Language Attitudes of Tigrinya-speaking Parents towards Mother Tongue Maintenance and Their views on Their Children’s Shift to Arabic in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia: A Sociolinguistic Investigation

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Abstract: This study investigates the language attitudes of Tigrinya-speaking parents towards mother tongue maintenance and their views on their children’s shift to Arabic in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia. Sixty Eritrean Tigrinya-speaking parents participate in this research. Forty-three of them are males whereas seventeen of them are females. The subjects of this research are asked to answer a 54-item questionnaire eliciting information regarding their language use, proficiency in Tigrinya and Arabic, attitudes towards both Tigrinya and Arabic and their views on their children’s language maintenance or shift. The results show that the mother tongue is strongly maintained by the parents in this domain. They are trying to use their heritage language at home constantly, and outside their homes, as far as possible, to retain it from loss over generations. Tigrinya is generally preferred for their daily linguistic use. They are esteeming their mother tongue as highly positive as far as their attitudes are concerned. Their integrative orientations show that they like Tigrinya most. They show a higher estimation for Arabic for its instrumental value and status and it is a very supportive language that facilitates a better prospect for future career development.

Keywords: Attitudes, LMLS, heritage language, mother tongue, Tigrinya, Arabic

1. Introduction

The purpose of this study is to investigate the language attitudes and practices of Tigrinya-speaking Eritrean immigrants living in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia. The Eritrean community in Riyadh is one of the relatively big African communities in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. According to the Eritrean Embassy in Riyadh the number of the Eritreans is nearly 100,000 nationals living either as refugees or residents. Thiollot (2007) states that there are 100,000 Eritreans. The majority of them entered Saudi Arabia without documents, with their refugee documents or with Haj or Umra documents. They are granted the residential permit by the Saudi authorities. In the 1970s and 1980s the Eritreans were granted a quasi-asylum status by the Saudi Government (Thiollot 2007, p. 8). That status was considered as a special case of assistant to the Eritrean people who was struggling for freedom against the Ethiopian dictatorship, which kept the country for decades under its occupation. The flux of the Eritreans to the kingdom happened nearly in that period of struggle, that is the 1970s and 1980s. The Saudi Ministry of Labour talk about 53,000 Eritreans in the kingdom, whereas the Eritrean Embassy acknowledges nearly double this figure. There are more than one community living in different cities in the kingdom.
One is in Riyadh, a second is in Jeddah and a third is in Jazan (Habtoor, 2012a). There is no clear evidence about the actual size of each community and which one is the largest. Anyway, the subjects of this study are drawn randomly from those residing in Riyadh, the capital city of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.

2. Review of Related Literature

The study focuses on Tigrinya-speaking parents’ use and attitudes of Tigrinya and Arabic and their feelings about their children heritage language maintenance in future. Language maintenance denotes the continuing use of a language in the face of competition from a regionally and socially more powerful language. The opposite of this term, language shift, denotes the replacement of one language by another as the primary means of communication and socialisation within a community (Mesthrie, 2009, p.245). Fasold (1984) views LMLS as: “the choices made by the members of a particular speech community, reflecting their cultural values, add up to the shift or maintenance in that community” (p.214). Regarding language shift, Fishman (1991) defines it as a “process whereby intergenerational continuity of the heritage language is proceeding negatively, with fewer ‘speakers, readers, writers, and even understanders every generation” (Fishman 1991, p.1). Language minorities and heritage language have been of higher interest of many research scholars like Fishman (1987). Fishman (1987) found that exposure to language and community motivation are essential factors in language maintenance. According to Park and Sarker (2007, p.2) “parents’ supportive interaction with their children at home in the heritage language are likely to enhance the possibility of maintaining the heritage language over the generations”. Schrauf (1999) also found that religious support and community use of language are essential to its maintenance. In Fishman’s view minority language groups are in need for constant exposure to their native language in using it at home and in community activities. Lao (2004), for instance, emphasises on the language use at home between parents and children as the most crucial factor in determining the heritage language maintenance or loss over the generations.

The most important factor to avoid language shift is the significance allotted to the language by the speakers themselves. In Hoffman’s view (1991, p. 186) “under certain cultural, social and political conditions, a community might tend to change one set of linguistic tools for another. This phenomenon is clearly observable in the case of migrant communities”. In the same way, Fishman (1966, p. 424) argues that LMLS “is concerned with the relationship between change or stability in habitual language use, on the one hand, and on-going psychological, social or cultural processes, on the other hand, when populations differing in language are in contact with each other”. Moreover, Fishman (1991, p. 55–65) thinks that there are two reasons of language shift:

1. the physical and demographic dislocation of language groups due to, for example, famine, population expulsion policies and the urbanization of rural populations;
2. the social dislocation, whereby members of the minority speech community are frequently but not inevitably less socially, educationally and economically fortunate than the average surrounding population.
2.1 Recent Studies on LMLS: A Review

Over the last ten years, several works on LMLS have been published. Some of the available works have been consulted and reported. One of these studies is Sun’s (2000) which focuses on the importance of parental roles in first language maintenance in immigrant families. Parents' guidance and parents' insistence on their children's use of Chinese at home play an important role in their children's maintenance of Chinese language. In another study, Cashman (2001) examines the bilingual language practices in a small, heterogeneous, urban Latino community in the Midwestern United States. The individual variables such as age at time of arrival had the most significant impact on the Spanish language maintenance of Group 1 (Latin American informants), while social network variables had the most significant impact on the Spanish language maintenance of Group 2 (U.S.). Holdeman (2002) investigates language maintenance and shift among the Russian old believers of Erie in Pennsylvania. The research investigates the community's origins and history, its variant of Russian, and the status of Russian, Church Slavonic, and English, focusing on history, domains of use, attitudes towards the languages, proficiency, etc., and it examines the process of language maintenance and shift in the community. Other studies on LMLS have been conducted in different situations like Venditti (2003) in his research women and ethnic language maintenance: A study of Italian immigrant family triads in Sainte-Leonard, Montreal; Biltoo (2004) in his research on Bhojpurias LMLS in Mauritius, and Zhang (2005) in studying the home language maintenance and acculturation among second-generation Chinese children. Furthermore, Park (2007) founds that the language use pattern within the family show the language shift among Korean heritage language adolescents. Nevertheless, it is not the place, but the parents that make home a heritage language domain. The pattern shows that Korean is used more with the parents' generation and English is predominantly used among peers in the younger generations. Ramirez (2007) studies language attrition and language maintenance of Colombian immigrants in New York State. The results of this study indicate that first generation Colombian immigrants in New York State do not present signs of language attrition but some pragmatic changes due to exposure to English as well as to other Spanish dialects. These bilinguals register a high level of first language maintenance because they keep using their native language for both integrative and instrumental processes. Hamid (2007) studies LMLS in the Sylheti community in Leeds. She claimed that the identification of Bangla as mother tongue is linked to reasons other than use. Analysis of data unequivocally indicated that Sylheti is the strongest among immediate and extended family and friends. The maintenance of Sylheti is established and the evidence of Sylheti-English bilingualism substantiates the additive role of minority language in a bilingual context. Van Aswegen (2008) studies language maintenance and shift in Ethiopia: The case of Maale, a minority language spoken in Ethiopia. The findings indicate that the mother tongue literacy programme contributed to language maintenance but it is a stepping-stone to further education. Gogonas (2009) studies language shift in second-generation Albanian immigrants in Greece. Quantitative and qualitative data on children’s language competence and on patterns of language use within Albanian households indicate that the Albanian ethnolinguistic group was undergoing rapid language shift. Matsumoto (2010) examines the role of social networks in the post-colonial multilingual island of Palau: Mechanisms of language maintenance and shift. He concludes that the social network is indeed a valuable and important social variable in sociolinguistic investigations, alongside other factors, such as sex and identity.
2.3 Language Attitudes and LMLS

Attitudes towards language are subjected to how a language speaker views his language and the host language, as in the case of immigrants. The notion of language attitudes was firstly proposed by Gardener and Lambert (1972). It was initially confined to second language learning motivation, with two orientation perspectives: instrumental and integrative. The implementation of this notion is spread to include the target language itself and its community (Lai, 2005). Edwards (1994, p.97) defines attitudes as “a disposition to respond favourably or unfavourably to a class of objects”. He also added, “one knows or believes something, has some emotional reaction to it, and therefore, may be assumed to act on this basis”. Attitude towards a certain language “allows some insight into the perception and representation of identity” (Edwards 1985, p.151). According to Baker (1992, p.9) language attitudes are “to be important in language restoration, preservation, decay or death”. Fasold (1984, p.148) says that “if the mentalist conception of language attitude runs out to be right, then, if we know a person’s attitude, we would be able to make predictions about her behaviour related to those attitudes, with some degree of accuracy”. Fasold (1984, p. 147) also adds, “Attitudes are to be found simply in the responses people make to social situations”. Vassberg (1993) quoted in Manley (2008, p. 325) sums up the importance that language attitudes may have for speakers:

...(language) attitudes...play a crucial role in the psychology of individual speakers and their use of language. For attitudes have been shown to have a profound effect on motivation to speak or learn a language; they are linked to views of identity and the desire – or lack of desire – for group membership and solidarity. Attitudes are affected by – and comprise – values and stereotypes held by both speakers and non-speakers of any given language or language variety.

Recently, several attitude-oriented LMLS research works have been published. Lai (2005), for instance, investigates language attitudes of the first postcolonial generation in Hong Kong secondary schools. The results show that the respondents feel the most integratively inclined to Cantonese (the vernacular variety), and they perceive English (the colonizers’ language) as the language of the highest instrumental value and social status, while Putonghua (the language of the new ruler) is rated the lowest from both the integrative and the instrumental perspectives. Park and Sarkar (2007) find that Korean immigrant parents are very positive towards their children’s heritage language maintenance. Korean parents believe that their children’s high level of proficiency in the Korean language would help their children keep their cultural identity as Koreans, ensure them better future economic opportunities, and give them more chances to communicate with their grandparents efficiently. Zhang (2010) studies LMLS among Chinese immigrant parents and their second-generation children in the United States. Zhang says that despite their misconceptions of bilingualism, these parents generally have positive attitudes or “language loyalty” towards Mandarin. Differences exist among parents depending on how they integrate into American social and economic context and their future orientations are defined. Martin (2009) carries out a research on Arab American parents’ attitudes towards their children's heritage language maintenance and language practices. Results indicated that parents hold positive attitudes towards Arabic and engage in various language practices that promote the maintenance of Arabic in their families, and racism is not significantly associated with language
attitudes or language encouragement. Letsholo (2009) conducts a research on language maintenance or shift through investigating the attitudes of Bakalanga youth towards their mother tongue. The results show that informants use Setswana frequently, even in domains where they could use their mother tongue, e.g. when speaking to peers from the same mother tongue. Some of the subjects also express negative feelings towards using their mother tongue around non-native speakers of the language.

3. The Present Study

3.1 Objectives and Research Questions

The aim of this study is to examine the language attitudes and the factors of LMLS among Tigrinya-speaking Eritrean parents in Saudi Arabia. It seeks answers to the following questions:

1. To what extent are the Eritrean immigrant parents proficient in both Tigrinya and Arabic?
2. What are the attitudes of the Tigrinya-speaking Eritrean immigrants towards their mother tongue and Arabic?
3. What are the views of the Tigrinya-speaking Eritrean parents on their children’s language shift and cultural shift?

3.2 Sampling

Sixty Eritrean Tigrinya-speaking parents participated in this research. Forty-three of them are males whereas 17 of them are females. Those are the parents of the children who participated in a previous study regarding the second generation maintenance and shift of Tigrinya in Riyadh (Habtoor, 2012a, p. 948).

3.3 Research Tool and Procedure

The subjects of this research were asked to answer a 54-item questionnaire eliciting information regarding their language use, proficiency in Tigrinya and Arabic, attitudes towards both Tigrinya and Arabic and their views on their children’s language maintenance or shift.

The data were collected through a questionnaire distributed to the parents through their children registered at the International Eritrean School in Al-Nasriah, Riyadh along with another form to be filled by the youngsters for the purpose of a previous work (Habtoor, 2012a). The forms were returned to the researcher in ten days time from the day of distribution. The date of birth of these respondents ranges between 1974 to 1975. The majority of them (96.6%) migrated to the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia while only 3.4% of them were born in the kingdom. 71.6% of the respondents were males and 28.4% were females. 61.6% were Muslims whereas 38.4% were Christians.

4. Findings and Discussion

4.1 Language Proficiency
Subjects’ proficiency level in Tigrinya and Arabic shows that the majority of them are retaining their mother tongue. There are more than 93% , $X^2$ is 97.3; (p < .01), strongly agree that they understand Tigrinya fluently, whereas only 35% of them say that they are strongly agree with the same statement related to their proficiency in Arabic, which shows no significance as well. As for fluency in speaking skills in Tigrinya, more than 91% of the respondents strongly agree with the related statement, $X^2$ is 92.1; (p < .01). Respondents’ fluency in speaking Arabic shows that they are not fluent. Only slightly more than 28% of them strongly agree with the related statement, and this shows no statistic significance. The reading skill in Tigrinya shows the higher language fluency level of Tigrinya, which is undeniably better than Arabic. 83.3% of them strongly agree with the statement related to reading fluency in Tigrinya, $X^2$ is 110.26; (p < .01). In contrast, we find that the respondents read Arabic less fluently than Tigrinya. Only 25% of them strongly agree with the corresponding statement on Arabic, rather than 40% of them ‘strongly disagree’ and ‘disagree’ with the same statement as well, which shows a negative view on Arabic use. The writing skill of the respondents in Tigrinya is higher than Arabic in terms of statistics. More than 83% of them strongly agree with the statement related to writing fluency in Tigrinya and only 21.6% of them strongly agree with the same statement on their fluency in reading Arabic. As for translation from Tigrinya into Arabic and vice versa, they seem to be less skilled.

Regarding their performance in the four basic language skills the subjects show a greater inclination towards Tigrinya than Arabic proficiency. Although they are also proficient in Arabic, which is one of the main languages in Eritrea, their home land and the host language of their new settlement, but still they find it more comfortable to use their mother tongue. The results discussed above give a clear idea about the proficiency of these subjects in their mother tongue and they have a strong belief in its survival. The figures given above show that Tigrinya and not Arabic that they generally prefer for their daily linguistic use. This is an indication of maintaining Tigrinya.

4.2 Language Use Patterns

As for the patterns of language use by the Eritrean parents, one of the questions required them to indicate what language they use in trying to convince a person from the same mother tongue, Tigrinya. More than 96 % of them said they use Tigrinya with $X^2 = 52.26$ (p < 0.01). This shows that they are inclined to use their mother tongue much more than using Arabic. Subjects also indicate that they use Tigrinya very dominantly in ‘asking for information’. 96.95 % of them, with $X^2 = 52.26$ (p < 0.01), say that they use Tigrinya rather than Arabic in such situation. In giving commands the subjects indicated that they use Tigrinya more than Arabic, that is 96.6% with $X^2 = 52.26$ (p < 0.01). For both gossiping and discussing politics, the respondents show that they use Tigrinya more than Arabic, 95 %. $X^2$ for both is 48.60 (p < 0.01). 85% of the subjects use Tigrinya to express their anger, ($X^2 = 29.40$, p < 0.01). In giving compliment, 80% of the respondents use their mother tongue, $X^2 = 21.60$ (p < 0.01). 83.4% of the respondents claim that they use their mother tongue in joking which shows a statistical significance, $X^2 = 21.60$ (p < 0.01). In reading books for pleasure, purposes 66.6 % of the respondents say that they use Tigrinya, $X^2 = 6.66$, which shows no significance. Respondents rating of reading newspapers, listening to radio and watching TV in Tigrinya shows no significance at all. The percentage is 58.3 %, 51.6 % and 50%, respectively. These three activities almost show the least interest as far
as using mother tongue is concerned. As for talking in a supermarket, 90% of the respondents claim that they use Tigrinya, $X^2 = 38.40$, $(p < 0.01)$. When the respondents are doing mental arithmetic they use Tigrinya more than Arabic, so 70% of them use their mother tongue which shows some significance, $X^2 = 9.69$ $(p < 0.05)$. Finally, when the respondents write notes for themselves they use their mother tongue, Tigrinya, more than Arabic, 80%, $X^2 = 21.60$ $(p < 0.01)$.

The statistical results expressed above show that the Eritrean parents are very much interested in using Tigrinya than Arabic, the dominant language, in their activities. This shows that this community is struggling to maintain its mother tongue in the family domain and through this, the whole society will be able to maintain it as long as possible, since the family is the smaller unit of the society. In support for this argument, several scholars, among them Crystal (2000), have noted that one way in which a language could be sustained is if it is used within the community.

4.3 Language Attitudes

Language attitudes are determined by the view the speakers of a given language appreciate their mother tongue in the face of the host Language. In the following lines we will discuss the attitudes of the Tigrinya-speaking Eritreans towards both Tigrinya, the mother tongue, and Arabic, the host language. If we dealt with both answers ‘agree and strongly agree as positive answers we find that 80% of the respondents strongly agree and 20% of them agree that Tigrinya is a beautiful language, $X^2 = 21.60$ $(p < 0.01)$, but they also do not look down Arabic at the same time, so we find that 96.8%, that is, 28.4% agree and 68.4% strongly agree that Arabic is also a beautiful language, $X^2 = 66.26$ $(p < 0.01)$. We find that 88.4% of them support the statement ‘Tigrinya is a language of culture’, positively and the $X^2 = 44.93$, $(p < 0.01)$. On the other hand, they view Arabic as a language of culture, too, but with less positive support. 68.4% of them feel that Arabic is a language of culture $X^2 = 48.10$ $(p < 0.01)$. 98.4% of them both ‘agree’ and ‘strongly agree’ with the statement related to the pleasure of listening to Tigrinya, $X^2 = 40.30$, $(p < 0.01)$, while Arabic is also seems to be a pleasant language to listen to by the Tigrinya speakers, that is, 96.3% of them agree and strongly agree with the statement related to pleasure in listening to Arabic. All respondents say that they are proud of their mother tongue, 6.6% ‘agree’ and 93.4% ‘strongly agree’ $X^2 = 45.06$ $(p < 0.01)$. The respondents feel that maintaining Tigrinya is the responsibility of the family for the coming generations. So, 13.4% ‘agree’ and 86.6% further ‘strongly agree’ with the statement regarding Tigrinya learning by the future generations within the family itself. 20.2% ‘agree’ and 76.6% ‘strongly agree’ that Tigrinya is part of their identity, $X^2 = 90.80$ $(p < 0.01)$. Furthermore, Tigrinya-speaking parents believe that immigrants should maintain their language. So, we find that the respondents fully agree and strongly agree with the statement related to this issue, that is, they are 100% with maintaining their mother tongue, $X^2 = 38.40$ $(p < 0.01)$ . Again we find almost the same figures regarding maintaining their culture, since culture is an inclusive concept that comprises language as well. 13.4% and 86.6% agree and strongly agree with that statement related to mother tongue maintenance, respectively and $X^2 = 32.26$ $(p < 0.01)$. Identically, the respondents entirely support the notion of maintaining the cultural customs of their ethnicity within the hosting society. 66.6% of the respondents believe that the only barrier between them and the Arabs is the language, $X^2 = 7.33$ and shows no statistical significance at all, which means that there might
be some other factors which constitute barriers between the Eritreans as immigrants residing in KSA and the natives of the country. As for using Arabic in contacting Arabs, the respondents do not have a strong feeling that their accent might bother them or the Arabs when they speak Arabic. So, it is found that only 28.3% of them think that their accent bothers them in speaking Arabic, whereas only 32.2% of them feel that their accent bothers Arabs, $X^2 = 15.60$ (p < 0.05) and $X^2 = 19.46$ (p < 0.01), respectively. Almost 85% of the respondents think that they feel more comfortable in using Tigrinya than Arabic, $X^2 = 38.53$ (p < 0.01). In contrast, 80% of them do not support the statement related to being uncomfortable using Tigrinya in public, $X^2 = 24.93$, (p < 0.01), which means that they are very keen about reserving using Tigrinya everywhere. Finally, it is found that only less than third (30%) of the respondents believe that Arabic is a threat to their mother tongue as far as maintenance is concerned, $X^2 = 14.40$ (p < 0.01).

