Csizér, and Németh’s (2006) national survey of the motivation of 13,391 middle school students in Hungary, this paper examined the beliefs that Japanese English as a foreign language (EFL) students over the age of fifty have about language learning to identify the nature and extent to which various factors influence motivation for learning an L2 in adult learners. In doing so, this study empirically tested two aspects of Dörnyei’s (2005, 2009a) L2 Motivational Self System, which proposes: (1) that the concept of the *ideal L2 self* is equal to Gardner’s (Gardner & Lambert 1972; Gardner 1985, 2010) *integrativeness* concept; (2) that the *ideal L2 self* is a more fundamentally sound concept to use for the advancement of studies of language learning motivation; and (3) that motivated effort is a direct result of *attitudes to learning English*.

The precepts for this research came from Dörnyei, Csizér, and Németh’s (2006) large-scale motivational survey in Hungary and from various other studies (Al-Shehir 2009; Csizér & Kormos 2009; Ryan 2009; Taguchi, Magid & Papi 2009) that have empirically tested and validated Dörnyei’s L2 Motivational Self System (Dörnyei 2005, 2009a). Accordingly, a constructivist’s approach to quantitative research has been adopted here because of the socio-dynamic nature of the L2 Motivational Self System. Due to space limitations though, this paper will not include a review of the literature, nor will the concept of the L2 Motivational Self System be elaborated on (see Dörnyei & Ushioda 2011 for an in depth discussion). This paper only addresses the elements of the study that are directly relevant to the three assertions proposed by Dörnyei (2005, 2009a) above.

2. The Subjects

At the centre of this case study is a group of 156 Japanese adults all over the age of 50 with a mean age of 64.2, who are all currently learning English as a foreign language. This group is made up of 36 men (23%) with a mean age of 68.7 and 120 women (77%) with a mean age of 62.9, all living in the same city, who have applied to and been accepted into a four-year English conversation program organized and partially subsidized by the local city government.

The participants’ enrolment at tertiary institutions, their overseas travel experiences to English speaking countries, their foreign residency experiences and their exposure to English studies since secondary or tertiary graduation were diverse (see Table 1).

Table 1 Participants' Tertiary, Overseas Travel, Foreign Residency and English Learning Experiences

	Gender	Totals
Attended university or college	Male	26/35* (74%)
	Female	60/120 (50%)
Travelled to English speaking country	Male	32/36 (89%)
	Female	107/120 (89%)
Lived in foreign country more than 3 months	Male	4/36 (11%)
	Female	7/120 (6%)
First time studying L2 since graduation	Male	18/36 (50%)
	Female	68/119* (57%)

* denotes missing response

3. Instruments

Due to the fact that this study proposed to validate Dörnyei's L2 motivation hypothesis by partially duplicating Dörnyei, Csizèr, and Nèmeth's (2006) Hungarian study, the main elements of this study are comprised of factors derived from the Hungarian study and also include elements from two studies that have examined the L2 motivation hypothesis on Japanese learners of English (Taguchi, Magid & Papi 2009; Ryan 2009).

The final version of the questionnaire that the students were asked to fill in consisted of 33 six-point Likert type statements (with 'strongly agree' anchoring the left end and 'strongly disagree' anchoring the right end), 10 five-point Likert type questions (with 'very much' anchoring the left end and 'not at all' anchoring the right end), 6 closed-ended items and 1 open-ended item. The open-ended question is related to age and the 6 closed-ended items pertain to the respondents' gender, post secondary education, overseas travel, residency abroad, post tertiary or secondary institution English learning experiences and years of consecutive EFL learning. The 43 Likert type items were based on the following 11 factors (see Table 2 for the Chronbach Alpha reliability coefficients and specific items):

- (1) *Criterion measures*, which is intended to evaluate the learners' intended efforts toward learning English (Dörnyei & Taguchi 2010).
- (2) *Ideal L2 self*, assesses the learners' images of themselves as English speakers.
- (3) *Ought-to L2 self*, "which concerns the attributes that one believes one ought to possess to meet expectations and to avoid possible negative outcomes" (Dörnyei 2009b, p. 218).
- (4) *Milieu* concerns the affects that social influences, such as family members, have on learners.
- (5) *Attitudes to learning English* involve "situation-specific motives related to the immediate learning environment and experience" (Taguchi, Magid & Papi 2009, p. 75).
- (6) *Interest in the English language*, investigates learners' affinities for the English language, such as words and phonetics.
- (7) *Cultural interest* measures learners' interest in culture from English speaking countries, such as movies, print media, TV programs and arts.
- (8) *Attitudes toward the English community* is concerned with learners' feelings about people that come from English-speaking communities.
- (9) *Linguistic self-confidence* "concerns a generalized appraisal of one's coping potential, relevant to a range of tasks and subject domains" (Dörnyei, Csizèr & Nèmeth 2006, p. 14).
- (10) *English anxiety* assesses learners' fears about speaking English.