The majority of the respondents (90%) think that knowledge of Arabic language makes them part of the developed world rather than Tigrinya, $X^2 = 38.40$ (p < 0.01). Furthermore, well over 86% think that knowing Arabic indicates that someone is educated, $X^2 = 32.26$ (p < 0.01). Again, the majority of respondents (93.4%) think that knowing Arabic will enable them to have a better future, $X^2 = 45.06$ (p < 0.01). 98.4% of the respondents think that people who know Arabic can easily get jobs, $X^2 = 56.06$ (p < 0.01). More than 83% of them also think that knowing Arabic indicates a high social status, $X^2 = 26.66$ (p < 0.01). Most of the respondents (88.4%) think that knowledge of Arabic makes someone more successful in life, $X^2 = 35.26$ (p < 0.01). Ultimately, the respondents are in favour of Tigrinya speakers being pleasant using their mother tongue, that is, more than 68% of them rated this statement positively, $X^2 = 8.6$ (p < 0.05).

Although the respondents’ attitudes towards their mother tongue is highly positive, their attitudes towards Arabic is also positive. Definitely they are not as significant as those of Tigrinya, but still they view it relatively positive. More specifically, their integrative orientation shows that they like Tigrinya most. As for their instrumental orientation they view Arabic positively significant. This factor seems to show respondents’ high evaluation of Arabic for its instrumental value and status. As shown in the statistical results, the respondents tend to agree strongly that Arabic is a highly regarded language for them in KSA, and it is a very helpful language that enables them to obtain better prospects for career improvement.

4.4 Parents’ Views on Tigrinya Future

The Tigrinya-speaking parents are concerned about the future of their coming generations losing their identity and their language as well. But they are not pessimistic about that or, in other words, they do not want to acknowledge this fact. It is found that less than half of them (41.6%) think that the time will come when most Tigrinya speakers in KSA will have forgotten their ethnic past, but this does not reflect any statistical significance at all, $X^2 = 1.66$. The same thing is applied to the language loss anticipation, but with much worry about the future of Tigrinya in the hands of the younger generations. Well over half of the respondents (51.6%) think that time will come when most Tigrinya speakers in KSA will have forgotten their language, $X^2 = .07$. Anyway, the respondents think that the time has not started yet for both losing the ethnic past and losing language. In rating the answer for a question related to the
duration it might take their children to lose their ethnic past, 58.4% think that it has not yet started and only 21.6% acknowledge its commence, $X^2 = 61.33$ ($p < 0.01$). As for language loss, 46.6% of them think that the time has not started yet, whereas 36.6% of them think that it has started, $X^2 = 48.83$ ($p < 0.01$).

The parents in this study do not want to acknowledge the linguistic fact that the younger generations have already started a gradual language shift to Arabic, the dominant language. In a previous study that I have conducted on Tigrinya speaking teenagers, “...the use of Tigrinya is seemingly decreasing and the use of Arabic is increasing. Therefore, there is evidence from this study that second generation Tigrinya teenagers proficiency is shifting towards Arabic rather than maintaining the native language.” (Habtoor 2012a, p. 953)

5. Conclusion

At the beginning of this study, three questions have been asked regarding the Eritrean immigrant parents proficiency in both Tigrinya and Arabic, the attitudes of the Tigrinya-speaking Eritrean immigrants towards their mother tongue and Arabic and finally, the views of the Tigrinya-speaking Eritrean parents on their children’s language shift. In answering these questions, language proficiency, language use, language attitudes, and parents’ views regarding their children’s language maintenance of Tigrinya were investigated. It is found that the mother tongue is strongly maintained by the parents in this domain. This shows the close ties among the families members in trying to use their heritage language at home constantly, and outside their homes, as far as possible, to retain it from loss over generations. I also found that the language used in the intimate domains continued to be spread to younger members of the family or through the peer groups with whom the respondents interacted, as have been obviously shown in the results of my previous study (Habtoor, 2012a), regarding the teenagers LMLS, and the results of the present study. Younger generations are experiencing a gradual language shift.

As for language use, the parents in this study are inclined to use their mother tongue in a wider scope of communication in order to preserve a high status for both mother tongue and heritage culture. There is evidence on higher proficiency of these subjects in their mother tongue and they have a strong belief in its survival. Ultimately, we can say that Tigrinya and not Arabic the respondents generally prefer for their daily linguistic use. This is an indication of maintaining Tigrinya as well. The results revealed that the respondents are esteeming their mother tongue as highly positive as far as their attitudes are concerned. In particular, their integrative orientations show that they like Tigrinya for the most part. They also view Arabic positively significant. This factor seems to show respondents’ higher estimation of Arabic for its instrumental value and status. As shown in the statistical results, the respondents tend to agree strongly that Arabic is a highly regarded language for them in their new settlement, and it is a very supportive language that facilitates a better prospects for future career development. Finally, LMLS of Tigrinya parents is obviously contrary to the younger generations in all respects. Parents are struggling to maintain Tigrinya, whereas teenagers are gradually shifting towards Arabic(Habtoor, 2012a). The parents do not acknowledge this fact and they do not foresee, at least in near future, any threat by Arabic language to Tigrinya language and culture, which may consequently lead to an ultimate shift to Arabic by the end of the day. However, they have started to consider the problem of both linguistic and cultural shift but slightly on the long run.
References


Appendix 1
Questionnaire

I. Personal Data:
1. Date of birth: .................................
2. Country of birth: ............................
3. Sex: Male.............................Female....................
4. Religion: Islam..............Christianity ......................

II. Tigrinya proficiency and Arabic proficiency:
Please circle the number 1, 2, 3, or 4 if you agree or disagree with the following statements according to the scale below

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>I understand Tigrinya fluently</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>I speak Tigrinya fluently</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>I read Tigrinya fluently</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>I write Tigrinya fluently</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>I can translate orally Tigrinya into Arabic easily and accurately</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>I understand Arabic fluently</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>I speak Arabic fluently</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>I read Arabic fluently</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>I write Arabic fluently</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>I can translate orally Arabic into Tigrinya easily and accurately</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

III. Language Use:
Which language do you use in the following situations and activities? Put a (√) below the language you use against each statement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Tigrinya</th>
<th>Arabic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Try to convince a person</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Ask for information</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Give command</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Gossip</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Discuss politics</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Get angry</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Give a complement</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Tell joke</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Read books for pleasure</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>Statement</td>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Read newspapers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>Listen to radio programmes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>Watch TV</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>Talk at the supermarket/ market</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>Do mental arithmetic</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>Write a note to yourself</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

IV. Attitude towards the language:
A: Please circle the number 1, 2, 3, or 4 if you agree or disagree with the statement according to the scale below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>Tigrinya is a beautiful language</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>Tigrinya is a language of culture</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>Tigrinya is a pleasant language to listen to</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>I am proud of my mother tongue</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>Arabic is a beautiful language</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31</td>
<td>Arabic is a language of culture</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32</td>
<td>Arabic is a pleasant language to listen to</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33</td>
<td>It is important that future generations in our family know Tigrinya</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>34</td>
<td>Tigrinya language is part of my identity</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35</td>
<td>Immigrants should maintain their language</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36</td>
<td>It is important that immigrants maintain their culture</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>37</td>
<td>I find it important to maintain my culture customs</td>
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<tr>
<td>38</td>
<td>The only barrier between us and Arabic speakers is the language</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39</td>
<td>My accent bothers me when I speak Arabic</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td>My accent bothers Arabs when I speak Arabic</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>41</td>
<td>I feel more comfortable using Tigrinya than Arabic</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>42</td>
<td>Arabic is a threat to Tigrinya</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>43</td>
<td>I feel uncomfortable using Tigrinya in public spaces</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

B. Put a tick under the language that you agree with against each statement
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Tigrinya</th>
<th>Arabic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>44</td>
<td>Knowledge of this language makes you feel part of the developed world</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45</td>
<td>Knowledge of this language indicates someone is educated</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46</td>
<td>People who know this language will have a better future</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>47</td>
<td>People who know this language get jobs easily</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48</td>
<td>Knowledge of this language indicates a high social status</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49</td>
<td>Those who know this language are more successful in life</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50</td>
<td>Speakers of this language are usually pleasant</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

C: Do you think there will come a time when most Tigrinya Speakers residing in KSA will:

1. **Have forgotten their ethnic past? YES/NO If yes, how long will it take?**
   - a. It has already started
   - b. One Generation
   - c. Two generations
   - d. Three generations
   - e. four generations
   - f. five generations.

2. **Have forgotten their language past? YES/NO If yes, how long will it take?**
   - b. It has already started
   - b. One Generation
   - c. Two generations
   - d. Three generations
   - e. four generations
   - f. five generations.
Imparting Human Values through Communication: An Emphasis on Role Play

Rupinder Kaur Gandhi (M.A., MPhil in English Literature)
Assistant Professor (Professional Communication)
Graphic Era University

Abstract: Today majority of places have adopted a holistic approach towards education. Attention is towards experiential learning and the significance that it places on relationships and primary human values within learning environment. The tenet ‘I hear and I forget I see and I remember, I do and I understand’ is very applicable here.

Human values are abstract. No doubts these values are inextricably woven into our language but it is difficult to impart such values.

The process of communication is very important. It includes verbal and non-verbal communication. Therefore human values can be imparted through communication. The aim of this paper is twofold. Firstly, the paper exposes some human values that are instrumental in creating a holistic personality and the second part of the paper moves towards the importance of role play as a medium to communicate human values. Whenever we project into the future in a kind of ‘what if ‘scenario, we indulge in a role play which can effectively communicate human values verbally and non-verbally.

Role play is of great pedagogical value. It can be given a proper direction as well as a purpose by performing it in the form of a one act play. The second part further includes the study of a one act play, “The Refund” by Fritz Karinthy as an illustration of a role play with a purpose.

Introduction:

Education is a process that moulds the personality of a person.

Consolidating the views of the eminent scholars, we may characterise ‘total education’ as- ‘the system of teaching, learning and initiation of knowledge which leads to complete self-reliance, excellent development of personality and continuous evolution of virtuous tendencies.’(Sharma, Acharya, 255)

To give a holistic approach towards education emphasis is being laid on incorporating human values in order to have complete self-reliance.

These values are abstract and there are no set rules or principles to impart them. If we try to teach such values and morals to people by simply giving lectures on it, it is always taken as a
moral preaching, which very few can value. On the other hand, if we adopt an indirect method i.e. learning through mistakes, it can surely leave some impact because once a person commits a mistake, then he can very well visualize what the right way to check this mistake is. As substantiated in the following lines:

In studying the great characters the world has produced, I dare say, in the vast majority of cases it would be found that it was misery that taught more than happiness, it was poverty that taught more than wealth, it was blows that brought out the inner fire more than praise. (Karma Yoga, p-2).

In the same context a person learns from mistakes. Therefore mistakes can act as a learning experience too.

The major concern comes when one has to find out ways as to how to actually provide a platform where people can visualize or observe some mistakes or some wrong doings. To accomplish such a task, the process of communication is taken into consideration as-

We may see that sound symbols play a prominent part in the drama of human life. I am talking to you, I am not touching you, the pulsations of the air caused by my speaking go into your ear, they touch your nerves and produce effects in your mind. (Karma Yoga, p-69).

Therefore verbal communication is very effective but at the same time non-verbal aspect of communication cannot be also ignored as it accounts to…..% of total communication.

This paper has taken into consideration “Role Play” as a medium of communication to impart human values. “Role Play is a highly verbalized procedure”. (Morry Van Ments, p-19). Role play includes both verbal and non-verbal communication.

The incentive to take part in a role play is high and by taking part, one is using language and other ways of communicating so that learning is an integral part of the task. (Morey Van Ments, p-19).

And in order to follow the strategy of “learning through mistakes”, it has taken a one act play- “The Refund” by Fritz Karinthy in which the protagonist is an object of wrong doings and he commits all sorts of mistakes and finally has to give up in the hands of the principal and the professors. His mistakes act like a learning ground for the viewers and even the role players.

For the beginner it gives a logical sequence which ensures that each point is considered before too many assumptions are made. (Morey Van Ments, p-29).
Abode to Human Values:

Human values are of the highest consciousness state which are inextricably woven into our language. These values are ingrained in a human being from the very childhood. Basically values are there in a person but there are various factors that mould them into good or bad virtues. It’s only the human mind which is real abode of such values. As substantiated in the words of Karma Yoga:

The external world is simply the suggestion, the occasion, which sets you to study your own mind, but the object of your study is always your own mind. The falling of an apple gave the suggestion to Newton and studied his own mind. He rearranged all the previous links of thought in his mind and discovered a new link among them…. All knowledge therefore, secular or spiritual is in the human mind. (P-2, 3).

If human mind is the abode then no matter whatever values are contained in a soul, it is certain that outside world can surely leave some impact into our minds and influence or modify our values.

By this continuous reflex of good thought good impressions moving over the surface of the mind, the tendency for doing good becomes strong and as a result we feel able to control the Indriayas (the sense organs, the nerve centres.) (Karma Yoga, p-40).

Some Human Values:

Human values are ideals that define or give meaning to our lives. Education is incomplete if we ignore the part played by such values. We read in the Bhagwat Gita again and again that we must all work incessantly.

All work is by nature composed of good and evil…. Good action will entail upon us good effect, bad action, bad. (Karma Yoga, p-38).

There is a chain of such values which are more or less connected. Love, truth and unselfishness, when we compare these values with hatred, lie and selfishness, then only one will get the real essence of these values.

Love, truth and selfishness are not merely moral figures of speech, but they form our highest ideals, because in them lies such a manifestation of power. (Karma Yoga, p-9).

Honesty is another value which is of utmost importance otherwise nobody can rely on you or trust you, “Honesty is a clear conscious, before myself and before my fellow human beings.” (Karma Yoga, p-16).

Honesty can further make a person pure and thus give birth to another value that is purity.
Meet a truly pure soul and they can walk right through you leaving no mark at all only a sense of light and optimism. (Inner Beauty, p-38).

Honesty and purity walk hand in hand as an honest person is always pure at heart and vice versa. Further when a person is pure and honest, then he always shows respect to others. As substantiated:

Respect is never catching anyone out, never pulling at their shortcomings so that they become a target for laughter. (Inner Beauty, p-61).

Now respect for others can only be there in a person if he has values of tolerance and contentment in him. A person who cannot sustain endurance can never be satisfied and so:

A tolerant person is like a tree with an abundance of fruits. (Living Values, p-45).

The value of tolerance and contentment teaches patience. “Sometimes patience makes you persist, to go on with, something you’d rather see finished.” (Inner Beauty, p-54). And this value of patience will definitely lead to self control. “This self control will tend to produce a mighty will or character which makes a Christ or a Bhuddha”. (Karma Yoga, p-10).

All these values form a courageous being.

They say less and do more and they never make promises for the courage in them knows that together with a high aim there has to be an intelligent mind that is able to move quietly one step at a time. (Inner Beauty, p-23).

If a person is courageous, he has abundance of self-confidence.

“Even areas of weakness don’t shake the mind because they are already under demolition”. (Inner Beauty, p-65). With confidence at its best, a person will surely have the virtue of accuracy which implies sharpness in everything. As Substantiated:

As accuracy is being in the right place at the right time, in moving from a position of quiet to a position of speech at the right time, moving from participation to withdrawal. (Inner Beauty, p-9).

And if a person is accurate, he knows it very well that he needs to co-operate with others, therefore the virtue of co-operation inevitably grows in a person. This accuracy also teaches him to be obedient as well as wise.

Communication of values:
If we examine our daily life, we will become aware that everything we do is an act of communication. We are sending messages, or, receiving them all day long. (www.love_in_human_nature.org)

Communication is a two way process which implies that the message sent from the sender to the receiver will be incomplete, unless or until it has not received any active feedback. Therefore when it comes to communication of human values, communication here too will be incomplete if the person has not actually felt the values. In other words human values that are communicated should be effective enough that they find some place within the human mind.

How can this be done?

Role Play as a medium of communication is the best reply to it.

Provided that the role play is well organized and operated, the participants invariably enjoy it, become involved in it and remember it long after they have forgotten much of the learning which they obtained in other ways. (Morry Van Ments, p-15).

Nowadays, most of the learning is being done with the help of activity based method. Teaching of morals directly are taken as moral lectures only and so Role Play is an activity where various aspects of the behaviours such as developing human values can be taken care of.

The major advantage of role play is the one it shares with all stimulating and gaming activities in that it is highly motivating and gives students simple, direct and rapid feedback on the effects of their actions. (Morry Van Ments, p-15).

To impart such values one needs set direction or a sequence so that one role enacted leads to the other and then to the next fixed role so that audiences or the role players are not left on to their own selves to draw conclusions. In this way the negative thoughts will not approach.

Advantages of one act play:

1. Role playing can become ineffective if people are unclear about what they are supposed to do. Any muddy thinking will have consequences. Be clear about the purpose. If you are assessing skills in a certain situation then the brief must reflect this. Now when it comes to other activities and situation where there are lots of technical details it provides a bolt hole for people who are skilled and pre-occupied in technicalities, when they should be focusing on structure, or process or behaviour. The exercise will keep its point and value if it avoids technical distractions.

2. If our purpose is to teach human values, our purpose is defined. Now it is a pre-requisite in a role play activity to assign enough information so that the entire communication process leads to a believable and relevant conversation. If the information is too little-
there won’t be enough to sustain a conversation and too much will surely make people swamped with information, most of which they either won’t need or won’t remember. Therefore one act play will suit best for the situation where our purpose is defined i.e. teaching human values.

3. It’s also observed that when people are given role play activities to perform individually, the candidates generally indulge into his or her personal thoughts which at times can produce harmful effects but if we take the help of one act play, here we have chain of events and there is no link to one particular thing, and there is not a general anger at everything. If role players are given open licence to just be angry or wicket, there needs to be a reason for it. Personal anger might create some personal attachment to such anger but when one act play takes place this anger is defined and linked with the chain of events. A well written brief will help to keep the role play focused and on the track.

4. When one’s peer group is involved in the role play activity, it becomes more like a shared, facilitative exercise and rather than a battle- which in turn will also defuse fears and tension. One act play has an advantage of confinement of time and therefore it is easier for everyone to know the play easily and then share feelings.

5. Generally forced teaching is taken as a moral lecture but when we have to impart human values, one act play can serve as highly beneficial learning activity where not only the participants but also the observers give their comments afterwards.

6. It is also observed that a role play activity should not contain subjective judgements or comments based on personal knowledge or assumptions. Feedback should be meaningful and specific- something that the role player can act on. One act play also satisfies this principle.

7. At times it is observed that individual role playing act had caused negative impact on the minds of the youth especially when they were assigned the roles of Vampire or a Magician as they find pleasures in the same. One act play has very successfully overcome this problem. Role play feedback isn’t helpful if it suggests that the role player should get a new personality or be nicer. We have a theme and the story line which is linked up with the series of event and so people act and involve oneself in the learning process.

Some illustrations from The Refund a one act play by Fritz Karinthy:
The Refund comprises only a few characters i.e. the principal, the mathematics, physics, history and geography masters and the protagonist, Wasserkopf .In order to communicate human values in this role play activity of one act play Wasserkopf mistakes act as a learning ground.

Mistake 1:
“The Principal- He’s waiting outside. He wants to be re-examined .He says he learned nothing. He says a re-examination will prove it.” (Agarwal, 352)
Wasserkopf has a negative value i.e. determination but in doing wrong things. He is ready to do anything just to prove that his school has taught him nothing and his knowledge is negligible.

Mistake 2:
“Wasserkopf: Who the hell are you? Sit down, you loafers!” (Agarwal, 353)

The protagonist’s address to his masters shows to the role players and the viewers that how important the values of respect and accuracy are. No doubts viewers especially students will laugh on such utterance but ultimately as the play advances further, this behaviour is mere mockery over the pupils who are always ready to blame others and the system. The mistake committed thus is linked up with the chain of events which finally leads to a moral teaching.

Mistake 3:
“Wasserkopf: You’d better brush up your wits if you think you’re going to put one over on me.” (Agarwal, 353)

Here the protagonist considers himself to be very wise. But in reality it is his mistake. True wisdom is shown in the form of the masters. They are insulted at the hands of this pupil as he addresses them as ‘old stick-in-the-mud, cannibal. Hypocrite, nitwit, ass etc but they show patience and self control in teaching him a lesson.

Mistake four:
Wasserkopf: How long did the thirty years war last? Was that the question?
The History Master: Yes, yes
Wasserkopf: [grinning] I know exactly seven meters…..
The History Master: Seven meters?Right! Your answer is excellent …!”(Agarwal, 353)

The accuracy of masters is shown in accepting all the wrong answers as the correct ones. It’s just to teach this ex-pupil a lesson that if can lie and tell the wrong answers and thus outsmart them, and then the masters also have brain.

Mistake 5:
“Wasserkopf- I was never serious in my life. Treat me wrong here and I’ll go straight to the ministry of education and complain about you! You took my money and you taught me nothing. Now I’m no good for anything, and I can’t do the things I should have learned at school.!” (Agarwal, 353)

These words will straight away leave an impact on the minds of the viewers that it is very easy to blame others. Wasserkopf never worked hard and he is fired from his job because of the same reason i.e. his inability to work hard.

Mistake 6:
“Wasserkopf- Grand total: 6,450 crowns 50 hellers. Knock off
The heller and call it crowns” (Agarwal, 353)
Well in the end of the play it is ultimately proved that no doubts this ex-pupil tried to prove that his school taught him nothing, but it’s only his education which made him capable enough to calculate the correct sum in a systematic way. Therefore Wasserkopf had to suffer due to his lies and corrupt values.

**Conclusion**

This paper has taken into consideration “Role Play” as a medium of communication to impart human values. “Role Play is a highly verbalized procedure”. (Ments, 19). Role play includes both verbal and non-verbal communication.

*The incentive to take part in a role play is high and by taking part, one is using language and other ways of communicating so that learning is an integral part of the task.* (Ments, 19).

And in order to follow the strategy of “learning through mistakes”, it has taken a one act play-“The Refund” by Fritz Karinthy in which the protagonist is an object of wrong doings and he commits all sorts of mistakes and finally has to give up in the hands of the principal and the professors. His mistakes act like a learning ground for the viewers and even the role players. It’s just like if one will do or act like this, one will surely suffer.

For the beginner it gives a logical sequence which ensures that each point is considered before too many assumptions are made. (Ments, 29).

**References**:


Fluency in Two or More Languages in Bilingual Education

Karunakaran Thrunavukkarasu, Ph.D. is a senior lecturer at University of Jaffna, Sri Lanka. He hold MA and MPhil (Linguistics) degrees from University of Kelaniya, Sri Lanka and PhD (ELT) from EFL University, Hyderabad, India. He also has a certificate in TESL from Toronto District school Board, Canada. He has over 12 years of experience of teaching and has taught English proficiency, ESP and communication courses. His research interests include borrowings, bilingualism and bilingual education.

Abstract: The bilingual practices adapted in many countries show that it is very viable to maintain the first language and the culture in multilingual and multiethnic societies. As the bilingual education ensures that one can assert his/her fundamental rights of language and culture, the countries which have language majorities and language minorities prefer to adapt bilingual education to make sure that language majorities and language minorities live in harmony and peace. This paper captures some of theoretical aspects of bilingual education and relates it to Sri Lankan context.

1. Introduction

The use of two languages is not uncommon in education. Mackey (1978) cited in Garcia (2009) points out that bilingual schooling is at least four to five thousand years old. Glyn Lewis (1977) cited in Garcia (2009) has portrayed how in the west, from the second century onward, Greek-Latin bilingual education was the way to educate boys from Roman aristocratic homes who were supposed to study the languages of the admired Hellenic civilization. All through the history, two languages have been used to teach the prestigious social and religious groups. Nevertheless, people gave a scholarly attention to bilingual education in the half of the twentieth century (Garcia, 2009). Baker (1993) cited in Garcia (2009) is of the opinion that the term ‘bilingual education’ is used to refer to the education of the students who are already speakers of two languages, and at other times to the education of those who are learning additional languages.

2. Beneficiaries of Bilingual Education

Bilingual education is good for all, that is say, language majorities, and language minorities will benefit by bilingual education tremendously. Garcia (2009:11) views education “an education that is bilingual is good for the rich and the poor, for the powerful and/or lowly, for indigenous peoples and immigrants, for speakers of official and/or national languages, and for those who speak regional languages. Bilingual education is not only good for children in gifted and talented programs but also good for children in vocational and technical education, as well as for those in special education”. It is proved that bilingual education is also beneficial for adults in lifelong language learning situations, since bilingual individuals enjoy cognitive and social advantages over monolinguals (Garcia, 2009). Fishman (1986:47) cited in Garcia (2009:12) also endorses the above fact: “In a multilingual world, it is obviously more efficient and rational to be
multilingual than not, and not truism increasingly applies to the whales, as well as the minnows”. Even if the state and particular ethno-linguistic groups may benefit collectively from bilingual education, the value of bilingual education is in what it gives to children, youths and adults in general. Bilingual education embodies a potential which brings in transformative school practices and which educates all children in ways that emulate and develop their intellect and imagination to different ways of expression and access in the world (Garcia, 2009).

There has been a common notion that school text needs to be written in a language or a register different from that spoken by the school children. It is observed that teachers, irrespective of whether they are bilingual themselves or not, teach in a language other than the one the children use to talk with each other. The goal of schooling has been generally connected to the oscillation between the language practices of the home and community and those of the sacred and classical texts learnt in school (Garcia, 2009). Bilingual education has come into its own from the second half of the twentieth century, as schools have identified the heterogeneity of children, and, concurrently, positions and ideologies towards bilingualism in school change in different contexts, even at the same historical juncture (Garcia, 2009). Ruiz (1984) cited in Garcia (2009) has talked about a framework that is used to examine different language orientations: 1) language as a problem, 2) language as a right and 3) language as a resource.

3. Bilingual Education as a Problem

We are supposed to use lens of language orientations to deal with the geopolitical forces that have promoted one or another perspective on bilingualism, and, henceforth, bilingual education is very essential for the masses, because “modernist development ideological frameworks that imagined, constructed, and narrated a “nation-state” into being in one language, and thus considered bilingualism to be a problem” (Garcia, 2009:14). Subsequent to the worldwide economic downfall of the 1970s, and the ensuing widening of social inequity made the authorities acknowledge the fact that modernization had failed and that decolonization did not sufficiently translate into self-determination or sovereignty (Pepper, 1996; Tsai, 2005 cited in Garcia, 2009). The ability of state’s bilingual education policies to transform citizens and societies anticipated by the theories of modernization was questioned. The vital role the socio-historical process played in shaping particular forms of bilingual education, and in particular the role of class, ethnicity, race, language and gender in such shaping, was given much attention (Skutnabb-Kangas and Phillipson, 1994; Tollefson, 1991, 2002; Wiley, 1996b, 1999; Wright, 2002 cited in Garcia, 2009).

4. Bilingual Education as a Right

Garcia (2009:15) critically comments on the issues of bilingual education as a right:

“Some forms of bilingual education, especially transitional bilingual education, were increasingly criticized, as language minorities claimed their language rights and developed their
own forms of bilingual schooling. Language minorities who had lost their home languages developed bilingual education programs that supported the revitalization of these languages. Other language minorities who felt threatened linguistically were able to set up programs to develop their home language.”

With regard to language right, Ricento (2000:208) cited in Garcia (2009:15) says “it seems that the key variable which separates the older, positivistic/technicist approaches from the newer critical/postmodern ones is agency, that is, the role(s) of individuals and collectivities in the processes of language use, attitude, and ultimately policies”. Language difference is treated more and more as a right that has to be negotiated and language minorities have begun getting agency in shaping their own language policies and practices in the education of their children (Skutnabb-Kangas, 2000).

At the end of Cold War, the development of globalization, and the growing role of international organizations made the movement of peoples accelerate and threatened the sovereignty of states in the twenty-first century. Due to the increasing awareness of other languages, and the dominance of English, bilingual education has taken yet another turn. Now, it is growing without the direct interference of the state, and a much more dynamic language use (Garcia, 2009). With respect to bilingual education or multilingual education for all in the globe, UNECO (2003:17-18) cited in Garcia (2009:15) emphasizes the vitality of both the global and the national and declared:

The requirements of global and national participation and the specific needs of particular, culturally and linguistically distinct communities can only be addressed by multilingual education. In regions where the language of the learner is not the official or national language of the country, bilingual and multilingual education can make mother tongue instruction possible while providing at the same time the acquisition of languages used in larger areas of the country and the world.

UNESCO (2003:30) cited in Garcia (2009:15-16) also stresses three basic guiding principles which not only focus on the mother tongue but also on the intercultural multilingual education for all:

1) Mother tongue interaction as a means of improving educational quality by building upon the knowledge and experience of the learners and teachers;

2) Bilingual and/or multilingual education at all levels of education as a means of promoting both social and gender equality and as a key element of linguistically diverse societies;

3) Language as an essential component of inter-cultural education in order to encourage understanding between different population groups and ensure respect for fundamental rights.
5. Bilingual Education as a Resource

The biggest change in the globalized community of the twenty first century is the blurring of territory that was unequivocally demarcated by language and culture. Even though many territories were provided the appearance of being homogeneous, we are aware of the linguistic intricacies of the world where monolingual schooling seems to be inappropriate. All in all, language differences are observed as a source, and bilingual education, in all its complexity and forms, appears to be the only way to educate the children. When we consider bilingual education as a right or as a resource, we need to pay attention to language ideologies and identity. Nationalist ideologies throughout the world link the language to identity unidimensionally. Wright (2004:44) cited in Garcia (2009:82) gives several examples:

Kurdish speakers in Turkey, Iran, Iraq and Syria are still battling for the right to use their language. Macedonian speakers have been recently prosecuted by the Greek state. Russian speakers in Estonia are denied citizenship until they acquire some competence in Estonian. […] The English only Movement in the United States employs these arguments. The Conseil Constitutionnel in France did so recently too.

In the rootlessness that has come about as result of globalization, language and identity occupied the center stage. Aspects of identity beyond attitudes have become foregrounded in the study of bilingualism: emotions, performance, anxiety, personality, and social influence (Dorian, 1999; Liebkind, 1999; Pavenko, 2005, 2006 cited in Garcia, 2009). So far as the postcolonial identity is concerned, it not only involves sameness but by extension otherness and the development of hybrid identities that entail plural language practices. In view of hybrid identity, Holt and Gabbins(2002:2) cited in Garcia(2009:83) says “an attention to link or acknowledge the past in the light of a different cultural environment rather than a mark of disloyalty”. Sri Lanka is a nation which was a colony under British rule and former presidents of the state also reverted their language policies in favour of British and American agencies. One way of showing their respect and loyalty was to go back to English medium education which makes the people adopt some lifestyles of the British and American people, as language learning is inseparable from the culture (Mickan, 2006). The construction of state multiple and hybrid identities rest on multiple factors beyond language, such as race, social class, age generation, social orientation, geopolitical situation and institutional affiliation(Bhabha,1990;Pavenko and blackledge,2004 cited in Garcia,2009). According to Cummins (2000, 2009), identity is very essential in bilingual education, as negotiation of identity is seen as the most significant principle when teaching language to minority students. The study of language ideologies focuses on socio-historical, sociopolitical, and socioeconomic conditions that influence the production and social meaning in relationship to language and to discourses. The social situation could prevent individuals from accessing certain linguistic resources or adopting new identities (Heller, 1982, 1995; Pavenko, 2002; Woolard, 1998 cited in Garcia, 2009). The choice of language available to children and parents, as well as the discursive practices which are encouraged and promoted in school has a
great impact on children’s identity and their possibilities of developing agency or resisting. Hence, bilingual education models and pedagogies need to take into account the more hybrid identities of the students, as bilingual students are situated in specific social, historical, and cultural situations, and they can result or accept the position given by those contexts (Norton and Toohey, 2001 cited in Garcia, 2009). In the case of Sri Lanka, the hybrid identities have not been articulated in the national charter of the country. Two indigenous languages, Tamil and Sinhala, have been given status in the charter. Malay which is now spoken by some younger and older members of the Malay community has been left out in the charter, and as a result the identity of Malays is lost in the country. In the current model of bilingual practice in the island, there is no room to incorporate Malay in the program, as the focus of the model is to enable students to raise their English proficiency while learning their native language.

1. Maintenance Bilingual Model and its Implications in Sri Lanka

A bilingual identity constitutes just one dimension of the many that make up a child’s identity—their gender, social class, ethnicity, race, nationality, community. But, without the added dimension of bilingualism, some of these identities will never be constructed, developed and represented. It is quite obvious that bilingual children benefit from a greater range of expression and more freedom in construction or performing. When we analyze the advantages of the maintenance bilingual program practiced in the state-based schools in Sri Lanka, it provides enormous confidence to the students to speak and write in two languages creatively and effectively. The ability to communicate diversely in more than one language is very essential in the present day globalised world which is very much sophisticated and which is tied up with multiple relationships. Because technology has brought the world closer and enables global instantaneous interactions, the ability of children to speak, read and write in multi-discursive fashion is an increasingly prominent commodity in the present world’s social, political, and economic development. Particularly, in Sri Lankan context the maintenance bilingual program enables the children to face the challenges that will come in future. In this model, children enhance their knowledge in English to a larger extent and continue to acquire the skills in their native language concurrently. This model, by and large, helps the children to attain social development, particularly in the multicultural setting as seen in Sri Lanka.

In Sri Lanka, Sinhalese, Tamils, Malays, and Burgers are living and the maintenance bilingual model helps the children to use English to communicate with the people from different ethnic groups in the island. Of course, the current model permits to preserve the culture and the language of two ethnic groups, Tamil and Sinhala. English, as a lingua-franca, bridges the gap between different ethnic groups. This model, unfortunately, is practiced in some select state-owned schools. The government of Sri Lanka gave permission to some schools to practice the maintenance bilingual model. The big hindrance to implement this model in all the schools across the island is shortage of competent teachers in English. Many teachers have knowledge in the respective subjects, but their competency in English is not adequate to teach the content area.
in English. In the case of Jaffna where Tamil, the language of minorities, is used for daily communication, the students use English occasionally, when they interact with other, particularly outside the school. This results in some notions that children would find it difficult to acquire English in the monolingual speech community, as language learning is determined in terms of environment and culture where the target language is operated constantly (Mickan, 2006). But, a large number of children in Jaffna have proved that they could learn English in monolingual speech community. This is because of their motivation and attitude they have shown in acquiring English. There are instances where high motivation and attitude of the learners would get over the sociolinguistic and socio-cultural factors (Hakuta, 1993).

**Conclusion**

It is apparent that bilingual education helps us to preserve our identity in a multilingual society like Sri Lanka. Bilingual education certainly leads to biliteracy that integrates the multiethnic and multicultural communities and that results in peaceful co-existence of different ethnic groups in a country. In Sri Lanka, the maintenance bilingual education brought in some positive impact on the different language speaking communities of the island. Anyway, we need to monitor the progress of the bilingual practices carefully in order to find out the shortcomings of such practices and then the pertinent solutions should be proposed to offer more inclusive bilingual programs.

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Matters.

TIME AND TENSE: A CRITICAL REVIEW OF LITERATURE

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ABSTRACT: This paper reviews the research carried out in the area of Time and Aspect of English by well known grammarians. According to Huddelston and Pullum, English has two-dimensional systems of temporal reference which comprises the categories of primary tense and secondary tense. Primary tenses express the distinction between past and present time. For example, "He went to school" contains a verb in the preterite tense (went). In "He goes to school" the tense of the verb is present (cf. Huddleston and Pullum 2002: 116).

Quirk et al (1973) classifies verbs as lexical verbs and auxiliary verbs. All auxiliary verbs are divided into primary and modal. Tense is taken to express time and aspect is taken to express manner. They also talk about a distinction between dynamic and stative verbs.

Zandvoort (1962) talks of neutral present, iterative present and actual present. Past also has iterative meaning. Perfect is divided as continuative, resultative and experiential perfect, on the basis of meaning.

Leech and Svartvik (1975) talk of present state, present event, present habit, temporary present, temporary habit. Present perfect is divided into resultative, indefinite, habitual and stative.

INTRODUCTION

A Second learner of the English language has to struggle with many tasks concerning vocabulary and grammar. The correct usage of the verb comprises proper understanding of the grammatical categories of time, tense, and aspect. This paper attempts a brief review of the concepts discussed by eminent grammarians namely, Quirk et al, Rodney Huddleston & Geoffrey K. Pullum, R.W. Zandvoort, Geoffrey Leech and Jan Svartvik. Tense is used to express the location of an event or state in time, which can be divided into future, present and past. On the other hand, aspect expresses the way in which the action or the state is experienced.
Quirk et al (1973)

Quirk et al classify verbs as lexical verbs and auxiliary verbs. Auxiliary verbs are again divided into primary and modal. Lexical verbs are the main verbs and the Auxiliary verbs are the helping verbs. And tense expresses the universal time through verbal form that is past, present and future. Aspect concerns the manner in which the verbal action is experienced and also shows whether the action is completed or not completed. Example:

a. Robin wrote the letter yesterday.
b. While Robin was writing the letter, the postman came.

In (a) the lexical verb *wrote* shows Robin’s writing the letter was completed in the past, whereas in (b) he thinks that the situation had started and was in the middle when the postman’s arrival took place. They explain this concept showing the variations of tense and aspect markers such as -ed, -es, will/shall which are used to indicate past, present and future tense and the progressive marker -ing and the perfective marker -en to indicate aspect. The progressive marker remains stable, irrespective of the forms of lexical verbs to which it is always affixed. It is -ing added to the base of both regular and irregular lexical verbs except modals (shall, will, etc) which are not inflected.

The perfective marker is generally realized as -ed, and there are several other variations. The future tense is not marked inflectionally like the past and the present third person and singular number. Instead, it is formed by means of a periphrasis, namely shall/will followed by the base form of verb. The future markers *shall* and *will* are called modals, as they in addition to indicating future tense, also serve to express modalities like intention, permission, promise and so on.

Quirk et al also speak about the uses of dynamic and stative verbs, since some verbs are sometimes stative and sometimes dynamic in regard to whether they refer to stative or dynamic situations. Stative verbs are not usually used in the progressive tenses such as *be*, *seem*, and *like* etc. Example:

Sheela likes her parents.
Here we cannot get a progressive form because we are referring to a state of mind, not a process.

Dynamic verbs are used in the progressive tense such as eat, grow and so on. Example:

She is eating a banana.

However, there are situations where *be* is used as non-stative verb. Example:
Sheela is being a good girl today. (*is behaving well*)

The above analysis shows the use of verb forms to indicate tense: past, present, future and the progressive marker -ing and the perfective marker -en to indicate aspects in English.

The past participle form of verbs is used to express perfective aspect and also in passive constructions. For example:

She has written a book.
This novel has been written by her.

It is also used sometime in an adjectival construction:
Mashed potato is easier to eat.


Huddleston and Pullum emphasize on the verbal systems of tense, aspect and mood, which are marked inflectionally, or analytically by auxiliaries. Tense is used to locate the situation or period of time. The two terms in the tense system are present tense and perfect tense. Example:

a) She *went* to school Preterit vs. present
b) She *goes* to school

a) He may *have known* herPerfect vs. non-perfect
b) He may *know* her

The verb forms in the sentences refer to past and present time. The present perfect involves two tenses: past and non-past. Example:

I have read only two of the books.

Both *have* and *read* are verbs by themselves and they carry respective tense selections
*have* is non-past and *read* is past.

Here Huddleston and Pullum are of the view that all occurrences of the auxiliary *have* are underlying past tenses. They argue that the terms past, present and future refer to certain parts of time itself. They are relational notions. For example:
a) He **died** of lung cancer. (past time)
b) I **promise** to let you have it back tomorrow. (present time)
c) If you **see** her tomorrow give her my best regards. (future time)

In (a) the time of dying is past and it is understood as a time earlier than now, than the time when I utter the sentence. There are two terms in the relation as the *time referred to*, symbolized ‘tr’, and the time of orientation, symbolized ‘to’.

In (a) ‘tr’ is the time of dying, ‘to’ is the time of utterance, and the relation is **earlier than** or **anterior to**. In (b), ‘tr’ is the time of promising, ‘to’ again the time of utterance and the relation is **simultaneous with**. In (c), ‘tr’ is the time of your seeing her, ‘to’ the time of utterance and the relation is **later than** or **posterior to**.