(11) *Integrativeness* is a composite of items that reflect a learner's interest in the L2 and his/her openness to, and respect for the L2 culture and its speakers.

Based on a post hoc analysis of *interest in the English language* (Items 7, 13, 19, 26, 27), *attitudes to learning English* (Items 5, 8, 14, 18, 20, 24, 27, 30, 33) and *ideal L2 self* (Items 2, 15, 22, 32), items 13, 14, 18, 22 and 27 were deleted to increase the respective coefficients from 0.68 to 0.79, 0.77 to 0.83 and 0.63 to 0.68.

Table 2 Composites of Attitudinal/Motivational Factors with Cronbach Alpha Coefficients

<i>Factor name</i>	<i>Item no.</i>	<i>α</i>
Criterion measures (intended effort)	1, 9, 21, 28, 31	0.81
Ideal L2 self	2, 15, 32	0.68
Ought-to L2 self	3, 10, 16, 23	0.72
Milieu	4, 11, 17	0.65
Attitudes to learning English	5, 8, 20, 24, 30, 33	0.83
Interest in the English language (L2)	7, 19, 26	0.79
Cultural interest	35, 38, 41	0.68
Attitudes to L2 community	36, 39, 42, 43	0.78
Linguistic self-confidence	6, 12, 25, 29	0.47
English anxiety	34, 37, 40	0.80
Integrativeness	7, 19, 26, 36, 43	0.75

4. Results

To determine if there were any deviations in the shape of the distributions of the questionnaire data, descriptive statistics were conducted. Larson-Hall (2010) citing Weinberg and Abramowitz (2002), explains that a skewness ratio of less than 2 is acceptable. The analysis of the individual survey items for skewness (Table 3) showed favorable results, which meant that none of the questionnaire items provoked non-committal responses from the participants.

Table 3 Descriptive Statistics for Individual Survey Items

Item	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Std. Error
001	156	1.0	6.0	4.04	.94	-.55	.194
002	156	1.0	6.0	2.23	1.16	.75	.194
003	156	1.0	5.0	2.07	1.12	.72	.194
004	156	1.0	6.0	3.23	1.45	-.06	.194
005	156	2.0	6.0	4.95	.86	-.75	.194
006	156	1.0	6.0	3.18	1.00	-.25	.194
007	156	1.0	6.0	4.31	.98	-.46	.194
008	156	2.0	6.0	4.64	.93	-.31	.194
009	156	1.0	6.0	4.06	.92	-.17	.194
010	156	1.0	6.0	1.90	1.01	1.15	.194
011	156	1.0	6.0	2.11	1.33	.95	.194
012	156	1.0	6.0	4.56	1.20	-.43	.194
015	156	1.0	6.0	3.55	1.21	-.34	.194
016	156	1.0	6.0	1.66	.95	1.74	.194
017	156	1.0	5.0	2.01	1.27	1.09	.194
019	156	1.0	6.0	4.60	.99	-.87	.194
020	156	1.0	6.0	4.06	.93	-.41	.194
021	156	1.0	6.0	3.99	.96	-.02	.194
023	156	1.0	6.0	2.26	1.23	.83	.194
024	156	1.0	6.0	4.19	1.03	-.35	.194
025	156	1.0	6.0	2.90	1.55	.63	.194
026	156	1.0	6.0	4.33	1.10	-.46	.194
028	156	1.0	6.0	3.68	1.00	-.10	.194
029	156	1.0	6.0	4.07	1.29	-.24	.194
030	156	2.0	6.0	4.78	.90	-.30	.194
031	156	1.0	6.0	3.16	1.13	.12	.194
032	156	1.0	6.0	2.67	1.14	.21	.194
033	156	1.0	6.0	4.60	1.07	-.69	.194
034	156	1.0	5.0	2.04	1.14	.82	.194
035	156	1.0	5.0	3.85	.95	-.71	.194
036	156	3.0	5.0	3.78	.71	.36	.194
037	156	1.0	5.0	2.00	.93	.88	.194
038	156	1.0	5.0	2.98	.96	-.05	.194
039	156	1.0	5.0	3.87	.82	-.84	.194
040	156	1.0	5.0	2.22	.99	.51	.194
041	156	1.0	5.0	3.52	.89	-.22	.194
042	156	2.0	5.0	3.90	.72	-.17	.194
043	156	2.0	5.0	4.13	.76	-.50	.194