The above statement can be symbolized as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Relation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Past</td>
<td>Tr anterior to To</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present</td>
<td>Tr simultaneous with To</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future</td>
<td>Tr posterior to To</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Present Tense is used to indicate occurrence and state. Example:

a) I promise to let you have it back tomorrow. (Occurrence)
b) I live in Berlin. (State)

In (a) the time of promising coincides with the time of speaking. In (b), the situation is referring to the present time. The time does not show when it began or how long it will continue.

**Perfect Tense**

Perfect Tense **expresses a present state resulting from past action**. Example:

He is believed to have written it last week.

The following are the manifestation of perfect tense:

(a) **Present Perfect**

The basic meaning of the present perfect is described as referring to past with present relevance of a previous situation. The following are the four major uses of the present perfect.
i) the continuative perfect
ii) the experiential perfect
iii) the resultative perfect
iv) the perfect of recent past

(i.) Continuative Perfect
It is used to indicate a situation that begins in the past, continues up to the present and may extent into the future. Example:

She has lived in Berlin ever since she married.

(ii) The experiential perfect:
The present perfect may refer to some event that has taken place at least once in a period leading up to the present. For Example;

We have now walked ten miles.

(iii) The Resultative Perfect
The present Perfect in English refers to a past event, the result of which still exists at the present time. Example:

She has broken her leg.

(v) The perfect of recent past
The present perfect indicates a situation completed in the recent past. Example:

Harsha has just gone out.

(b) Past perfect
It refers to a time further in the past, seen from the viewpoint of a definite point of time already in the past. For Example:

Harsha had lived in London for ten years. (When I met him).

In the indirect speech, if the reporting verb is in the past, the verb of the reported speech which in the simple present is changed into the simple past. It is called back-shift. Example:

He said, “I like it.” = He said that he liked it.

(c) Progressive Aspect
Progressive aspect is marked with the periphrastic form: be -ing. Example;

Harsha is singing now.
R.W. Zandvoort (1957)
Zandvoort speaks about ‘tense’ as that which denotes two verbal forms (past and present) and an equal number of verbal groups (perfect and future) whose main function is to denote the ‘time’ at which an action takes place. Example:

Harsha is playing (Present)
Harsha played (Past)
Harsha will play (Future)

Simple Present

The simple present in English mainly is used in three ways (Zandvoort: 1962: 59)
(i) Neutral Present
(ii) Iterative Present
(iii) Actual Present

(a) Neutral Present: The neutral refers to the state which extends into past and future without any limitations of time. Hence Leech (1971:1) and Qurik et al. (1972: 85) term it “the unrestricted use of the simple present”. It includes eternal truths. Scientific statements and other similar states. Example:

The Ganga flows from the Himalayas.
Water boils at 100oc.
We live in Sweden.

However, the unspecified duration of the situation can be specified by adding adverbials of time to this. Example:

At present we live in Australia.

(b) Iterative present: The habitual or iterative present refers to a situation that can be successfully repeated at intervals within a period of time. For example:

I get up at six every day.
This paper appears twice a week.

(c) Actual present
Actual present is to indicate a state or action in the present. Example:

The manager wants to speak to you.

The simple present also is used to indicate the future or the past. Example:

I start work tomorrow.
Robin tells me that you have been abroad (….has told…)

As indicated earlier, the simple present is used to describe past events. Example:

He just walks into the room and sits down in front of the fire without saying any word to anyone.(Historic present)

This type of narration is used to create rhetorical effects.

**Simple Past**

The simple past is used to indicate the past events. Example:

I met her yesterday.

In this regard, the present perfect also refers to the past events without a definite reference to the past. Example:

I have just met her.

In both sentences, the meeting took place in the past, but in the former one the time is specified i.e. yesterday.

The simple past may be used with habitual or iterative meaning. Example:

I saw her every day.

However, there is a separate habitual aspect in English (though only in the past tenses) with the construction used to + inf. Example:

I used to see her every day.

**Perfect tense**

It is used to indicate an action that falls within the time -sphere of the present. Example:

I have already eaten.

The present perfect has the following uses such as:
a) Continuative perfect
Perfect is used to indicate a situation that begins in the past, continues up to the present and may extend into the future. Example:

We’ve lived here for ten years.

(a) Resultative perfect
It refers to past events, the result of which still exists at the present time. Example:

I have bought a new T.V.

In this sentence, buying a T.V took place in the past, but its effect still exists. The resultative perfect does not need any adverbial of time.

(b) Experiential perfect
It refers to some event that has taken place at least once in a period leading up to the present. Example:

Mr. Varma has been to Japan.

Geoffrey Leech and Jan Svartvik (1975)
Geoffrey Leech and Jan Svartvik talk about time, tense and aspect. Verbs may refer to an event or to a state.

(a) Event verb
An event verb shows a definite beginning and end. Example:

He became unconscious.

(b) State verb
A state verb does not have well-defined beginning and end. Example:

He remained unconscious.

Present time
The following are the main ways of referring to something which occurs at the present time.

(a) Present state (the simple present tense). Example:

She is hungry.

(c) Present event (the simple present tense). Example:
He declares the meeting closed.

In this sentence, an event has begun and ended at the moment of speech.

(d) **Present Habit** (the simple present tense). Example:
I walk every day in the morning.
It shows an event that is repeated every day.

(d). **Temporary present** (the present progressive). Example:
My brother is living in a rented house. (temporarily)

(e) **Temporary Habit** (the present progressive). Example:
She is walking to work while her kinetic is being repaired.

It shows a temporary habit *walking* ...............  

**Past time**
It refers to past actions. Example:

I read your book yesterday.
Her father suffered from T.B. all his life. (i.e. he is now dead)

**Present perfect**
Present perfect has the following uses.

a) **Resultative Perfect**
It refers to a past event with results in the present time. Example:

His leg has been broken. (i.e. it is still not healed)

b) **Indefinite Event**
It is used to indicate an indefinite situation. Example:

Have you ever been to France?

c) **Habitual Perfect**
It refers to a habit in a period leading up to the present time. Example:

She has played at a Wimbledon since she was eighteen.
d) Stative Perfect
It refers to a state upto the present time. Example:

The supermarket how long has it been open?

Perfect progressive
The perfect progressive deals with present and past. Example:

She has been writing a letter. (Present perfect)
She had been writing a letter. (Past perfect)

According to Leech and Svartvik, in some contexts, the present perfect and the present perfect progressive are interchangeable.

Robin has looked after the business for several years.
Robin has been looking after the business for several years.

To conclude, this paper has attempted to present the work done by grammarians on different aspects of tense, time and aspect in English.

References
The Impact of Oral Retelling and Summary Writing Techniques on Iranian Upper Intermediate EFL Learners' Reading Comprehension

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Abstract: This study was an attempt to find out whether instruction of two strategies of oral retelling and summary writing has any effect on reading comprehension ability of Iranian EFL learners. The study was conducted on upper intermediate female students in an English language institute in Iran. To accomplish the purpose of the study, the researcher chose a sample of 120 subjects, which were reduced to 90 homogenous students. Then, the subjects were randomly assigned to two experimental and one control groups. Subjects in these groups were given a pretest at the beginning of the semester. In the following sessions, the students in the oral retelling group were trained in using this strategy along with seven texts, while the students in the other experimental group practiced summary writing strategy with the same texts. At the same time, the students in the control group were taught the same texts using a conventional method. The results of one way ANOVA indicated a significant difference between all these groups. On the other hand, the resultant values of post hoc multiple comparison of means proved that oral retelling strategy has been more effective compared with summary writing and conventional method of teaching the reading comprehension.

Keywords: Oral Retelling, Summary Writing, Reading strategy, Conventional method

1. Introduction

Chastain (1988) considers reading as a process which involves the activation of relevant knowledge and related language skills in order to accomplish an exchange of information from one person to another. Rather than analyzing complex units into small propositions, comprehension process consists of synthesizing simple propositions into larger conceptual units (Bransford & Franks, 1971). Askari and Ahmadian (2011) believe that comprehension is the center of reading. They add that reading comprehension requires making meaning from words when reading. Good readers try to use their experiences and their prior knowledge in order to make sense of the words seen in the text. On the other hand, Meyer, Brandt and Bluth (1980) emphasize that students using text structure to guide their reading show better recall both qualitatively and quantitatively. L2 readers often lack of appropriate cultural schemata, so they
prefer to use formal schemata rather than cultural one, a skeleton on which they build further structures in their construction of meaning (Meyer et al., 1980).

For dealing with various kinds of problems readers are encountered during the comprehension process, Askari and Ahmadian (2011) confirm that active and direct strategy training is a beneficial tool in order to help them. On the other hand, since strategy selection is a deliberate attempt on the part of the reader (Paris, Lipson, & Wixson, 1983) before self selection of a strategy by readers, strategy instruction would be a useful tool.

Although it may be challenging for teachers to practice these strategies in the traditional way; it is worthwhile because this kind of teaching is the most effective one. Above all, it is important to mention that after a relatively short time of reading comprehension instruction students become self regulated readers. Explicit strategy instruction as part of the overall curriculum appears to be a promising procedure to get this process off to a good start (Sporer, Brunstein, & Kieschke, 2009).

Two strategies which are the focus of the current study are retelling in oral format and summary writing. Research on the effects of retelling-based reading programs showed that retelling could be considered as an effective tool for helping the readers to maximize their comprehension of the text (Cullinan, Harwood, & Galad, 1983; Gambrell, Koskinen, & Kapinus, 1991). As Lin (2010) stated, during the process of retelling, the students rely on rehearsing the contents and retrieving personal experience.

Summarization strategy can be considered as another useful tool for enhancing students' reading comprehension ability. Oded and Walters (2001) considered the role two strategies of summary writing and listing details play on EFL learners’ comprehension ability. As the result of their study showed, the qualitative processing required in selecting the main ideas and organizing them in a summary was expected to lead to greater comprehension. The task of listing details, being an irrelevant or distracting task for overall comprehension, was expected to result in poorer comprehension (Oded & Walters, 2001).

According to Garner (1982), during reading the text, effective summarizers probably streamline the information as successfully as possible. They try to store and retrieve the summaries as new texts whenever it is necessary.

1.1 The Significance of the Study

Unfortunately, many second or foreign language teachers assume the students have mastered reading skills previously. In fact, during the reading courses, the students are tested rather than be trained. Obviously, due to the overwhelming cognitive load of comprehending the texts, most students are confronted a lot of difficulties in deciphering the sentences (De Quiros, 2008).
Therefore, they should be trained those reading strategies that prepare them to overcome those constraints which may affect their performance during the comprehension process.

This study highlighted the important role of using two reading comprehension strategies of retelling in oral format and summary writing on EFL students in general and students studying reading courses in Iran in particular. More importantly, it offers the theoretical basis for the application of these two reading strategies in EFL classrooms.

By doing so, a lot of difficulties students encounter in reading courses especially in university levels in ESP and EAP classes may be solved.

1.2 Review of the Related Literature

1.2.1 Oral Retelling Strategy

It is generally acknowledged that there is an important link between oral language and reading comprehension. One aspect of oral language deals with the effect of verbal rehearsal upon text comprehension (Koskinen, Gambrell, Kapinus, & Heathington, 1988).

Starting point for retelling and its effects goes back to memory issue (Lin, 2010). Kintsch (2004) assumed that the reader can grasp the information through the text by accessing his or her prior knowledge and interpreting the texts by retrieving knowledge existing in his or her memory. So according to this model teachers can facilitate comprehension process by providing learning experiences that induce the students to interpret and reconstruct the text during and after his or her reading.

The retelling technique has been used as an instructional tool to improve students’ reading comprehension. Some researchers examined the effects of retelling strategy on different aspects of language proficiency and found that there were significant differences in the effects of the retelling technique on kindergarten and elementary school students. For example in some research studies (Morrow, 1985, 1986; Pellegrini & Galad, 1982) when retelling followed listening to stories, kindergarten children significantly improved their ability to recall more story elements, enhanced their sense of story structure, and increased the complexity of their oral language. French (1988) used story retelling as an instructional procedure in the language arts program for approximately eight years and found that elementary school students retained important information after retelling. In addition, retelling significantly increased elementary school students’ comprehension of text-based propositions (Gambrell, Koskinen, & Kapinus, 1991; Gambrell, Pfeiffer, & Wilson, 1985). In a comparative study, Gambrell et al. (1991) pointed out that both skilled and less skilled readers who engaged in retelling did better on comprehension tasks after four rounds of retelling practice. More recently, retelling has been used in the United States in the field of content reading. Taken together, these earlier studies
suggested that engaging students in retelling what they have read improve reading comprehension of texts.

In the field of ESL/EFL, retelling is recommended as an instructional tool to increase students' composition ability (Stewig, 1985), improve learners’ oral proficiency (Hurley, 1986), and enhance ESL students’ writing skills (Hu, 1995).

In an effort, Gambrell et al. (1991) stated that children ought to be exposed to all kinds of good literature and prose, especially since teachers do most of the talking in the classroom. In their study, they emphasized how retelling makes the reader focus on the story as a whole.

Having observed the previous studies related to the effectiveness of retelling strategy, it is confirmed that a few of them have been done in EFL/ESL contexts. The most significant research in this field is that one done by Lin (2010).

This study examined the impact of the retelling technique on English reading comprehension of 126 Chinese students from a Taiwanese university. Sixty five students were assigned to the experimental group and sixty one to the control group. Both groups received the same learning content, but the technique differed; the experimental group had the retelling technique, while the control group had conventional techniques. The results showed that retelling significantly improved the participants’ text comprehension at the level of overall meaning. However, retelling did not improve the ability of participants to remember details of expository texts.

1.2.2 Related Research on Summary Writing

In a lot of studies, beneficial effects of summarization strategy over other kinds of strategies have been demonstrated (Bean & Steenwyk, 1984; Cunningham, 1982; Mc Neil & Donant, 1982). In fact, Summarization assignments are among the most commonly used tasks at fostering comprehension of texts written in a second or foreign language. A considerable body of research examining the impact of summary assignments on language learner reading comprehension ability has demonstrated that summarization tasks can greatly enhance reading and understanding of written texts.

Through their study, Rinehart, Stahl and Erickson (1986) reported the direct and indirect effects of a summarization training program on the reading and studying skills of 70 sixth grade students. Their findings confirmed the efficacy of this program. This kind of training improved recall of major information indirectly, and was an effective tool for improving reading and studying skills.

Duke and Pearson (2002) listed a series of strategies work better for effective comprehension. Through this list, summarization was introduced as a strategy not only improves students’ ability to summarize the text, but also their overall comprehension of the text content. Thus instruction
in summarization can be considered to meet dual purposes: to improve students’ ability to summarize text and to improve their ability to comprehend the text and recall.

According to Kirkland and Saunders (1991), however; summary assignments are highly complex task activities involving various internal and external constraints which can impose an overwhelming cognitive load on text summarizers. As a matter of fact, producing a well-prepared summary requires not only linguistic knowledge, but most importantly, involves specific thinking processes and cognitive and metacognitive skills and strategies.

Consequently, in some other studies the beneficial effects of some other strategies such as argument tasks have been demonstrated over summary writing. For example, Wiley and Voss (1999) found that American students who read multiple texts concerning the history of Ireland in order to write arguments gained deeper text comprehension and produced more transformed and integrated essays than did students who read the same texts in order to write summaries. These findings were largely replicated by Naumann, Wechsung, and Krems (2009) with German students reading another set of multiple history texts. Likewise, Le Bigot and Rouet (2007) found that French students instructed to write arguments based on texts about different aspects of social influence produced essays with more transformed information than did students instructed to write summaries about the same topic.

In contrast to such findings, Gil, Braten, Vidal-Abarca, and Stramsa (2010) presented evidence that summary tasks in some instances may be more facilitative than argument tasks. In their experiment on eighty seven first year psychology undergraduate students at a large public university in eastern Spain, they found that Spanish participants who wrote summaries after reading seven texts about climate change obtained higher scores on questionnaires measuring both superficial and deep text comprehension then those who wrote argument essays.

Finally, there are some findings not showing any significant differences between students reading multiple texts in order to construct arguments and students reading in order to summarize information. Thus, in Le Bigot and Rouet (2007) study, it was found that students in the argument task condition performed equally well on a multiple-choice comprehension questionnaire as did students in the summary condition.

1.3 Research Questions and Hypotheses

The major objective of this study was to make a comparison between the effects of oral retelling and summary writing techniques on Iranian EFL learners’ reading comprehension ability. On the other hand, the researcher verified the effects of each of them with traditional conventional method of teaching reading comprehension.
To accomplish the purpose of the study, the current research addressed the following questions:

Q1) Does oral retelling strategy have any significant effect on reading comprehension of EFL learners compared with conventional method of teaching the reading comprehension?

Q2) Does summary writing strategy have any significant effect on reading comprehension of EFL learners compared with conventional method of teaching the reading comprehension?

Q3) Are there any significant differences between the results of the instruction based on oral retelling strategy and those which are summary writing based?

Q4) Are there any significant differences between the results of the instruction based on oral retelling strategy, those which are summary writing based, and those which are conventional based?

To find the most reasonable answer to the research questions, the researcher proposed the following null hypotheses:

H01) Oral retelling strategy has no significant effect on EFL learners’ reading comprehension compared with conventional method.

H02) Summary writing strategy has no significant effect on EFL learners’ reading comprehension ability compared with conventional method.

H03) There are no significant differences between the results of the instruction based on oral retelling strategy, and those which are summary writing based.

H04) There are no significant differences between the results of the instruction based on oral retelling, those which are summary writing based, and those which are conventional based.

2. Methodology

2.1 Participants

Ninety female students taking upper intermediate level English classes in an English language institute in Iran were selected. The participating students’ age range was between 21 and 26, with an overall mean age of 23.5.

2.2 Design

Among several designs, the one which seemed to fit best the purpose of the present research was a quasi-experimental. In the present study there was no random selection, and the subjects were selected according to the results of the CELT test at the beginning of the treatment. Then, they were randomly assigned to three groups; one control and two experimental ones. All these three
groups were taught by the researcher herself. Furthermore, pre and post tests were administered one week before and after the treatment.

2.3 Instrumentation

Teaching Materials: For the first phase of the training which contained teaching of these two strategies, the students were exposed to two passages of comparable length (416 and 422 words) from "Active Skills for Reading: Book 4" by Anderson (2008).

For the second phase of treatment, the subjects were provided with five more passages of comparable length (541-601 words) from the same book in order to practice the strategies at hand by themselves.

Testing Materials: Three testing instruments were used in the present study. The first one was a Comprehensive English Language Test (CELT), administered as a reliable and standard criterion to 120 students in an English language institute in Iran including three sections: structure, 60 items; vocabulary, 70 items; and reading comprehension, 20 items.

The second test for measuring the comprehension ability of the students before applying the treatment was an English reading comprehension pretest designed and administered to these three groups. This test consisted of two English passages of comparable length (571 and 574 words) along with twenty multiple choice items.

The third one was a posttest with two reading texts (536 and 614 words) and above mentioned items of reading comprehension, which was similar to the pretest with the same difficulty level.

Necessary time for each pre and post was 60 minutes for all groups.

2.4. Procedure

In order to conduct the research to verify the research hypotheses, the following steps were taken:

As a primary step, a standard proficiency test (CELT) was administered to 120 subjects in an English language institute in Iran, and those subjects who scored one standard deviation above and below the mean were selected as homogeneous ones; 90 students in this study. These 90 students were randomly assigned to two experimental and one control groups. Then, the students took a pretest before receiving any treatment and a posttest after the period of instruction. In fact, pre and post tests were administered one week before and after the intervention program.

Seven passages along with relevant questions in the form of a pamphlet were covered in this course of study, two texts for first step of the treatment that the students were exposed to explicit instruction of the strategies at hand, and five texts for second phase of the treatment that the students were asked to have more practice of the strategies.
At the beginning of first session, the teacher read one text that the students had been provided in their pamphlets, and they were asked to listen to the story retold orally by the teacher. The teacher emphasized the rules that they were required to use in order to make their oral retellings as effective as possible.