Since the aim of this study was to validate Dörnyei's L2 motivation hypothesis by partially duplicating Dörnyei, Csizèr, and Nèmeth's (2006) Hungarian study, Table 4 compares the internal reliability figures. As can be seen, the internal reliability from this study compares favorably, which demonstrates that the scales from the Hungarian study function effectively here.

Table 4 Comparison of Internal Reliability for Variables

Variables	This study		Hungarian study	
	Number of items	Alpha	Number of items	Alpha
Instrumentality	-	-	4	.77
Attitudes to L2 Community	4	.78	3	.74
Integrativeness	5	.75	3	.69
Vitality of L2 community	-	-	2	.60/.63†
Cultural interest	3	.68	4	.73/.66†
Milieu	3	.65	4	.63
Linguistic Self-confidence	4	.47	3	.47

† Separates figures for the UK and US.

According to the Dörnyei, Csizèr, and Nèmeth's (2006, p. 12) study, *instrumentality* "refers to the perceived pragmatic benefits of L2 proficiency... [and] subsumes such utilitarian goals as receiving a better job or a higher salary as a consequence of mastering an L2." As a result of this definition in relation to the demographic under investigation, the *instrumentality* variable as defined above did not seem appropriate to this study because none of the subjects from this study were concerned with career related matters, but Dörnyei's (2005) Motivational Self System does make allowances for two types of instrumental motivation: promotional and preventional. Dörnyei (2005) proposed that the promotional aspect of instrumental motivation be related to the *ideal L2 self* and preventional motivation was deemed to be a facet of the *ought-to L2 self*. Accordingly, this study looked at *instrumentality* in light of the two distinct variables proposed in the L2 Motivational Self System.

Vitality of the L2 community was not included in this study because this variable was used in the Hungarian study to show correlations between students' language-learning choice of compulsory foreign language studies in relation to their perceived feelings about the wealth and importance of the country whose language they had chosen to study at school (e.g., French, Italian, Russian, German or English).

Intended learning effort is one of the most important antecedents of language learning success (Dörnyei, 2005) and as such, it was chosen to be the *criterion measures* for the Hungarian study and this study. Table 5 shows the main correlation coefficients between the Hungarian findings and these findings between the *criterion measures* variable and the other main motivational factors.

Table 5 Correlations of Variables with Intended Learning Effort

	Intended learning effort	
	This study	Hungarian study†
Integrativeness	.50*	.67
Instrumentality	-	.49
Attitudes to L2 community	.41*	.28
Vitality of L2 community	-	.21
Cultural interest	.42*	.22
Milieu	.18**	.31
Linguistic self-confidence	.26*	.28

*. Correlation is significant at the $p < 0.01$ level

** . Correlation is significant at the $p < 0.05$ level

† Correlations significant at the $p < 0.001$ level

Analysis of Table 5 shows similarities between *linguistic self-confidence*. This demonstrates that the beliefs learners have in their abilities to learn an L2 are not specific to the Hungarian context, nor do they change with age.

The correlation between *milieu* and *intended learning effort* are much lower with this Japanese demographic, which suggests that immediate social relationships do not exert much influence over the Japanese language learners from this sample. This is possibly because of maturity differences between demographics. The Hungarian youth are likely to be more susceptible to influences from members within their social spheres given that adolescence is a time when youth are typically impressionable.

The correlations for *attitudes to the L2 community* and *cultural interest* are much higher for this demographic. A similar study (Ryan 2008) conducted on Japanese secondary and post secondary students learning English ($n=2,397$) showed even higher correlations (*attitudes to L2 community* .53 and *cultural interest* .52). The likely reason for these higher correlations is because the Hungarian study specifically targeted the UK English community and the US English community, not a borderless English speaking community. In addition, because *cultural interest* is directly linked to an L2 community, it seems understandable that both of these variables would be correlated similarly. To support this notion, Ryan (2008) tested separately the items that specifically targeted attitudes to the US English speaking community and found a correlation (.31) inline with Dörnyei, Csizèr, and Nèmeth's (2006).

The correlations between *integrativeness* and *intended learning effort* are not as high as the Hungarian study and necessitate a closer examination of the individual items that comprise the variable. The survey items from Dörnyei, Csizèr, and Nèmeth's (2006) *integrativeness* factor posed questions in relation to a learners desire to become similar to the people who speak the L2, how much learners like the L2 and how interested they were in the culture of the L2. The items from this study are not all that different. This study asked learners if they liked hearing English (2 items), liked learning new words in English, were interested in learning more about the arts and culture of the L2 and if they liked the people who lived in English speaking countries.

One possible reason for the difference may be the age disparities between the samples. The Hungarian study was conducted on 13-14-year-old grade 8 students who were only just beginning

to learn about life and who they were as individuals. Youth is a time for unrestrained dreaming about what one wishes to do, see and be, whereas the adults from this sample are likely to embrace a much more subdued enthusiasm for emulation. Ryan's (2008) study which showed similar correlations (.65) for a young sample comprised of secondary and tertiary students suggests that this is an area where further investigation is required.

Nevertheless the correlations do show that although *integrativeness* is not exerting the same dominance over the other factors like in the Hungarian study, the results concur with Dörnyei, Csizér, and Németh's (2006) findings that *integrativeness* subsumes all other motivational factors.

Table 6 The Correlations Between Ideal L2 Self, Integrativeness and Criterion Measures

	Intended learning effort	Percentage of variance
Ideal L2 self	.52	27%
Integrativeness	.50	25%

Note. Correlations are significant at the $p < 0.01$ level

Table 6 shows the correlations of the *ideal L2 self* and *integrativeness* with *criterion measures*. In proposing his L2 Motivational Self System, Dörnyei (2005) proposed that integrativeness be included as a facet of the Ideal L2 self. Results show higher correlations between the *ideal L2 self* and *intended learning effort* than between *integrativeness* and *intended learning effort*, which seems to justify the replacement of *integrativeness* with the *ideal L2 self*.

Table 7 The Correlation Between Ideal L2 Self and Integrativeness

	Ideal L2 self
Integrativeness	.45

Note. Correlation is significant at the $p < 0.01$ level

According to Larson-Hall (2010), a correlation coefficient of .10 shows a small effect, .30 depicts a medium effect and .50 demonstrates a large effect. Dörnyei (2007) expands further to explain that correlations of .3 to .5 are meaningful and results that correlate above .6 measure more or less the same thing. Based on the correlation of .45 between the *ideal L2 self* and *integrativeness* (Table 7), the effect can be classified as meaningful, but whether or not these factors are truly tapping into the same pool of emotions is debatable. This point is discussed in detail below.

Table 8 shows the correlations between all of the motivational variables with criterion measures according to correlation strengths. This table reveals an unexpectedly high correlation for *attitudes to learning English*, which seems to suggest that the learning experience plays the most important role in the motivation of L2 learners since it has the most direct relationship with intended learning effort.

In similar studies (Taguchi, Magid & Papi 2009; Csizer & Kormos 2009) that employed structural equation modeling analyses to examine the relationships among similar attitudinal/motivational factors discovered similar findings. These studies conducted on Japanese university students (n=1,586), Hungarian secondary school students (n=202), Hungarian college

and university student (n= 230) and Iranian University students (n= 1,113) found the relationship between the *ideal L2 self* and *intended learning effort* to be mediated by *attitudes to learning English*, with their respective coefficients greatest between *attitudes to learning English* and *intended learning effort* (.60, .49, .58 and .57). Therefore it is possible to conclude that the findings from this study are not atypical and motivated effort is a direct result of *attitudes to learning English*. The consequence of these findings and other recent findings mean that the third component of the L2 Motivational Self System, the L2 Learning Experience, is a valid component of Dörnyei's paradigm.