In second experimental group, the researcher gave them a definition of summary writing and the participants were informed they should have the rules and guidelines in their mind for providing good and effective summaries.

The same text used for the first group was read for this group, and the teacher modeled this strategy.

At the end of explicit instruction phase, students acquired knowledge about these strategies but still had not applied them to longer reading passages. Now it was time for these two experimental groups to practice the strategies at hand by reading another text in their pamphlets. The teacher helped them with their difficulties, and they received corrective feedbacks on their retellings and summaries by the teacher.

During the course of training, the participants in control group were instructed in reading comprehension of the same texts by the same instructor through conventional method. In other words, the teacher translated the texts, gave the synonyms of new words, and provided them with some examples in order to clarify the meaning of sentences.

Next sessions after the instruction of the strategies, the students went through their pamphlets to cover one passage for each session. At the beginning of each session, the students were required to read a text and retell it orally in first experimental group and write a short summary about 160-180 words in second experimental group. Totally, 7 passages with some multiple choice items were covered during six sessions.

Since the purpose of these classes was not using the rules, but improving reading comprehension ability of the students through using the strategies at hand, there was no reason to correct the students in terms of using all guidelines and rules. In fact, in each session, some students had the opportunity to retell the text and make a summary, and the teacher gave them corrective feedback. While well-expressed retellings and summaries were assigned a score of 3, fair and poor reproductions of texts were scored 2 and 1 respectively. This method of scoring was in terms of how much they were successful in understanding the writer's intention, guessing the main idea of the text, and forming a coherent paragraph.

One week after the last treatment, the students were administered a posttest similar to the pretest with the same difficulty level.
3. Results

3.1 The Normality Test

The first step to decide upon the application of an appropriate statistical test is to test the normality of the collected data. According to the obtained results of Q-Q plots, all the data were distributed normally, so parametric statistic tests were applied to analyze the results.

The following section discusses the results for each research question and tests the null hypotheses.

3.2 Research Question One

Q1) Does oral retelling strategy have any significant effect on reading comprehension of EFL learners compared with conventional method of teaching the reading comprehension?

In order to investigate the effect of treatment on first group a paired t-test is required

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paired Differences</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
<th>Mean Std Deviation Std Error of Mean Low Upper t df Sig (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Paired Differences</td>
<td>9.61 5.636 0.728 8.16 11.0 13.2 59 0.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>for group 1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. Paired samples t-test

According to Table 1, Sig. value is 0.00 which is less than 0.05. As a result, there is a significant difference between the pre and post test of group one. On the other hand, an independent t-test between oral retelling and control group determines if the means of two groups are significantly different from one another.
Table 2. Independent samples t-test between groups 1 and 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Levene’s Test of Means of variances</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independent</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances</td>
<td>2.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.11</td>
<td>6.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.11</td>
<td>6.35</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As indicated in Table 2, the mean difference between these two groups is 5.23 which is a significant number. Therefore, the difference between these two groups is significant in terms of mean values.

According to Table 2, the value of sig. is 0.14 which is more than 0.05. So first line of the table should be used (equal variances assumed). Additionally, since the research begins with null hypotheses, significant two tailed is applied. Because 0.00 is less than 0.05, the difference between the mean scores of two groups is significant, and the first null hypothesis is rejected.

3.2 Research Question Two

Q2) Does summary writing strategy have any significant effect on reading comprehension of EFL learners compared with conventional method of teaching the reading comprehension?

Another paired t-test between pre and post test of summary writing group is applied in order to explore the effectiveness of this kind of treatment on second experimental group.
Table 3. Paired samples t-test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paired Differences</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>Lower</th>
<th>Upper</th>
<th>t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>df</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pair 1</td>
<td>Paired t-test</td>
<td>8.38</td>
<td>4.94</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td>7.10</td>
<td>9.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>59</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Table 3, there is a significant difference between pre and post test of the second group (Sig. = 0.00).

On the other hand, an independent t-test determines if there is any significant difference between mean values of two groups.

Table 4. Independent samples t-test between groups 2 and 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Levene's Test for Equality of Variances</th>
<th>t-test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lower</td>
<td>Upper</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

95% Confidence Interval

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>of the Difference</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
<th>MD</th>
<th>Std.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Error Lower Upper</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Difference</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independent</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t-test</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>assumed</td>
<td>1.38</td>
<td>0.24</td>
<td>5.70</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.54</td>
<td>2.03</td>
<td>4.23</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>not assumed</td>
<td>5.70</td>
<td>54.66</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.03</td>
<td>4.23</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Again first line of Table 4 is used for the above mentioned reasons. As shown in Table 4, the Sig. value of 0.00 is an indication of significant difference between second group and third one.
and a reason for rejecting second null hypothesis. Additionally, a comparison is made between t-value which is 5.70 and 2.02 which is the critical value for t at 0.05. Since 5.70 is significantly more than 0.05, there is a significant difference between experimental group two and control group, and the second null hypothesis is rejected again. On the other hand, mean difference between these two groups is 3.13 which is a significant number. Here comes the third reason for rejecting second null hypothesis, and it is concluded that summary writing has been effective on reading comprehension.

3.4 Research Question Three

Q3) Are there any significant differences between the results of the instruction based on oral retelling strategy, and those which are summary writing based?

Table 5. Independent samples t-test between groups 1 and 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Levene's Test for Equality of Variances</th>
<th>t-test for Equality of Difference</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F      Sig.</td>
<td>t      df</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independent t-test</td>
<td>Equal variances</td>
<td>0.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>assumed</td>
<td>0.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances assumed</td>
<td>3.37</td>
<td>57.95</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to Table 5, there is a significant difference between mean scores of experimental group one and two which is 2.10. It is concluded that group one out performed group two in terms of mean scores, and third null hypothesis is rejected.

On the other hand, t-value for df=58 is 3.37 which is more than 2.02. Therefore, there is a significant difference between these two groups.

3.5 Research Question Four

Q4) Are there any significant differences between the results of the instruction based on oral retelling strategy, those which are summary writing based, and those which are conventional based?
For testing fourth research question, test of homogeneity of variance is required.

Table 6. Test of homogeneity of variances

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Levene Statistic</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.087</td>
<td>0.34</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to Table 6, sig. value is 0.34. Therefore, the assumption of homogeneity of variance has been met. Since a comparison of more than two groups is required, a one way ANOVA is needed. It provides information on whether or not these three groups differ, but no information on the location or source of the difference.

Table 7. ANOVA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Levene Statistic</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>416.156</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.8078</td>
<td>41.568</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>435.500</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>5.006</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>851.656</td>
<td>89</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As it is revealed, Sig. value in Table 7 is 0.00. Therefore, there is a difference between the mean scores of reading comprehension test, and the fourth null hypothesis is rejected in terms of Sig. value.

For finding out the location of difference and which group is different from other groups, a post hoc multiple comparison test is provided, and these three groups are compared two by two by the use of mean differences.
According to Table 8, the mean difference of group one and three is 5.23 which proves that group one performed better than group three.

Furthermore, the calculated value of Sig. is 0.00. Since it is less than 0.05, it can be concluded that this kind of difference between group one which used oral retelling and group two which used summary writing is significant.

The comparison of group two and three indicates that there is a significant difference between summary writing group and the group which used conventional method with the Sig. of 0.00 which is less than 0.05. The mean difference of 3.13 indicates better performance of that group which used summary writing.

Additionally, a comparison of group one and two is an indication of superiority of group one over group two with the Sig. of 0.00. The mean difference between oral retelling and summary writing group is 2.100. It indicates the oral retelling group outperformed than the summary writing group. Again fourth null hypothesis is rejected in terms of mean difference value.

4. Discussion of the Results

The purpose of this study was to compare the effects of oral retelling and summary writing on the reading comprehension of Iranian EFL learners. Regarding the research questions, findings of the study illustrated that the use of oral retelling and summarizing has been effective in improving the students’ reading comprehension ability.

Regarding the effect of oral retelling on the reading comprehension, contradictory findings have been discussed at length previously where it was mentioned that while a lot of researchers such as McCormick and Cooper (1991) discovered the effectiveness of this strategy on students’
reading comprehension ability, Clanton (2002) reported that in traditional classrooms using the written retelling strategy did not show significant gains over the traditional classrooms without this strategy.

This study supported the studies which have shown that the ability to reconstruct and integrate meaning in student’s own word is indeed an important component of L2 reading comprehension. It is also in agreement with Lin's (2010) study that examined the impact of the retelling technique on English reading comprehension for Chinese students. The results showed that retelling significantly improved the participants’ text comprehension. It also helped them to distinguish between ideas, and retain a sequence of events. The participants using retelling could distinguish better than control participants between main and supporting ideas. They also performed better in drawing connections between pieces of information introduced at different parts of the text.

Regarding summarization strategy, the present study indicated the effectiveness of this strategy on reading comprehension ability of students. These findings are consistent with those state cognitive strategies such as summarizing enable learners to understand and produce new language by many different means and to improve their speaking if it is in oral form and their writing if it is written (Gorjian, Mousavian& Shahramiri, 2011). A considerable body of research examining the impact of summary assignments on language learner reading comprehension ability has demonstrated that summarization tasks can greatly enhance reading and understanding of written texts (Bean & Steenwyk, 1984; Cunningham, 1982; Mc Neil & Donant, 1982). Although these results are not compatible with some previous studies by Kirkland and Saunders (1991) who mentioned summary assignments are highly complex task activities, they are in agreement with findings of Gil et al. (2011) who presented the evidence of getting higher scores of Spanish students who wrote summaries than those who wrote argue essays.

Finally, the multiple comparison of the groups shows that the there is a significant difference between the groups which used oral retelling and those which used summarizing in favor of first group with oral retelling strategy.

5. Summary and Conclusion

The purpose of the present study was to investigate the differential effects of oral retelling and summary writing on reading comprehension ability of Iranian upper intermediate students. To recapitulate the findings and the conclusion of this study, it can be claimed that there was a statistically meaningful difference between the mean achievements of these groups in favor of the group one which the participants received the oral retelling strategy.

Additionally, the multiple comparisons of mean values presented the evidence that there is a significant difference between those students who received oral retelling and those who exposed to summary writing strategy in favor of oral retelling group. These results give credibility to Zimiles and Kuhns (1976) that suggested that comprehension significantly improved when the
students were asked to retell a story after it was read to them (as cited in Gibson, Gold, & Sgouros, 2003).

6. Pedagogical Implications

The result of the present research can offer pedagogical implications for language teachers, students, and textbook developers. The results also can be beneficial for those teachers who are in search of the most effective strategies for improving students' reading comprehension.

As a matter of fact, most strategies have not been trained in EFL reading classes but they were used as a tool for testing and evaluating the students' reading comprehension ability.

On the other hand, a lot of Iranian teachers doubt the practicality of retelling and summary writing in reading classes. Mostly often the only used method in these classes is the conventional method by which the teacher or the students read the texts, the texts are translated by the teacher, and the students are provided with a list of synonyms. As a matter of fact, the task is not challenging enough to involve the students in complicated processes of reading skill. It is a reasonable response to that group of researchers that explore the inadequacy of students' reading ability in spite of a large amount of reading courses that they are exposed to.

The findings of the present study, however, demonstrate that oral retelling strategy is not only feasible but also much more effective for fostering students' reading comprehension ability than summary writing. It seems beneficial here to remind the language teachers of the following advantages:

*Oral retelling strategy results in marked increases in text comprehension.*

Giving the students the steps to retell the texts in their own words helps them to integrate and reconstruct the meaning of the original text without looking at the original one. This strategy helps them to reveal not only what they remember, but also what they have understood. So they go beyond the literal meaning and focus on deeper understanding of the text. Accordingly, teachers can facilitate comprehension process by providing learning experiences that induce the students to interpret and reconstruct the text during and after their reading.

*Summary assignments improve reading comprehension ability.*

By providing the students the steps to summarize the texts as effective as possible, the teachers can help them to view themselves as readers and writers to build knowledge about the forms and functions of reading and writing. Since underlying reading and writing processes are similar, so the teachers should have a combination of writing and reading instruction in their classes. They should help the students to put the main ideas into their own words and improve their writing in reading classes.

The findings of the present study also have a significant implication for learners. The results of this study suggest that not only language learners with reading comprehension problems but also all other students who have difficulty in studying their foreign language academic texts can make use of oral retelling strategy as a comprehension fostering activity.
On the other hand, syllabus designers and textbook writers should include pre and post reading activities and tasks that involve the students in using these strategies.

References


A Comparative Analysis of Lexical Collocations in Molavi’s Mathnavi and Its Translation

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Abstract: Molavi is one of the Iranian poets who has a considerable impact on western scholars not only in previous decades known as the period of colonization but also in recent decades. His works has been translated to European languages either completely or selectively. Linguistic subtleties applied in Molavi’s verses have an undoubted connection with sublime and edifying concepts in his poems. These subtleties are prone to effacement when translated into other languages with systems of thoughts totally different from Persian one. One of these subtleties worthy of attention is collocation. Appearing in almost every poet in the world as one of the linguistic tools, collocations help the poets to apply brevity in their verses. The point is that collocations are different structurally and conceptually from one language to another and a translator should deal with them carefully in order to render them as meaningfully in the target language as possible. The present article seeks to compare collocations in Mathnavi Manavi by Molavi and their corresponding translations in order to discover faults and merits of techniques used by a translator and the lost and gains resulted by these techniques.

Keywords: lexical collocation, translation, limitations of translation, structural and conceptual collocations

1. Introduction

Persian poets have been praised recently by western scholars for the concepts associated with east such as spirituality, heaven, mystical poetry, religion, peace and the like which are mostly ignored in western literature. In the era of colonization, missionaries sent to Middle East also helped western scholars to heighten their knowledge about the east. Translation has certainly been of significant role to aid them in this. Among all the poets translated into European languages, Molavi is the most celebrated one especially in recent years. Europeans began to know Molavi in Early twentieth more than ever. Coleman Barks was the first person who publishes a translation of Molavi in his book The Essential Rumi in 1995 which was widely welcomed by the public. Others in Germany and France too translated selected verses from Molavi’s works. According to Azar (1387, p.316) most of the translators of Rumi’s works were
religious figures. Therefore, it is expected that different religious views put obstacles in the way of these translators to have an exact understanding of Molavi’s works. Azar states that the translations and most of what quoted from Molavi are either incomplete or lack the perfect legitimacy they require to have.

There are repeating concepts in verses of Rumi which has attracted translators’ attentions. Among them are spiritual love, sublime wisdom, pantheism, respecting all religions and attention to a diversity of traditions. These concepts form the very foundation of Molavi’s works and are obvious in all levels of his language including collocations. In this article a sample of his verses displaying these ideas is presented and the difficulty of translating related collocations is studied.

Translation of poetry has grabbed attention of many scholars of translation studies and the debate over translatability and untranslatability of poems as a form of language in which form and function is intermingled is still going. One of the problems when dealing with translation of poetry is due to the application of linguistic tools in a way that is totally different from the way speakers use their language. These linguistic tools are different from language to language and culture to culture. Collocations as one of these tools and should be dealt with carefully when translated into another language.

2. Review of the literature

2.1. The concept of collocation

Semantic relations are one of the universals which exist between groups in every language. Those groups and words which are closely related in terms of semantic relations can be used together or in some cases can be used interchangeably (Afrashi, 2002, p.18). Collocation is one of these kinds of semantic relations which is a kind of relationship among the words and makes it possible to predict the next word when seeing one of a pair. Collocational relations are the kind of relations that each unit of language possesses due to its combination (as a syntactic unit or a construct) with other units at the same level. Collocational relations are concerned with the way words appear together and being aware of this point is a substantial part of understanding them in text as well as translating them.

J. R. Firth is the first person who discusses the matter of collocation in his semantic theory and he is considered as the one who coined the term “collocation”. He states that using the word “meaning” is related to a general rule based on which every word is a new one when appearing in a new context (Firth, 1975, p. 190). This view of Firth has been generated from Malinowski’s opinion in based on which the meaning of linguistic forms should be explained according to their situational context. He believes that meaning of collocations is a type of abstraction at the level of collocating and is not directly related to conceptual or ideal approach to the meaning of words (Meshkatodini 1994, pp.112-193).
2.2. Structure of collocations

Haussmann (1984) calls collocations “Binary word combinations” in which one word as the base has an independent meaning and the other word is the collocate obtaining its meaning from collocating with the other word. He classifies types of collocations according to the syntactic category of their elements. He believes, however, that syntactic features alone cannot distinguish collocations from free combination and idioms and a semantic criterion is required for this (Haussman, 1989). He also believes that collocation is placed between two levels of free combinations and idioms. This semi-combinational meaning of collocations causes Hausmann to know them as “bound collocations” (Heid, 1994, pp. 232-233)

Brown (2006) cites Sinclair stating that collocation is a meaningful concurrence of two or more words in the word chain with a frequency of appearing much more than expected and closer than lexical relations in situational context recognition of whose units is possible with the aid of a long text. It means that meaning is created with the choice of two or more words together at the same time (Brown 2006, p.597)

2.3. The role of collocations in translation

Several researches have been carried on the subject of collocations in translation. According to Newmark (1988, p.46) difficulty in translation of collocations is due to two major reasons; first, there is only an arbitrary relation between components of a collocation and its meaning and second, at least one of these components has secondary meaning.

Baker (1992, pp. 74-60) likewise refers to the arbitrary relation between elements of a collocation and the whole meaning of it. She believes that “there is no such thing as impossible collocations” and the reason is that words are gathered together and create collocations and it is an ongoing process which exists naturally in any language. She also mentions that the difficulty of translating collocations lays in the fact that the collocational patterning of source and target language are different. The following are the most common pitfalls she mentions that a translator may face when translating collocations; the engrossing effect of source text patterning, misinterpreting the meaning of a source language collocation, the tension between accuracy and naturalness, culture-specific collocations and marked collocations in the source text.

Shahriari is among the Iranians who have studied collocational restrictions. She has examined different types of corresponding collocations in languages (Shariari, 1997). The result of her research shows that these studies are fruitful in the field of translation in terms of producing standard and nonstandard combinations.

Ghayumi carries a similar research titled “role of collocations in translation” and concludes that well-formed combinations in chains of words may become ill-formed when translated into target
language and this abnormality in lexical combination is due to semantic-structural differences between source and target languages. (Ghayumi 2004, p.65)

3. Analysis of the data

One way to analyze collocations is to collect a proper language corpus. Yet, to use corpus based study of collocations requires considering limitations of the method which depends on the quantitative mass of the corpus. Therefore, based on the type and nature of the corpus it is possible to present a diversity of explanations. So, it is of great importance to refer to valid sources in collection of the data when using this method. In order to assure the validity the collected data, all the collocations of chapter 6 of Mathnavi with 3693 verses have been gathered and compared to the translation of the work.

3.1. Collocations related to religious context

In these collocations some references exist to prophets and Quranic allegories related to them in addition to some Islamic traditions or any other word which has originated from religious views. When these words are collocated with other words it is expected that the whole collocation gains a secondary meaning which makes them even more difficult to translate. After examining these kinds of collocations it is revealed that most of these combinations have one of these patterns; noun+ noun or noun+ adjectives. Either the adjective or the noun or both allude to religious views.

Molavi, having a rich body of knowledge from Islam and Quran, has made use of these references. The poet’s intention is to transfer religious messages in a delicate way with a higher degree of effectiveness. In most cases there is an interval between the components of collocations. The following is some of the examples of this type of collocations used in Mathnavi:

**PF**: Nuh ?andar bâdiye kašti besâxt sad masal gu ?az peye tasxar betâxt

**CT**: Noah built an Ark in the desert: a hundred speakers of parables ran up to ridicule (him)

**PF**: čon resid ?andar sabâ ?in nur-e šarq qalqali ?oftâd dar belqeis-o xalq

**CT**: When this orient light (from Solomon) reached Saba, a tumult arose in Bilqis and brag in account of it.

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1 Phonetic Form  
2 Couplet Translation
It is obvious in the above verses and their translations that when an interval happens between the parts of a collocation. Word for word translation is the easiest means to transfer the meaning and no problem may be caused in the way of understanding of them.