Table 8 Motivation Variable Correlations with Criterion Measures

<i>Factor name</i>	<i>Intended learning effort</i>
Attitudes to learning English	.57*
Ideal L2 self	.52*
Interest in the English language	.49*
Cultural interest	.42*
Attitudes to L2 community	.41*
Linguistic self-confidence	.26*
Milieu	.18**
Ought-to L2 self	.18**
English anxiety	.03

*. Correlation is significant at the $p < 0.01$ level

** . Correlation is significant at the $p < 0.05$ level

Integrativeness is not seen in this list because *interest in the L2* and *cultural interest*, the components that comprise this variable have been studied separately. Based on this data, the lower correlations would seem to suggest that the two factors that comprise the integrativeness factor are tapping into different emotions.

To examine this further the individual items that comprised the variables for *ideal L2 self*, *cultural interest* and *interest in the L2* were subjected to factor analysis based on a maximum likelihood analysis with oblique rotation, since the items were assumed to be intercorrelated. This three-factor solution produced good Eigenvalues totaling 65%. To limit the number of cross loadings, values less than .60 were suppressed.

Table 9 Factor Analysis for Items Related to Ideal L2 Self, Cultural Interest and Interest in L2

Variable Group	Item #	Factor		
		1	2	3
Ideal L2 Self	2			
Ideal L2 Self	15		.65	
Ideal L2 Self	32		.68	
Interest in L2	7	.81		
Interest in L2	19			
Interest in L2	26	.73		
Cultural Interest	35			
Cultural Interest	38			.63
Cultural Interest	41			.77

Based on the data from Table 9, there were salient loadings with no cross loadings for 2 of the 3 items for each variable, which suggests that these groupings are based on a valid theoretical framework.

Table 10 Revised Correlations Based on Results from Factor Analysis

	Ideal L2 self
Interest in L2	.38
Cultural interest	.34

Note. Correlations are significant at the $p < 0.01$ level

As a result of the factor analysis (Table 9), revised correlations between the saliently loaded items were conducted to determine if *cultural interest* and *interest in the L2* are measuring more or less the same thing as the *ideal L2 self*. Based on the findings of Table 10, the two factors that are the essence of integrativeness display coefficients that depict a medium effect. That is to say, they do not appear to be measuring the same thing and as such should be treated as separate attitudinal factors, even in light of recent studies (Ryan 2009; Taguchi, Magid & Papi 2009) that speak to the opposite.

Therefore it must be concluded that *interest in the L2* and *cultural interest* are *integrativeness* and not the same thing as the *ideal L2 self*, or *cultural interest* and *interest in the L2* are not *integrativeness*. It would seem that the problem of now to deal with integrativeness lies in its definition, especially in light of the fact that Dörnyei and Ushioda (2009) have highlighted numerous studies that have found this concept problematic. If Dörnyei and Csizèr's (2002, p. 456) definition that "the term may not so much be related to any actual, or metaphorical, integration into an L2 community as to some more basic *identification process* within the individual's *self-concept*", is accepted as *integrativeness*, than the *ideal L2 self* fulfils the role of successor.

This seems like the most logical course of action, not only because it supports Dörnyei's L2 Motivational Self System, but also because the results from this study and others (Ryan 2009; Taguchi, Magid & Papi 2009) show the *ideal L2 self* as one of three factors that mediates the effects of all other attitudinal/motivational variables on criterion measures, thereby validating a vital component of the L2 Motivational Self System.

In regards to *interest in the L2* and *cultural interest*, it seems that these two variables would be best served if they were studied independently, because as seen above, the results reveal that they are influencing motivation autonomously.

5. Conclusion

Due to the fact that Dörnyei, Csizèr, and Nèmeth's (2006) large scale Hungarian study was the impetus for Dörnyei's L2 Motivational Self System, one of the aims of this study was to confirm their findings in relation to this Japanese sample. Having concluded that Dörnyei, Csizèr, and Nèmeth's (2006) results were not specific to the Hungarian sample, this study also sought to validate the L2 Motivational Self System. One of the underlying tenets of this model is that Gardner's (Gardner & Lambert 1972; Gardner 1985, 2010) *integrativeness* concept be included as a facet of the ideal L2 self. Although the findings here did not support this relabeling, *integrativeness* did end up being found to equate to the *ideal L2 self*, while the two components that comprise *integrativeness*, *cultural interest* and *interest in the L2* were found to operate best as two distinct variables.

The results from this survey also revealed that the relationship between the *ideal L2 self* and *intended learning* effort are mediated by *attitudes to learning English*. This variable comprises the third component of the L2 Motivational Self System and based on these findings it is a valid component of Dörnyei's tripartite model of motivation.

This investigation empirically confirmed the reliability of two out of three aspects of Dörnyei's L2 Motivational Self System on a neglected demographic in SLA research. In doing so, it adds further pragmatic evidence to support the current trend for a paradigm shift in approaches to SLA and FLA motivation paradigms, that will inevitably lead to "new avenues for motivating language learners" (Dörnyei 2009a, p. 32). In addition, this study proved that age matters in regards to preconceived notions about L2 learning, demonstrating that further studies need to be conducted on samples with higher mean ages so as to better understand the nature and extent to which age influences EFL learning.

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Developing Character Building through Multicultural Reading Text

Tri Wahyuni Floriasti

0193

Yogyakarta State University, Indonesia

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Abstract:

The ministry of National Education has determined to integrate character education into Indonesian classroom instruction. This shift roots from many reported facts of acute sadism, lack of respect for parents, elders, and teachers, increasing dishonesty (lying, cheating and stealing), nepotism, and corruption. It is believed that moral courage is one of the trademarks of human maturity. This demanding turned teachers and lecturers to be more creative in designing innovative material. Therefore, teachers need to integrate not only such important points as higher order thinking skills but also character education into their materials.

Special materials are needed for students by inserting the local cultures. It is expected that beginners can learn best from the materials that they are familiar with. In teaching foreign language, it is needed to be sensitive to the fragility of the students by using techniques that promote cultural understanding. Learning a foreign language implies some degree of learning a second culture. My students can learn how to appreciate members of another culture and go hand in hand with them. I hope they have positive thinking and open-minded view. If people understand differing worldviews, they will usually adopt open-minded attitude toward cross-cultural differences. Moreover, by inserting local cultures in developing new English material, it is expected that students can develop awareness of their own culture and appreciation of others, which are good characters.

Therefore, this paper discusses developing character building through multicultural reading text.

Introduction

The number of sadism is growing rapidly lately in Indonesia. In some areas, people do not hesitate to assassinate a person or a group of people for foolish things such as for sake of solidarism of their motorcycle gang. In some areas that are well known for the religious conflicts are worse than other parts of Indonesia. A conflict may occur just because insignificant issues or a group of people kills people randomly just to spread terror. They did it on purpose, to trigger conflict. Some students in the big city do crime in the street, like stabbing each other, making riot in the environment, and stealing. Cheating in the national examination is also a common thing. Young generations are seeds for the future leaders.

We want great generation; we do not plant good and bad. It is already in our blood. What we need to do is developing the good characters by giving examples. To overcome this situation, as educators, it is badly needed to take care of this matter carefully and wisely. As we know that language plays important roles in education life, because it is a “hand” to educate young generation from one era to another, and to enlighten people in the dark.

Today, people especially teenagers tend to use language to represent their characters, for example they use slang and inappropriate words in the wrong situation. It means that language is a part of their fashion and identity (Tri Floriasti, 2011). According to Thomas Lickona in Zuchdi (2011: 216) that the use of bad language is one of the signals, which leads a nation to the crushed situation. Educators, parents, and government need to find a way and try to organize a program or education that promote values in life, such as appreciate others, elders, teachers with different background (Megawangi, 2004: 95)

One attempt had been done to give young generation, especially English student teachers in Indonesia, English lesson, which was inserted with multicultural values. This effort was not only by adding, adopting and applying universal values and cultural identities, which were match with students’ needs, but also by managing, selecting and running good strategies in teaching learning process (Tri Floriasti, 2011). As lingua franca, English is given in university level and it is divided in to four skills Listening, Reading, Speaking and Writing. It is expected that by learning these skills, which is already inserted by cultural values, students learn the English skills and can mend their characters as well.

This demanding turned teachers and lecturers to be more creative in designing innovative material. Developing character building through multicultural reading text is one of the innovative materials.