Due to the fact that the meaning of a collocation cannot be perceived through understanding the meaning of individual vocabularies which constructed the collocation, a translator cannot transfer the collocation’s message through a literal translation. For example, in the aforementioned line, “?ashâb-e kahf” is a collocation which has been translated as “the Men of the Cave”. But, “?ashâb” carries some specific semantic features like “friendship” or “other positive connotations” which “men” does not imply. Probably, “fellow” can be a better equivalence for “?ashâb”

3.2. Semantic collocations

3.2.1 Antonymy and Synonymy

In this type of collocations, similar or different semantic relationships which exist between two vocabularies and cause synonymy or antonymy are of considerable importance. These collocations are mostly fixed in colloquial speech and so associated that mentioning one of the words can remind us of the other word. They can be also alleged as corresponding collocations which are the consequence of their close relations and correspondences. In semantic collocations, two juxtaposed vocabularies are mostly nouns and adjectives. In other words, two words that are grouped are often nouns or adjectives, and owing to their synonymy, their grammatical categories should be the same.

When there is no day and night and month and year, how should there be satiety and old age and weariness?
The collocation of “div-o pari” which is translated as “demons and genies” is consisting of an antonymous relationship. But this relationship has not been in its translation, since “genie” is not
equivalent with “pari”, so this translation does not imply the existing antonymy and semantic features of “pari” in the original poem. The collocation of “div-o pari” is the symbol of “goodness and badness”.

PF: Bar sar-e taxt šenid ?ân niknâm
taqtaqi-o háy-o huy-e šab ze bâm
CT: (Reclining) on a throne, that man of good name heard at night a noise of trampling and shrill cries from the roof.

“Hây-o huy” is onomatopoeia, and the translator has considered it as two separate words and tried to find two equivalences for “hây” and “huy”. Therefore, he has chosen “shrill” for “hây”, and “cries” for “huy”. Semantically, his translation is roughly equivalent to the original but in the original form, there is the conjunction of “and” between “hây” and “huy” which does not exist in the translation.

PF: zân nedâ dínhâ ham gardand sabz
šâx-o barg-e del ham gardand sabz
CT: At (the sound of) that voice (men’s) religions wax great; the leaves and boughs of the heart become green.

“šâx-o barg”, which means “boughs and leaves”, is a collocation that has a high frequency in Persian language and implies a metaphorical meaning. This collocation is accompanied with a simile that the translator could not perceive it, so he translated it literally. In addition, he has changed the place of “boughs” and “leaves”. It can be assumed that the translator was not aware of the application of these words as a collocation in Maulana’s poetry.

PF: čonke belqes az del-o jân ?azm kard
bar zamân-e rafte ham ?afsus xord
CT: When Bilqis set out (from Saba) with heart and soul, she felt remorse too for the bygone time.

“Del-o jân” is a collocation which means “wanting or doing something eagerly and wholeheartedly”. This collocation has been translated as “with heart and soul”; therefore, the translator could be adequately successful in finding an appropriate equivalence.
The collocation of “šâd-o xandân” is often used in Persian, but Maulana changed it into “xandân-o šâd” to preserve his poem’s rhythm. The meaning of the collocation is “happy and delighted” which are both adjectives, but the translator has altered the structure of both vocabularies into verbs and translated them individually. So, the translator, by considering word as his translation unit, has wrongly reduced lexical relationship which existed in the original collocation.

“qil-o qâl” is another Persian collocation which implies “arguing and disputing”. Here, the place of two words has been changed to maintain the poem’s rhythm. As it can be observed, the translator has inadequately sufficed to transfer the meaning of the collocation.

“Zâher-o bâten” is a collocation which is made of two antonymous vocabularies which mean “outside” and “inside”. The translator has attempted to retain the collocational structure through using “within and without” that both indicate a rhythmical relationship between two words and the existing antonymous relationship. Although “without” is not applied with this meaning as frequently as “outside”, it is more fitting and can be easily inferred by English readers.

3.3. Culture-bound Collocations

Culture-bound collocations are made of vocabularies which closely associated with the culture of source language. They are repeatedly used in colloquial language and can be only understood in source language; therefore, translator encounters some adversities when translating them.
Abandon (all) that, (even) if it is the kingdom of Saba, for beyond (this) water and earth there are many kingdoms.

“?âb-o gel”, which literally means “water and mud”, is a collocation consisting of two culture-bound vocabularies. Another meaning which can be gotten from this collocation is mortal life. So, translator has faced two problems: the first one is translating a collocation, and the second one is translating culture-bound words. Nicholson\(^3\), the translator of these lines, has literally translated “?âb-o gel” into “water and earth”, but he has put “this” in parentheses which is symbol of this life or transient life and added “beyond” which is indicative of “what comes after this life”. Through the addition of these words, he could transfer the intended meaning in the original poem to English and compensate for the collocation’s meaning, but he could not preserve lexical collocation existing in the original form.

In Maulana’s poetry, the collocation of “?âb-o gel”, which means “water and mud”, mostly refers to the human beings’ nature. For instance:

In the above line, a singular verb has been used for both “?âb-o gel”. It is a meaningful and accepted structure to Persian speakers, but it is unlikely in English.

\(^3\) R. A. Nicholson was the first to make a full translation of all six books into English. It was published in three volumes (Books I and II, 1926; Books III and IV, 1930; Books V and VI, 1934).
“Foru?” and “?osul” are two religious vocabularies which have been literally translated as “branches” and “roots” in Nicholson’s translation. It is obvious that connotative cultural and religious meanings of these vocabularies could not be transferred at all.

Foru?” and “?osul” are two religious vocabularies which have been literally translated as “branches” and “roots” in Nicholson’s translation. It is obvious that connotative cultural and religious meanings of these vocabularies could not be transferred at all.

“Leyli and Maҗnun” is a very popular collocation in Persian poetry which is symbol of “love”. All poets and speakers are aware of it, since it has strongly taken root in their culture. But, the English translator has regarded it as proper nouns and neglected the connotative meaning of the collocation due to his unfamiliarity with Persian culture and presuppositions.

Didam ?andar xâne man naqṣ-o negâr

CT: I saw (beautiful) pictures and paintings in the house: I was without self-control in (my) love of the house.

“Naqṣ-o negâr” is a collocation whose meaning is a little bit different from “pictures and paintings”. It is a known term in Iranian art which refers to delicate paintings with various colors and complicated designs. But, an English speaker cannot infer such meaning from “paintings and pictures”. It is better to elaborate such culture-bound vocabularies in footnotes to help readers of Maulana’s poetry.
By that (means) you know whether the wind is the east-wind or the west-wind: this (movement of the lion) is the explanation of that occult matter.

“Sabâ wind” is a wind coming from the East and symbolizing lovers’ message. Persian speakers are commonly familiar with this collocation and there is no need to differentiate between the east and the west wind for a Persian person. But, an English person is not aware of the reason of this juxtaposition; therefore, the translator had to wrongly mention both of them, since “Sabâ wind” comes from the East and it shows that the translator did not thoroughly get the meaning.

4. Conclusion

The aim of this study is to compare verses of Mathnavi as a Persian work which contains a large number of cultural and religious references with its English translation. The article has been limited into the subject of collocations as linguistic tools with a different application when used in poetry. The results show that the degree of difficulty in translating collocations is depended on the type of collocation and the existence of similar views in target language. Collocations related to religious contexts appear to be the most difficult ones. Translator takes several approaches to deal with them. S/he may change them into more familiar ones for the reader which happens when translator tends to domesticate the text. In some cases the translator prefers a word for word translation and adds footnotes to explain the terms. Other difficult collocations include those related to the culture. When there is an equal collocation in the target language with the same meaning no problem appears. But in most cases the meaning or form has to be changed to become understandable for the target reader. The third type which is easier in relation to previous types includes collocations with semantic relations between them. Most of the time they pose no serious problem and even a word for word translation might be adequate. But sometimes they go beyond their primary meaning and adopt a secondary meaning and play the role of a literary device such as metaphors which demands translator’s attention when dealing with.

References

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The Language and Style of Writing a World Class Research Paper

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Abstract: This paper is the outcome of a study undertaken by the author by scrutinizing 25 research theses which have been awarded PhD by Osmania University Hyderabad, India (Dept of Business Management) and other research Institutions between January and November 2012. This was further corroborated with the guidelines set out by various universities like Harvard, Rice, Indian Institutes of Technology(IITs) and Indian Institutes of Management(IIMs). The basic objective was to identify the major styles and nuances demonstrated by various scholars in making the thesis. While the author noticed many variations between them, the core common points have been summarized for the benefit of the research community because many scholars were found to be delayed in submission of thesis for want of approval from the guide, not on content, but on style and writing skills many a time. Hence the world class writing skills have been captured and presented herein to help the research community.

Key Words: Title page, Abstract, Introduction, Objectives, Hypothesis, Materials and methods, Discussion, Results, Bibliography/References.

Introduction:

Writing is more of an art than science. More so if it is a research paper. A research paper should allow people to read and understand the works. The researcher be interested in just the methods, a specific result, the interpretation, or perhaps we just want to see a summary of the paper to determine if it is relevant to the study. To this end, many journals require the following sections, submitted in the order listed, each section to start on a new page. There are variations of course. Some journals call for a combined results and discussion, for example, or include materials and methods after the body of the paper. The well known journal Science does away with separate sections altogether, except for the abstract.

Research papers are to adhere to the form and style required for the Journal that they intend.

General Care

Specific editorial requirements will always supersede instructions in these general guidelines.
To make a paper readable, one can;
- Print or type using a 12 point standard font, such as Times, Geneva, Bookman, etc.
- Text should be double spaced on 8 1/2" x 11" paper with 1 inch margins, single sided
- Number pages consecutively
- Start each new section on a new page
- Adhere to recommended page limits

Mistakes to avoid
- Placing a heading at the bottom of a page with the following text on the next page
- Dividing a table or figure - confine each figure/table to a single page
- Submitting a paper with pages out of order

In all sections of the paper the researcher may;
- Use normal prose including articles ("a", "the," etc.)
- Stay focused on the research topic of the paper
- Use paragraphs to separate each important point (except for the abstract)
- Indent the first line of each paragraph
- Present your points in logical order
- Use present tense to report well accepted facts - for example, 'the grass is green'
- Use past tense to describe specific results - for example, 'When weed killer was applied, the grass was brown'
- Avoid informal wording, don't address the reader directly, and do not use jargon, slang terms, or superlatives
- Avoid use of superfluous pictures - include only those figures necessary to presenting results

Title Page Writing

Select an informative title which is as brief as possible but explains the central idea of the research. In the title page, include the name(s) and address(es) of all authors, and date submitted with name of the university and month of submission along with the details of the research guide.

Abstract Writing

The summary should be two hundred words or less. An abstract is a concise single paragraph summary of completed work or work in progress. In a minute or less a reader can learn the rationale behind the study, general approach to the problem, pertinent results, and important conclusions or new questions.
The summary is written after the rest of the paper is completed. Economy of words is important throughout any paper, but especially in an abstract. However, use complete sentences and do not sacrifice readability for brevity. one can keep it concise by wording sentences so that they serve more than one purpose. For example, "In order to learn the role of protein synthesis in early development of the sea urchin, newly fertilized embryos were pulse-labeled with tritiated leucine, to provide a time course of changes in synthetic rate, as measured by total counts per minute (cpm)." This sentence provides the overall question, methods, and type of analysis, all in one sentence. The writer can now go directly to summarizing the results. The abstract is the only text in a research paper to be written without using paragraphs in order to separate major points. The abstract generally summarizes the study, including the following elements in any abstract. It helps to keep the first two items to no more than one sentence each.

- Purpose of the study - hypothesis, overall question, objective
- Model organism or system and brief description of the experiment
- Results, including specific data - if the results are quantitative in nature, report quantitative data; results of any statistical analysis should be reported
- Important conclusions or questions that follow from the experiment(s)

Style:
- Single paragraph, and concise
- As a summary of work done, it is always written in past tense
- An abstract should stand on its own, and not refer to any other part of the paper such as a figure or table
- Focus on summarizing results - limit background information to a sentence or two, if absolutely necessary
- Abstract must be consistent with what you reported in the paper
- Correct spelling, clarity of sentences and phrases, and proper reporting of quantities (proper units, significant figures) are important in an abstract as they are elsewhere.

Objectives:

The research objectives shall reflect the achievements slated for a project. While it may be true that the final results can never be pre-made in a research, what the study aims at must be clearly embedded into the objectives in a good research model. Objectives are the starting point.

Hypothesis:

Hypothesis is what the study intends to test in order to achieve the stated objectives. It is a proposal to be tested with data from a lab or interview. Generally each objective must have a hypothesis. It involves a null hypothesis and alternative hypothesis.
Writing the Introduction

Research introductions need not exceed two pages (double spaced, typed). The purpose of an introduction is to acquaint the reader with the rationale behind the work, with the intention of defending it. It places the research work in a theoretical context, and enables the reader to understand and appreciate the objectives.

Writing approaches vary widely, however for the best studies the following approach can produce an effective introduction. The introduction should:

- Describe the importance (significance) of the study – reason as to why was this worth doing in the first place & Provide a broad context.
- Defend the model - why use this particular organism or system or the method? Its advantages? & the author may comment on its suitability from a theoretical point of view as well as indicate practical reasons for using it.
- Provide a rationale. State the specific hypothesis (es) or objective(s), and describe the reasoning that led you to select them.
- Very briefly describe the experimental design and how it accomplished the stated objectives.

Style: The author can:
- Use past tense except when referring to established facts. After all, the paper will be submitted after all of the work is completed.
- Organize the ideas, making one major point with each paragraph. If the introduction makes the four points listed above, it will need a minimum of four paragraphs.
- Present background information only as needed in order support a position. The reader does not want to read everything you know about a subject.
- State the hypothesis/objective precisely - do not oversimplify.
- pay attention to spelling, clarity and appropriateness of sentences and phrases.

Materials and Methods

There is no specific page limit, but a key concept is to keep this section as concise as it may be possibly can. People want to read this material selectively. The reader may only be interested in one formula or part of a procedure. Materials and methods may be reported under separate subheadings within this section or can be incorporated together.

This should be the easiest section to write, but many students misunderstand the purpose. The objective is to document all specialized materials and general procedures, so that another
individual may use some or all of the methods in another study or judge the scientific merit of 
the work. It is not to be a step by step description of everything of the study, nor is a methods 
section a set of instructions. In particular, it is not supposed to tell a story.

**Materials must:**
- Describe materials separately only if the study is so complicated that it saves space this 
  way.
- Include specialized chemicals, biological materials, and any equipment or supplies that 
  are not commonly found in laboratories.
- Do not include commonly found supplies such as test tubes, pipet tips, beakers, etc., or 
  standard lab equipment such as centrifuges, spectrophotometers, pipettors, etc.
- If use of a specific type of equipment, a specific enzyme, or a culture from a particular 
  supplier is critical to the success of the experiment, then it and the source should be 
  singled out, otherwise no.
- Materials may be reported in a separate paragraph or else they may be identified along 
  with your procedures.
- In biosciences we frequently work with solutions - refer to them by name and describe 
  completely, including concentrations of all reagents, and pH of aqueous solutions, solvent 
  if non-aqueous.

**Methods must:**
- Report the methodology (not details of each procedure that employed the same 
  methodology)
- Describe the methodology completely, including such specifics as temperatures, 
  incubation times, etc.
- To be concise, present methods under headings devoted to specific procedures or groups 
  of procedures.
- Generalize - report how procedures were done, not how they were specifically performed 
  on a particular day. For example, report "samples were diluted to a final concentration of 
  2 mg/ml protein;" don't report that "135 microliters of sample one was diluted with 330 
  microliters of buffer to make the protein concentration 2 mg/ml." Always think about 
  what would be relevant to an investigator at another institution, working on his/her own 
  project.
- If well documented procedures were used, report the procedure by name, perhaps with 
  reference, and that's all. For example, the Bradford assay is well known. Methods need 
  not report the procedure in full - just that you used a Bradford assay to estimate protein 
  concentration, and identify what you used as a standard. The same is true for the other 
  technical laboratory techniques or methods, and many other well known procedures in 
  biology and biochemistry or literature.

**Style:**
• It is awkward or impossible to use active voice when documenting methods without using first person, which would focus the reader's attention on the investigator rather than the work. Therefore when writing up the methods most authors use third person passive voice.

• Style must demonstrate normal prose in this and in every other section of the paper – avoid informal lists, and use complete sentences.

What to avoid:

• Materials and methods are not a set of instructions.
• Omit all explanatory information and background - save it for the discussion.
• Omit information that is irrelevant to a third party, such as what color ice bucket that was used, or which individual logged in the data.

Writing the Results

The page length of this section is set by the amount and types of data to be reported. Continue to be concise, using figures and tables, if appropriate, to present results most effectively. The purpose of a results section is to present and illustrate the research findings. It makes this section a completely objective report of the results, and save all interpretation for the discussion.

It is necessary to see that it clearly distinguishes material that would normally be included in a research article from any raw data or other appendix material that would not be published. In fact, such material should not be submitted at all unless requested by the instructor.

Content must;

• Summarize your findings in text and illustrate them, if appropriate, with figures and tables.
• In text, describe each of your results, pointing the reader to observations that are most relevant.
• Provide a context, such as by describing the question that was addressed by making a particular observation.
• Describe results of control experiments and include observations that are not presented in a formal figure or table, if appropriate.
• Analyze your data, then prepare the analyzed (converted) data in the form of a figure (graph), table, or in text form.

What to avoid

• Do not discuss or interpret your results, report background information, or attempt to explain anything.
• Never include raw data or intermediate calculations in a research paper.
• Do not present the same data more than once.
• Text should complement any figures or tables, not repeat the same information.
- Separate figures with tables - there is a difference.

Style must:
- Use past tense when you refer to your results, and put everything in a logical order.
- In text, refer to each figure as "figure 1," "figure 2," etc.; number your tables as well (see the reference text for details)
- Place figures and tables, properly numbered, in order at the end of the report (clearly distinguish them from any other material such as raw data, standard curves, etc.)
- If necessary it may place the figures and tables appropriately within the text of the results section.

Figures and tables
- Either place figures and tables within the text of the result, or include them in the back of the report (following Literature Cited) - do one or the other
- If you place figures and tables at the end of the report, make sure they are clearly distinguished from any attached appendix materials, such as raw data
- Regardless of placement, each figure must be numbered consecutively and complete with caption (caption goes under the figure)
- Regardless of placement, each table must be titled, numbered consecutively and complete with heading (title with description goes above the table)
- Each figure and table must be sufficiently complete that it could stand on its own, separate from text

Discussion
This is the section where the personal observations and gut feels, predictions based on the data observation are put in. Journal guidelines vary. Space is so valuable in the Journal that authors are asked to restrict discussions to four pages or less, double spaced, typed. That works out to one printed page. If the report observes economy of words, there should be plenty of space within which to say all that is needed to say. The objective here is to provide an interpretation of results and support for all of conclusions, using evidence from the experiment and generally accepted knowledge, if appropriate. The significance of findings should be clearly described.
Discussion must interpret the research data in the discussion in appropriate depth. This means that when it explains a phenomenon the discussion must describe mechanisms that may account for the observation. If results differ from expectations or hypothesis, it explains why that may have happened. If results agree, then describe the theory that the evidence supported. It is never appropriate to simply state that the data agreed with expectations, and let it drop at that. In this section it may be further observed to;
• Decide if each hypothesis is supported, rejected, or if it cannot make a decision with confidence. Do not simply dismiss a study or part of a study as "inconclusive."
• Research papers are not accepted if the work is incomplete. Draw what conclusions the study can make, based upon the results on hand, and treat the study as a finished work.
• It may suggest future directions, such as how the experiment might be modified to accomplish another objective.
• Explain all of the observations as much as possible, focusing on mechanisms.
• Decide if the experimental design adequately addressed the hypothesis, and whether or not it was properly controlled.
• Try to offer alternative explanations if reasonable alternatives exist.
• One experiment will not answer an overall question, so keeping the big picture in mind, where do to go next? The best studies open up new avenues of research. What questions remain?
• Recommendations for specific papers will provide additional suggestions.

Style:
• When one refers to information, distinguish data generated by your own studies from published information or from information obtained from other students (verb tense is an important tool for accomplishing that purpose).
• Refer to work done by specific individuals (including yourself) in past tense.
• Refer to generally accepted facts and principles in present tense. For example, "Anil Gupta, in a 1989 survey, found that anemia in basset hounds was correlated with advanced age. Anemia is a condition in which there is insufficient hemoglobin in the blood."

The biggest mistake that students make in discussions is to present a superficial interpretation that more or less re-states the results. It is necessary to suggest why results came out as they did, focusing on the mechanisms behind the observations.

References / Bibliography

This section should list all literature cited in the paper, in alphabetical order, by first author. Name of the author must be with surname first followed by the first name as in “Gupta Anil”. Then the title, publisher name, year and page numbers, should be given. In a proper research paper, only primary literature is used (original research articles authored by the original investigators). The reference section must be cautious about using web sites as references - anyone can put just about anything on a web site, and you have no sure way of knowing if it is truth or fiction. If one is citing an on line journal, use the journal citation (name, volume, year, page numbers).

And we remember:
“Search for the truth is the noblest occupation of man, its publication is a duty.”
If we knew what it was we were doing, it would not be called research. 

Albert Einstein

References

A Study on the Affixation Process of Sadeq Hedayat’s and Jalal Al-e Ahmad’s Works

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Abstract: In this paper, we are trying to study affixation process including prefixation, suffixation and interfixation in fiction works of two Iranian contemporary writers named Sadegh Hedayat and Jalal Al-e Ahmad. This paper aims to find out whether there is a morphological style as regards the affixation in the works of these writers. So we chose two fiction works of each writer: their first and the most prominent works. The findings indicate that the suffixation and interfixation are the most and the least processes respectively that Hedayat and Al-e Ahmad utilized in their works. The prefixation is the next one regarding its frequency. The high application of suffixation process in these works is due to this fact that generally Persian language is a suffixal language. It seems that since the variety of interfixes are less in comparison to the inflectional suffixes, derivational suffixes and prefixes, the interfixation process has been used at the minimum rate in the works of these two writers. In Hedayat’s works -hâ and -am suffixes have got the most frequency in comparison to other inflectional suffixes. The frequency of -hâ suffix in Zende be Gur "Buried Alive" (his first work) was more than Buf-e Kur "Blind Owl" (his most prominent work). -Am suffix almost represented the same frequency in these two works. Al-e Ahmad has applied -hâ suffix more than the other inflectional suffixes in his works. The frequency of this suffix in Did-o-Bâzdid "Visit " is more than Modir-e Madrese "The School Principal". As the use of these suffixes in his first work is more than or equal to his prominent work, the affixation by -hâ and -am would not be part of morphological stylistic properties of fiction works of these writers.

Keywords: affixation, morphological style, Sadegh Hedayat, Jalal Al-e Ahmad, Zende be Gur, Buf-e Kur, Did-o-Bâzdid, Modir-e Madrese.

1-Introduction

Works of poets and authors contain common general characteristics of mental lingual and literary collection at that period. Although the works among some of these poets and authors also have special features belonging to a particular poet/ author that eventually the work is distinguished among the others. Actually, the poet/author owns a particular style whose work among the others in a period or other periods consists of its own resonance characteristics. Style is a particular method through which an author/ speaker expresses his perception, thought and feeling. A part of analysis of a poet’s/author’s style is concerned to lingual features of his work.
such as focusing on phonemes, morphology area, considering sentences structures and type of word orders. In morphological study of a poet’s/author’s work, affixation could be focused on, so we will discuss it in this paper.

2-Framework of Research

Morphology is a branch of linguistics that deals with words and their structure and how they are being formed (Aronoff & Fudeman, 2011: 2). One of the productive word formation processes in Persian and other languages is the affixation. Affix is a bound morpheme that attaches to a morpheme or other morphemes like a root, a stem or a base (Katamba, 1993: 44) to make a lexeme or a word form (Shaqaqi, 2008: 67). Affixes are divided into prefix, suffix, interfix, circumfix and transfix according to their position and the connection to stem.

The current paper only studies the affixation in three levels of prefixation, suffixation and interfixation. We illustrate interfixes, prefixes and suffixes with Persian examples and fulfill data analysis according to these explanations and definitions.

Interfix is a morpheme appearing between two bases (Bauer, 2003: 246) and attaches them. Interfix never attaches to the beginning or end of a stem, rather it is applied between two words and phonetically it is connected to the first word (Shaqaqi, 2008: 68). Interfixes are mostly used between two bases which are repeated.

EX: -tâ- interfix: sar tâ sar “all over”

Prefix is a morpheme which comes before a root, a stem or a base. Suffix is a morpheme that comes after a root, a stem or a base (Katamba, 1993: 44).

EX: bâ- prefix: bâxerad “wise”

-dân suffix: goldân “vase”

Affixes based on their structural function divided into the derivational and inflectional affixes. Derivational affix forms a new lexeme which represents the lexical entry in dictionaries. Usually «alter the meaning or grammatical category of the base» (Katamba, 1993: 45).

Persian EX: bi- derivational prefix: biadab “impolite”

-ande derivational suffix: rânande “driver”

English EX: in- derivational prefix: impolite

-al derivational suffix: national
Inflectional affixes deal with syntactic concepts such as plural (in nouns), time, model, aspect, person and number (in verbs) and comparison (in adjectives). Inflectional affix has a grammatical function and never makes a lexeme rather it creates a word form. See these samples from Persian and English languages:

Persian EX: -ân\(^4\) inflectional suffix: deraxtân “trees”

be-\(^5\) inflectional prefix: bede “give”

English EX: -s inflectional suffix (plural marker): apples

In Persian language, prefixes and suffixes are divided into derivational and inflectional while in English, all prefixes are derivational, and suffixes are derivational and inflectional. Therefore, the grammatical functions of affixes are different in each language. In Persian, inflectional prefixes only attach to verbal bases as the above example it should be pointed out that we will not discuss inflectional prefixes and suffixes which connect to verbal bases in this research.

By studying the affixation process in some fiction works of two contemporary Iranian writers Sadeq Hedayat (1902-1951) and Jalal Al-e\(^6\) Ahmad (1923-1969) we are going to find out whether we could consider morphological style in the works of these writers or not.

These authors are selected for two reasons. First, both of them were contemporary with each other. Second, their works had different literary styles. Stylistically, analyzing works of Jalal Al-e Ahmad categorizes him in Realism position which is against Romanticism. Realism is linked to rationality and feelings are not involved in this category (Kaviani and Mosavi, 2001: 5). Zende be Gur “Buried Alive” story collection and Buf-e Kur “Blind Owl” novel of Hedayat are often Naturalistic and Surrealistic respectively. Naturalism describes the overall situation of human (a character in the novel) in the course of orthogenesis conditions (environment) and is based on inheritance (Sarvat, 2007: 79). Surrealism is a movement in art and literature whose foundation is based on imagination, vision, free association and unconscious notions. Superior realities in naturalists’ sight are not real and material components and pictures. These are visions, synthetic association, non-uniform and irrational imagination, though (Ian, et al., 2001: 106).

This study will investigate the first and most prominent works of each writer. Recurrence is the main factor in forming a style which means repeating a phenomenon or an element either lingual or non-lingual. But in the most prominent work, the author could have his own style by passing time and exercising in writing. Following these illustrations, this paper will discuss works of

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\(^4\) -ân is plural marker in Persian.

\(^5\) be- is an imperative and subjunctive marker in Persian. Here it is the marker of an imperative verb.

\(^6\) e is ezâfe (genitive) marker.
Sadeq Hedayat like story collection *Zende be Gur* "Buried Alive" (1930)\(^7\) and the novella *Buf-e Kur* "Blind Owl" (1936) that are his first and most outstanding ones. Among the works of Al-e Ahmad, story collection *Did-o Bâzdid* "Visit" (1945) and novella *Modir-e Madrese* "The School Principal" (1958) will be demonstrated that these works are the first and the most prominent of his fiction works respectively. It should be pointed out that no research has been done related to affixation on works of Hedayat and Al-e Ahmad.

### 3-Data analysis

In order to study the affixation process in the fiction works of Sadegh Hedayat and Jalal Al-e Ahmad, we randomly extracted 300 bases including a morpheme such as prefix (of the inflectional type), suffix (of the inflectional and derivational types), and interfix from every work.

#### 3-1 "Buried Alive"

"Buried Alive" is the first story collection of Sadegh Hedayat. He wrote this book in Paris and published it in Tehran. This collection includes some stories such as *Zende be Gur* "Buried Alive", *Asir-e Farânsavi* "French Hostage", *Âtaš parast* "Fire Worshipper" and *Âbji Xânum* "The Sister". Different types of affixes applied in this story collection are as follows:

**Table 1: Inflectional suffixes used in the story collection "Buried Alive"**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Affix</th>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-hâ(^8)</td>
<td>mardhâ “men”- inhâ “they”</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>%39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-am(^10)</td>
<td>saram “my head”- xodam(^11) “myself”</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>%32</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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\(^7\). The number that is brought after any work in parenthesis indicates publication year of that work. Other publications have been used due to not having any access to their first publication.

\(^8\). In Persian language, conjunction “va” sounds “o” in some contexts.

\(^9\). *hâ* is plural marker in Persian.

\(^10\). *am* is called *zamayr-e mottasel* that is used for singular first person in Persian. Since there is not this type of pronoun in English, in this research we use “connected pronouns” term for this type of pronouns.

\(^11\). In Persian *xodam* is reflexive pronoun for singular first person.
Table 2: Derivational suffixes used in the story collection "Buried Alive"

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Affix</th>
<th>Usage</th>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Frequency Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-ân</td>
<td>With mozâre? stem</td>
<td>gorizân “evasive”</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>%12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-kade</td>
<td>with noun</td>
<td>âtaškade “fire temple”</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>%12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-gâh</td>
<td>with noun</td>
<td>parastešgâh “temple”</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>%12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-âne</td>
<td>with adjective</td>
<td>badbaxtâne “unfortunately”</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>%12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

12 -aš is zamir-e mottasel “connected pronoun” for singular third person in Persian.
13 In Persian xodaš is reflexive pronoun for singular third person.
14 -at is zamir-e mottasel “connected pronoun” for singular second person in Persian.
15 xodaš is reflexive pronoun for singular second person in Persian.
16 -ân in Persian is plural marker.
17 In Persian -etân is zamir-e mottasel “connected pronoun” for plural second person.
18 In Persian “y” is mediation consonant.
19 -ât is plural marker in Persian.
20 -tarin in Persian is superlative construction marker.
21 -yâ-y-e nakare is indefinite marker.
22 -yâ-y-e nakare is sounded “i”.
23 -ešân is zamir-e mottasel “connected pronoun” for plural third person.
24 xodešân is reflexive pronoun for plural third person.
25 -tar is comparative construction marker.
26 -emân is zamir-e mottasel “connected pronoun” for plural first person.
27 Mozâre? stem is constructed by deleting be preposition that is the marker of an imperative verb.
In the first fiction work of Hedayat i.e. "Buried Alive", there is no interfixation process. The suffixation with the rate of %97 in comparison to the prefixation with the frequency of %3 has the most frequency. The suffixification by inflectional affixes with the frequency of 91% is more applicable than the suffixification by the derivational affixes with the value of 2% in this work. The usage proportion of the derivational suffixes to the derivational prefixes is high in this story collection. Their frequencies are 74% and 26% respectively. Among the inflectional suffixes, there is the more rate of application in -hâ and -am with the frequencies of 42% and 30% in this work, respectively. Based on the inflectional suffix tables, the minimum frequencies allocate to the following suffixes: -tar, -emân, -yâ-y-e nakare, -ešân, -ât, -tarin, -ân and -etân. Almost all the derivational suffixes and prefixes are used at the same rate.

2-"Blind Owl"

"Blind Owl" is a novella which is the most popular and the most significant work of Sadeq Hedayat. This is one of the masterpieces of 20th century that has been repeatedly translated to English and French. This surrealistic novella is a monologue narrated by a person who is suffering from psychological illusion. The following tables indicate types of affixes applied in this novella:

Table 3: Derivational prefixes used in the story collection "Buried Alive"

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Affix</th>
<th>Usage</th>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-nâk</td>
<td>with noun</td>
<td>tarsnâk “terrible”</td>
<td>2 %8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-gar</td>
<td>with noun</td>
<td>jâdugar “wizard”</td>
<td>2 %8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-eš</td>
<td>With mozâre? stem</td>
<td>kušeš “effort”</td>
<td>2 %8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-yâ-y-e nesbat (attributive yâ)</td>
<td>with noun</td>
<td>sangi “stony”</td>
<td>2 %8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-âk</td>
<td>with noun</td>
<td>mardak “fellow”</td>
<td>1 %4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-vâr</td>
<td>with noun</td>
<td>mêsvar “copper like”</td>
<td>1 %4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4: Inflectional suffixes used in the novella "Blind Owl"

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Affix</th>
<th>Usage</th>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-hâ</td>
<td>with noun and demonstrative pronouns including in “this” and ân</td>
<td>divârâh “walls”-ânhâ “they”</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>%30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the first fiction work of Hedayat i.e. "Buried Alive", there is no interfixation process. The suffixation with the rate of %97 in comparison to the prefixation with the frequency of %3 has the most frequency. The suffixification by inflectional affixes with the frequency of 91% is more applicable than the suffixification by the derivational affixes with the value of 2% in this work. The usage proportion of the derivational suffixes to the derivational prefixes is high in this story collection. Their frequencies are 74% and 26% respectively. Among the inflectional suffixes, there is the more rate of application in -hâ and -am with the frequencies of 42% and 30% in this work, respectively. Based on the inflectional suffix tables, the minimum frequencies allocate to the following suffixes: -tar, -emân, -yâ-y-e nakare, -ešân, -ât, -tarin, -ân and -etân. Almost all the derivational suffixes and prefixes are used at the same rate.

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Table 4: Inflectional suffixes used in the novella "Blind Owl"

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Affix</th>
<th>Usage</th>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-hâ</td>
<td>with noun and demonstrative pronouns including in “this” and ân</td>
<td>divârâh “walls”-ânhâ “they”</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>%30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 5: Derivational suffixes used in the novella "Blind Owl"

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Affix</th>
<th>Usage</th>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Frequency Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-nâk</td>
<td>with noun</td>
<td>nammâk “moist”</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>%20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-yâ-y-e nesbat (attributive yâ)</td>
<td>with noun</td>
<td>abrišamî “silky”</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>%18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ân</td>
<td>With mozâre? stem</td>
<td>gorizân “evasive”</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>%9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ande</td>
<td>With mozâre? stem</td>
<td>zanande “nasty”</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>%9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-âne</td>
<td>with adjective</td>
<td>ahmaqâne “silly”</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>%7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-eş</td>
<td>With mozâre? stem</td>
<td>navâzeš “caress”</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>%7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-e</td>
<td>with noun</td>
<td>pâye “base”</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>%7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-čê</td>
<td>with noun</td>
<td>kâleskeči “charioteer”</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>%7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-yâ va nun-e nesbat (attributive yâ va nun)</td>
<td>with noun</td>
<td>âtāšin “fiery”</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>%5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-dân</td>
<td>with noun</td>
<td>qalamdân “penner”</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>%4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-gâh</td>
<td>with noun</td>
<td>partgâh “crag”</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>%2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-gar</td>
<td>with noun</td>
<td>afsungar “charmer”</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>%2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-kade</td>
<td>with noun</td>
<td>botkade “pagoda”</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>%2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 6: Derivational prefixes used in the novella "Blind Owl"

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Affix</th>
<th>Usage</th>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>bi-</td>
<td>with noun</td>
<td>biextiyâr “involuntary”</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nâ-</td>
<td>with noun</td>
<td>nâdân “foolish”</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bâ-</td>
<td>with noun</td>
<td>bâsafâ “pleasant”</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In this novella, just like "Buried Alive", Hedayat have not used the words that are made by the interfixation process. By comparing the suffixation and prefixation processes, we find out that suffixation has more frequency than prefixation in this novella. The proportion of this frequency is 94% to 6%. In this work, suffixation by the inflectional affixes as compared with the suffixation by the derivational affixes with the rate of 20% and 80% have the most frequency, respectively. As the tables indicate, the derivational suffixes possess more frequency than the derivational prefixes. The proportion of this frequency is 77% to 23%. The usage rate of the suffix -am with 36% and -hâ with 30% respectively, have more proportion than other inflectional suffixes. The minimum usage of inflectional suffixes belongs to -at, -emân, -ân, -ešan, -tarin, yâ-y-e nakare and -tar. Among the derivational suffixes only -nâk and -yâ-y-e nesbat in comparison with other derivational suffixes, with the rate of 20% and 80% respectively represent the most frequency in "Blind Owl". The usage frequency of other derivational suffixes is nearly at the same rate. In the aforementioned novella, derivational suffixes of -bi and -nâ have the most frequency.

3-3 "Visit"

The first story collection of Jalal Al-e Ahmad is "Visit" which there are stories like Did-o-Bâzdid-e Eyd "Nowrooz visit", Ganj "Treasure", Ziyârat "Pilgrimage", and Tâbut "coffin". The following tables indicate the applied affixes in this story collection:

Table 7: Inflectional suffixes used in the story collection "Visit"

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Affix</th>
<th>Usage</th>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-hâ</td>
<td>with noun and demonstrative pronouns including in “this” and ân “that”</td>
<td>sarhâ “heads”-ânhâ “they”</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>%50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-yâ-y-e nakare</td>
<td>with noun</td>
<td>hendevânei “a watermelon”</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>%9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-tar</td>
<td>with adjective and adverb</td>
<td>porodeltar “braver”-zudtar “sooner”</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>%8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 8: Derivational suffixes used in the story collection "Visit"

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Affix</th>
<th>Usage</th>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Frequency Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-yâ-y-e nesbat (attributive yâ)</td>
<td>with noun</td>
<td>mazhabi “religious”</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>%44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ak</td>
<td>with noun and adjective</td>
<td>češmak “wink”- javânak “chap”</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>%16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ande</td>
<td>With mozâre? stem</td>
<td>rânande “driver”</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>%8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-či</td>
<td>with noun</td>
<td>postčí “postman”</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>%8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-e</td>
<td>with noun</td>
<td>guše “corner”</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>%4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-yâ va nun-e nesbat (attributive yâ va nun-e nesbat)</td>
<td>with noun</td>
<td>xunin “bloody”</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>%4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-dân</td>
<td>with noun</td>
<td>goldân “vase”</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>%4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-gâh</td>
<td>with noun</td>
<td>âmuzešgâh “institute”</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>%4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-vâr</td>
<td>with adjective</td>
<td>divânevâr “maniac”</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>%4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-mand</td>
<td>with noun</td>
<td>kârmand “employee”</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>%4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

25-xodemân is reflexive pronoun for plural first person.
26-xodetân is reflexive pronoun for plural second person.
Table 9: Derivational prefixes used in the story collection "Visit"

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Affix</th>
<th>Usage</th>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>bi-</td>
<td>with noun</td>
<td>bisavâd “illiterate”</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bâ-</td>
<td>with noun</td>
<td>bâšo?ur “discerning”</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 10: Interfixes used in the story collection "Visit"

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Affix</th>
<th>Usage</th>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-be-</td>
<td>with two repeated nouns</td>
<td>dam be dam “constantly”</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-tâ-</td>
<td>with two repeated nouns</td>
<td>sar tâ sar “all over”</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-â-</td>
<td>with two nouns</td>
<td>sarâpâ “entirely”</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In this story collection, all of our considered affixation processes were applied. The order of frequencies of these processes from maximum to minimum is as follows: the suffixation with the rate of 93%, the prefixation with the frequency of 5%, and the interfixation with the value of 2%. Al-e Ahmad has used more the derivational suffixation by the frequency of 63% than the derivational prefixation with the rate of 38%. As it is noticed, the suffixation has the most usage in this story collection. The suffixation by the inflectional affixes is more than the suffixation by the derivational affixes. This frequency is 91% to 9%.

As indicated in the inflectional suffix tables, the suffix of -hâ allocated half of all the inflectional suffixes. The lowest frequency of the inflectional suffixes are related to the affixes like -at, -emân, -etân, and -ât. Among the derivational prefixes that Al-e Ahmad used in this story collection yây-e nesbat prefix allocated the most rate of frequency by %44 –which is nearly half of all the frequency of suffixes– as compared with the other suffixes. Of all the interfixes, be has the highest frequency.