Why multicultural? Indonesia consists of 17.506 islands, 746 languages, and 1.128 tribes. It can be said that Indonesia is multicultural country, which enrich the national heritage and strengthen the identity of Indonesian as well. The uniqueness of Indonesia is priceless treasures that unite people in diversity. However, the diversity it self may trigger potential conflict between Indonesian. Knowing, learning, comprehending and applying the knowledge of culture in daily life will glue them and avoid the future conflict. Therefore, giving multicultural knowledge to student teachers is one practical way to enlighten them how to appreciate differences then go

hand in hand with others in Indonesia and in the world. At the end, they are not only play as good model to their students to be but also occupy themselves as transformers of multicultural knowledge. Securing this knowledge is a process to develop good characters such as appreciative, democratic, and tolerant.

Discussion

How to insert multicultural into English material is not easy. The aim is to develop appreciative, democratic and tolerant characteristics of student teachers in English Education Department of Faculty of Languages and Arts, Yogyakarta State University, Indonesia. It started by observing and deciding the problems in the Reading class, that students had problems in determining the main ideas of reading materials, recognizing word, grammar and context clues, differentiating between fact and opinion, finding evidence in reading to support an argument, predicting content and last using clues to infer the information in a written text or picture. GTM/ Grammar Translation Method mainly dominated the technique in the teaching learning process. Moreover, there was no innovation in reading materials and the media. In addition, the ministry of National Education has determined to integrate character education into Indonesian classroom instruction. Then, considering the problems, it was decided to insert multicultural into reading material.

Then the next step was planning the materials, media and the approach that would be applied in the class. The materials were arranged from the most familiar topic with students to the most foreign one. They were given with various text types. The text types that were given to the students were various, started with narrative, descriptive, then recount. Texts are pieces of written or spoken language created for a particular purpose and context. The purpose of a text might be to persuade or inform or a combination of both (Anderson & Anderson, 2002)

Since context is influenced by culture – values, customs, beliefs, attitudes and situation, then the students were introduced with the social context of the text type being studied, which correspond to the Genre Approach, a recommended one for teaching English as it matches with the type of the National Curriculum that English is learn through text. In the genre approach (Feez & Joice, 1998), consists of 5 phases: building the context, modeling and deconstructing the text, joint construction of the text, independent construction of the text, linking to related text.

The narrative text was given in the first two meetings. The activities in building the context were given to the students include:

1.

► **Activity 1: Individually. Look at this picture. What can be inferred from the picture?**



Taken from story-of-kisah.blogspot.com

► **Activity 2: What is happening in the picture?**

The aim of activity 1 was to present the context through pictures. So that students get the situation, which could be captured from the expression, gestures and clothes of the actors. Therefore, they can build the context of the story and might connect it with their prior knowledge, cultures and beliefs. Activity 2 was designed to establish the social purpose through discussions and it was cross-cultural activities, such as comparing differences in the two cultures as well. Students discussed their interpretation based on the picture then one or two students shared theirs to the class.

Then, knowing how to identify and construct text types is an important second phase – modeling and deconstructing the text. Students were prepared to absorb — investigate the structural pattern and language features of the model by reading the text model and not only comprehending the message from the main idea and the specific information but also mastering the features which was displayed in activity 3, 4 and 5. In activity 5 students prior knowledge appeared as they started to judge and compare the story with their cultural background. How they saw and weighted the problems in the story was extraordinary. Their answers reflected their personal opinion and it also communicated their characters.

► **Activity 3: First thing first in the reading for main idea**

Individually

Read the following paragraph and answer the questions:

The Myth of Malin Kundang

A long time ago, in a small village near the beach in West Sumatra, a woman and her son lived. They were Malin Kundang and her mother. Her mother was a single parent because Malin Kundang's father had passed away when he was a baby. Malin Kundang had to live hard with his mother.

Malin Kundang was a healthy, diligent, and strong boy. He usually went to sea to catch fish. After getting fish he would bring it to his mother, or sold the caught fish in the town.

One day, when Malin Kundang was sailing, he saw a merchant's ship which was being raided by a small band of pirates. He helped the merchant. With his brave and power, Malin Kundang defeated the pirates. The merchant was so happy and thanked to him. In return the merchant asked Malin Kundang to sail with him. To get a better life, Malin Kundang agreed. He left his mother alone.

Many years later, Malin Kundang became wealthy. He had a huge ship and was helped by many ship crews loading trading goods. Perfectly he had a beautiful wife too. When he was sailing his trading journey, his ship landed on a beach near a small village. The villagers recognized him. The news ran fast in the town; "Malin Kundang has become rich and now he is here".

An old woman ran to the beach to meet the new rich merchant. She was Malin Kundang's mother. She wanted to hug him, released her sadness of being lonely after so long time. Unfortunately, when the mother came, Malin Kundang who was in front of his well dressed wife and his ship crews denied meeting that old lonely woman. For three times her mother begged Malin Kundang and for three times he yelled at her. At last Malin Kundang said to her "Enough, old woman! I have never had a mother like you, a dirty and ugly woman!" After that he ordered his crews to set sail. He would leave the old mother again but in that time she was full of both sadness and anger.

Finally, enraged, she cursed Malin Kundang that he would turn into a stone if he didn't apologize. Malin Kundang just laughed and really set sail. In the quiet sea, suddenly a thunderstorm came. His huge ship was wrecked and it was too late for Malin Kundang to apologize. He was thrown by the wave out of his ship. He fell on a small island. It was really too late for him to avoid his curse. Suddenly, he turned into a stone.

Questions:

1. What is the main idea of the above paragraph?
2. Do you have difficulties getting main idea of the above paragraph? Explain!

► **Activity 4: Read and learn the following explanation below.**

What is a narrative?

A narrative is a text that tells a story and, in doing so, entertains the audience. The purpose of a narrative, other than providing entertainment, can be to make the audience think about an issue, teach them a lesson, or excite their emotions. (Anderson & Anderson, 2002)

Features of a narrative

Constructing a narrative

The steps for constructing a narrative text are:

An orientation in which the narrator tells the audience about <i>WHO</i> is in the story, <i>WHEN</i> the story is taking place and <i>WHERE</i> the action is happening

A complication that sets off a chain of events that influences what will happen in the story

A sequence of events where the characters react to the complication
--

A resolution in which the characters solve the problem created in the complication

A coda that provides a comment or moral based on what has been learned from the story (an optional step).
--

Grammatical features of a narrative

Narratives usually include the following grammatical features:

nouns that identify the specific characters and places in the story
--

adjectives that provide accurate descriptions of the characters and settings

verbs that show the actions that occur in the story
--

time words that connect events, telling <i>when</i> they occurred.

► **Activity 5: Fill in the blank below**

The Myth of Malin Kundang

The characters of the story, where and when the story takes place: _____

The problems: _____

How the problems are solved: _____

How the story ends: _____

What are the messages that you can get from the story?: _____

What did you learn from the actors?

In activity 5 students prior knowledge appeared as they started to judge and compare the story with their cultural background. How they saw and weighted the problems in the story was extraordinary. Their answers reflected their personal opinion and it also communicated their characters. From the table below it can be seen that students had various response. The appreciative characters dominated the activity 5. Students appreciate the mother of the rebellion son was 18. They appreciate her patience that she had been waiting for Malin Kundang for long time. Two students responded that old generation should give freedom to the younger generation.

Table 1

The number students response in activity 5

Characters	Activity 5	Activity 7
Appreciative / Not	18 Students - Appreciative	13 Students - Not Appreciative
Democratic / Not	2 Students - Democratic	4 Students - Democratic
Tolerant / Not	0	3 Students - tolerant

In the next stage students began to construct of the text type and the lecturer gradually reduced the contribution. Students were asked to do self-correction and peer editing activities as a next phase- joint construction of the text. Then, the results were scribed onto white board and discussed them to class. In activities 6 students were given Jigsaw and information-gap activities to support their ability in constructing the text and 7. In activity 7 students got a chance to practice freely how to construct narrative text. They were given four reading narrative texts, and then asked to identify the features and the grammar of the texts like activity 5.

Conclusion

Students knew that they should appreciate people who have different background but sometimes it was hard to accept the difference especially if they had no chance to know other cultures. Designing innovative material, which is aimed to develop character, is badly needed for students without giving extra subject into curriculum. Students

Intelligence plus characters is a great package that should be had by people who want to take responsibilities in transferring knowledge and leading in the life. In the global world, character building is one of the aims of Indonesia education so that Indonesian can play in international world without forgetting the root – Indonesia great culture. Inserting the multicultural material in English lesson is one way to answer the demand of the Ministry of National Education and the challenge of the world. It is a proof that Indonesian play important roles in the world.

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MediAsia2012 - The Third Asian Conference on Media & Mass Communication

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ACERP2013 - The Third Asian Conference on Ethics, Religion and Philosophy

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