4-2 "The School Principal"

"The School Principal" is the shortest, the best, and the most eminent work among the other novels of Jalal Al-e Ahmad. In this novella, the author attempts to represent Iranian people and their social situation as it seemed in the real life of 1951’s. Therefore its style would be considered as Realistic (Payandeh, 2009: 70). The kinds of affixes that are used in this story are as follows:

Table 11: Inflectional suffixes used in the novella "The School Principal"

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Affix</th>
<th>Usage</th>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-hâ</td>
<td>with noun and demonstrative pronouns</td>
<td>adâhâ “gestures”- inhâ “they”</td>
<td>118</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
including in “this” and ān “that”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Affix</th>
<th>Usage</th>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Frequency Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-aš</td>
<td>with noun and common pronoun including xod (self)</td>
<td>kotāš “his/her coat”- xodaš “himself/herself”</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>%16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-yā-y-e nakare</td>
<td>with noun</td>
<td>bāqi “a garden”</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>%11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-am</td>
<td>with noun and common pronoun including xod (self)</td>
<td>nazaram “my opinion”- xodam “myself”</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>%9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-tar</td>
<td>with adjective and adverb</td>
<td>bolandtar “taller”- zudtar “sooner”</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>%8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ešan</td>
<td>with noun and common pronoun including xod (self)</td>
<td>xânevâde-y-ešân “their family”- xodešân “themselves”</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>%6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-āt</td>
<td>with noun</td>
<td>ehsâsāt “feelings”</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>%4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ān</td>
<td>with noun</td>
<td>pellekān “stairs”</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>%1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-tarin</td>
<td>with adjective</td>
<td>kučektarin “thesmallest”</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>%1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-at</td>
<td>with common pronoun including xod (self)</td>
<td>xodat “yourself”</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>%1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-emān</td>
<td>with common pronoun including xod (self)</td>
<td>xodemān “ourselves”</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>%1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 12: Derivational suffixes used in the novella "The School Principal"**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Affix</th>
<th>Usage</th>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Frequency Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-ak</td>
<td>with noun</td>
<td>pesarak “laddie”</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>%32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-če</td>
<td>with noun</td>
<td>gāliche “rug”</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>%13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-āne</td>
<td>with adjective</td>
<td>nāšiyāne “clumsily”</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>%13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-gāh</td>
<td>with noun</td>
<td>dānešgāh “university”</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>%7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-yā-y-e nesbat (attributive yā)</td>
<td>with noun</td>
<td>dehâti “rustic”</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>%7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-setān</td>
<td>with noun</td>
<td>farangesiān “Europe”</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>%7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-e</td>
<td>with noun</td>
<td>gušē “corner”</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>%7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-eš</td>
<td>with bon-e (stem) mozāre?</td>
<td>varzeš “exercise”</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>%7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-gar</td>
<td>with noun</td>
<td>hesābgar “calculator”</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>%7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 13: Derivational prefixes used in the novella "The School Principal"**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Affix</th>
<th>Usage</th>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>bi-</td>
<td>with noun</td>
<td>binasib “deprived”</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 14: Interfixes used in the novella "The School Principal"

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Affix</th>
<th>Usage</th>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-ā-</td>
<td>with two repeated nouns</td>
<td>garmāgarm “amid”</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

All of the concerned affixation processes in this research allocate proportion of the frequency in this novella. The suffixation has maximum rate with the frequency of %97 and there are the lowest rate of frequency in the prefixation and interfixation with the value of %3 and %1. The affixation by the inflectional affixes with the frequency of %95 is more than the affixation by the derivational affixes with the rate of %5. Statistically, the derivational suffixes with the frequency of %79 have the most application in proportion to the derivational prefixes with the rate of %21. Al-e Ahmad in this fiction work, among the inflectional suffixes employed more -hâ suffix than the other suffixes. This suffix, which approximately owns half of the entire inflectional suffix frequencies, has the frequency of %42. Findings demonstrate that the inflectional suffixes like -at, -emân, -tarin, and -ān have the lowest rate of frequency among the inflectional suffixes. Of all the derivational suffixes used in "The School Principal", -ak suffix by the frequency of %32 has the most usage than the other derivational suffixes. Al-e Ahmad has used interfixation process just once in his work.

3-Results

Hedayat in "Buried Alive" and "Blind Owl" has used all of the affixation processes except interfixation in forming words. The suffixation was the most process with the frequency of %96 in his works. The prefixation was the second process with the frequency of %4. The suffixation by the inflectional affixes was more than the suffixation by the derivational affixes and the proportion of their usage is %86 comparing to %14 respectively. Application rate of the derivational suffixes with the value of %76 was more than the derivational prefixes by the frequency of %24. Among the inflectional suffixes, -hâ and -am affixes with the rate of %34 for each allocated the highest frequency respectively. As indicated in the previous part of -hâ and am suffixes in Hedayat’s works, the rate of -hâ suffix in "Buried Alive" was more than "Blind Owl". This frequency was 103 figures (equivalent to %39) and 67 (equivalent to %30) respectively. The suffix of -am in his considered works had the same frequency approximately. The frequency of this affix is 86 figures (equivalent to %32) in "Buried Alive" and 81 figures (equivalent to %36) in "Blind Owl". By comparing the frequency of -hâ and -am suffixes in the mentioned works it can be concluded that as the application rate of these suffixes in his first work was more than or equal to his prominent one, the affixation by -hâ and -am suffixes could not be the part of the morphological stylistic features of Hedayat’s works. In order to consider a lingual element or a phenomenon as particular stylistic traits of a writer, the rate of that particular element should be less in his first work and then by practicing and repeating that lingual element, its frequency gradually goes up to be appeared in his eminent work obviously. It is clear that the
individual style of a writer is not formed at once; rather it is constituted by passing time. One of the reasons of using more -hâ suffix among the plural inflectional suffixes in the considered works of Hedayat is that general tendency to apply -hâ plural suffix is more than other plural suffixes in Persian language, since the usage field of this suffix is so extensive. It could be used with animate and inanimate nouns and demonstrative pronouns. The reason of using more -am suffix in Hedayat’s work is that he himself is the narrator of "Blind Owl". That is, viewpoint of this novella is singular first person. In the story collection "Buried Alive" the narrator of some of short stories like "Buried Alive" and "Madeleine" is the writer. Although the view point is singular third person in most of short stories of this story collection like "Hadji Murad", "David crook-back", "The sister", "Dead Eaters", and "Water of Life", the conversations between the characters in these short stories are singular first person.

Al-e Ahmad in his works "Visit" and "The School Principal" which are respectively his first and the most significant works employed all of the affixation processes including suffixation, prefixation and interfixation. The suffixation with the frequency of %96 allocated the first place of affixation. The prefixation and interfixation with the rate of %3 and %1 are placed at the next levels of frequency, respectively. The affixation by the Inflectional affixes was more than the affixation by the derivational affixes. The rates of these affixes are %93 to %7. Al-e Ahmad among the inflectional suffixes used -hâ suffix more than the other inflectional suffixes in his two fiction works. The frequency of this affix is 130 figures (equivalent to 50%) and 118 figures (equivalent to 42%) respectively in the first and the most prominent of his fiction works. According to achieved findings, the usage rate of -hâ suffix in "Visit" was more than "The School Principal". The extensive usage of this affix could not be regarded as a morphological stylistic feature of Al-e Ahmad’s fiction works, since he applied -hâ suffix more in his first work than his prominent one. In order to consider a lingual phenomenon as particular stylistic properties of a writer, that lingual phenomenon from his first to most prominent work should have an ascending process not descending. The reasons of using -hâ suffix in Jalal Al-e Ahmad’s works can be the same as what has been discussed about Hedayat’ works. The above elaborations about the study of affixation process indicate the accuracy of our hypothesis since there was no morphological style as regards the affixation in Hedayat’s and Al-e Ahmad’s works. It seems the reason might be that these writers decided to make people aware of the condition of their society. So the message they wanted to express was important for them and they did not focus on the artistic aspects of the language, at least in the morphological facet. These writers regarded the language as a means to communicate with their audiences, not regarding the language as a purpose.

Looking at the analysis of Hedayat’s and Al Ahmad’s works as regards the affixation process we discover that the suffixation with the rate of %95 has been the most affixation that the writers used it and the interfixation had the least usage with the frequency of %1. The frequency of prefixation which is placed between these processes in frequency terms was %4. In the examined four works, the suffixation by the inflectional affixes is more than the suffixation by the
derivational. The usage frequency of each is %90 and %10 respectively. The high application of suffixation process in these works is due to this fact that the Persian language is generally a suffixal language. Comparing the aforementioned numbers of prefixes and suffixes in the works of Iranian researchers such as Koshani (1992), Kalbasi (1992), Sadeqi (1991), and Moqarrabi (1993) indicate this matter (Shaqaqi, 2008: 85). It seems as the diversity of interfixes are less in comparison with the inflectional suffixes and the derivational suffixes and prefixes, this process was used less in Hedayat’s and Al-e Ahmad’s works.

References

The Heart’s Desire versus the Dictates of Reality: Exploring Zimbabwe and Africa’s Tongue Aches

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Abstract: The following article is a reaction to a number of emotional ones which appear in various literatures bemoaning the continued marginalization of African languages even in independent countries. This paper argues that globally dominant languages especially English, French, Spanish and Arabic have ceased to be preserves of their original countries—they have become part of African culture and should be embraced. It would be foolhardy to throw away the said languages because of the way in which they found their way to Africa. Implementing language policies is an expensive undertaking that many African countries cannot afford. Expenses aside, there is also the question of feasibility and logistics. For instance out of the 220 African languages in the D.R.C. which one/s should be the official one/s? It is not a question of replacing a former colonizer’s language with an African one because very few African countries are monolingual. Such decisions have far-reaching socio-politico-economic implications and are very likely to be vehemently and violently resisted. A global village requires a global language, or a few languages, for wider communication. Reality dictates that not all languages can be used thus. Therefore some languages will be, in the eyes of society (and not intrinsically), more equal than others. It should be stressed again that this is a societal construct and may it be emphasized that this paper is not advocating the death of local languages. On the contrary these will continue to be indispensable for intranational and limited international communication. The educational satchel has limited space and cannot therefore carry everything our hearts desire. This may sound cruel, callous and unAfrican to some (who might even call for my tongue!) but it is reality not Utopian idealism.

Key words: Language, Education, Marginalization, Globalization
Background

The author of this article, it should be stated from the onset, has absolutely no quarrels with recognition of indigenous African Languages and fully shares what UNESCO stated more than half a century ago thus:

Psychologically the mother tongue is the system of meaningful signs that in the child’s mind works automatically for expression and understanding. Sociologically it is a means of identification among the members of the community to which he (sic) belongs. Educationally he (sic) learns more quickly through it than through an unfamiliar linguistic medium. (UNESCO, cited in Mazrui (Ed.), 1993:531)

The teaching of African languages including the so-called Minority Languages up to tertiary level is a very noble ideal but one wonders on the feasibility of implementing such endeavours especially taking cognizance of the fact that most of Africa is ultra multi lingual with the exception of less than ten which have a threshold of 90%+ namely Burundi (99 % Kirundi), Lesotho,(99% Sotho),Somalia (98% Somali),Madagascar (98% Malagasy), Botswana (97% Tswana),Seychelles (93 % Creole), Rwanda (95% Kinyarwanda) Mauritius (94% Creole ) and Swaziland (91%Swazi ) (Bambgose,1991).

What ‘experts’ always say and never do.

The UNESCO pronouncement quoted earlier was made almost sixty years ago yet very little has been done to fulfill it. This shows that there is something wrong with the implementers or the goal that might be too lofty to be achieved. The following UNESCO-sponsored conferences are further examples of the rhetoric that has been going on on the uplifting of African languages for more than half a century:

1. Meeting of Specialists on the Use of Vernacular languages in Education, Paris, 15 November-3 December, 1951 where pronouncements were made in favour of mother tongue use in education.

2. Meeting of Experts on the Contribution of African languages to Cultural Activities and Literacy Programmes, Yaounde, 1970 which examined current use of African languages and their values as instruments of education and sociocultural developments and suggested measures to be taken to promote such values.

4. Inter-governmental Conference on Cultural Policies in Africa: Languages and Oral Traditions, Accra, 1975 recommended the choice of one or more National Languages, a more intensive study of languages and increased use of these languages as media of instruction and in mass literacy.


6. Meeting of Experts on the Use of African Regional and Sub-regional languages as Media of Culture and means of communication on the continent, Bamako, 1979 recommended the promotion of languages spoken across national boundaries as a means of enhancing inter-African Communication and their use for administrative, political and economic purposes (Bamgbose, 1991).

The above are quite high sounding and intentions on paper quite musical to Pan-African ears but what the high-level meetings have achieved leaves a lot to be desired.

In addition to the above Macel Diouf cited in Mutasa (2006) cites the following which again have achieved close to nothing in terms of uplifting African languages especially in not only dislodging the erstwhile colonizers’ languages as the official ones but also in providing space for them on the school curriculum and other uses:

1. The OAU Charter of 1963 Article 29 adopted and states that the working languages of the organization should be African languages as well as English, French and Portuguese however only Ethiopia used her indigenous language, Amharic, at the OAU from 1963 to 1991.

2. The Pan-African cultural Manifesto of Algiers, 1969 which recommended the translation of works and use of African languages however nothing much was achieved.

3. The Final Report on the Intergovernmental Conference on Cultural Policies in Africa, Accra, Ghana. Its achievement was the establishment of regional centres and nothing pertaining to the use of African languages in teaching, at government level or intergovernmental conferences was achieved.

4. The Cultural Charter for Africa adopted by the OAU, in July 1976, Port Louis, Mauritius. This did not bring any meaningful change in the actual use of African languages in intergovernmental instances.

5. The Treaty establishing the African Union in 2000 in Lome, Togo. The document which replaces the 1963 OAU Charter reintroduces the possibility of using African languages in various organs of the African Union thirty seven years after the initial undertakings.
The sentiments expressed by some speakers about yet another UNESCO-hosted gathering, ‘Language Policy Planning Conference’ held in Harare in 1997 that it ‘was one of several rhetoric-laden gatherings held using ‘hard-sourced’ funds without any positive outcome’ (Mumpande, 2006: 5-6) can be said of its predecessors cited above and most probably its successors in future.

The current Zimbabwean linguistic landscape

In Zimbabwe there are 17 African languages namely ChiShona, Ndebele, Kalanga, Tonga, Nyanja /Chewa, Shangani, Sotho, Venda, Chikunda/Sena, Tswana, Xhosa, Tonga (Mudzi), Nambya, Tswana, Wesa and Barwe. (Source: Inter-governmental Conference on Linguistic Policies in Africa, Harare, 20-21 March 1997). The current Zimbabwean linguistic landscape can be referred to as polyglossic (poly-many and glossia-language) with English assuming a superordinate or high status and the other languages assuming subordinate statuses. Polyglossia is a term which is related to diglossia a concept first used by Ferguson to describe “a situation where two, very different varieties of a language co-occur throughout a speech community each with a distinct range of social functions.” (Crystal, 1992:103)

The Zimbabwean situation subscribes partially to Fishman’s concept of diglossia where English, as the Official language, assumes the High status and Shona and Ndebele, which are described in Zimbabwe as National languages, and all the other African languages the low. The other African languages are referred to as Minority languages. This shows that the languages are stratified, which means there are some which are regarded as more important than others. English as the High variety is used in more formal situations such as the Executive, the Legislature and the Judiciary, is considered to be more prestigious by the users and has a richer literary heritage than the African languages. The former is used in such supranational organizations as the U.N., SADC and A.U. Since indigenous languages are not used for formal international communication they have tended to be accorded an inferior status. English is viewed as a master key one can use to open doors of opportunity, not only locally but also outside our borders, more so with the advent of globalization which has resulted in the world becoming small and English assuming a very dominant role in it. Locally the language is a passport to post ‘O’-level education and training. Such practices give the language an edge over the local ones not because of its intrinsic superiority but because of the greatness thrust upon it by history. This situation whereby English enjoys an unfair advantage over the others is a historical antecedent, which we cannot wish away. The polyglossic scenario can be represented diagrammatically as follows (not all languages have been included):
N.B. This is an extended version of Fishman’s concept of ‘diglossia’. The addition is the lower high varieties, which, though subordinate to the High are also highs in as far as the minority languages are concerned. This scenario prevails in situations whereby children from minority groups learn their mother tongue up to Grade 3 then switch on to Shona or Ndebele. We can also have a lower low variety when a learner’s mother tongue is not on the school curriculum so a child acquires a mother tongue then learns, from Grade1-3 a new minority language before switching again to yet another new language, a national language before learning the official language. This is the situation with children of migrant workers from neighbouring countries who are mainly situated on farms and mines.

The different statuses are not inherent in the languages concerned but are societal constructs; it is society which decides whether a code is a dialect or a language, official or national or even minority. In spite of the fact that English is spoken natively by about 1% of the Zimbabwean population, for example, it is the official language.

How feasible is teaching all African languages up to high school or tertiary level?

As pointed out earlier there are 17 African languages in Zimbabwe. Out of these, two, Shona and Ndebele are taught up to university while Venda and Shangani are taught at university level (at Great Zimbabwe University). It is noble, ideal, patriotic, pan-Africanist etc to lobby for the teaching and learning of the rest of the African languages up to the aforementioned level but do we have the resources to:

- Train the suitable teachers.

- Translate Shona and Ndebele existing textbooks, dictionaries and novels or publish new ones for the other languages. At the moment there is a dearth of reading materials throughout the education sector: books are simply beyond the reach of the majority. If they are available they
are not accessible, for example even professionals are finding it difficult to buy daily or weekly newspapers let alone novels or books which are now costing an arm and a leg.

Set and mark examinations in all the 17 languages and pay the markers meaningfully. Currently the Zimbabwe Schools Examinations Council (ZIMSEC) is struggling to attract and retain experienced personnel to mark and process examinations. The 2012 marking of Grade 7 examinations was delayed by two weeks because of cash flow problems. The whole national budget would be required to train the required personnel and provide study materials and examine the candidates.

The Permanent Secretary’s Circular 3 of 2002 dated 28 January 2002 has the following as one of its expected learning outcomes under the Primary School Curriculum ‘Communicate effectively in both the written and spoken forms of the local languages and English’ (p2). The same circular states:

…all primary schools should offer the following subjects from grades 1 to 7:

Shona or Ndebele up to Grade 7…Tonga, Kalanga, Nambya, Venda, Shangani and Sotho as mother tongues will be introduced in their respective areas in phases as follows:

Up to grade 4 in 2002
Up to grade 5 in 2003
Up to grade 6 in 2004
Up to grade 7 in 2005

These subjects will be offered together with Shona or Ndebele…’(p3)

The circular specifies only six out of the fourteen so-called minority languages. Such silence on Barwe, Chewa, Chikunda, Doma, Fingo/Xhosa, Hwesa, Tswana and Tswawo, is unfortunate. Some may ask if some so-called minority languages are more equal than others. If the decision is to upgrade so-called minority languages then there should be no favourites otherwise, the critics of the dominance of English risk falling into their own trap.

In an article entitled ‘Schools To Start Teaching Minority Language Subjects’ The Sunday Mail of 20-26 August 2006 says:

Schools will begin teaching minority languages next year and the government has given ZIMSEC the green light to make the subjects examinable up to Zimbabwe Junior Certificate…
This came out of a Zimbabwe Indigenous Languages Promotion Association (ZILPA) meeting which was attended by the relevant Permanent Secretary, Chief Shana and Chief Nekatambe from Hwange and the programme director of Silveira House, a Catholic organization working with the Basilwizi Trust in promoting and facilitating workshops on local languages. ‘Next year’ in the above quotation refers to 2007 and according to The Permanent Secretary’s Circular 3 of 2002 the announcement was by the time of publication of the article already behind schedule. In fact the Zimbabwe Junior Certificate is yet to be resuscitated and very little of teaching of the said languages is being done beyond grade three at the moment. According to the said article ZILPA president Ephraim Makwati the association was proposing that Tonga, Kalanga, Nambya, Venda, Shangani and Sotho be examined by the said year.. These are only six of the fifteen affected languages. Are there some so-called minority languages which are more important than others? If not why should these chosen few go as far as Z.J.C. at the expense of Barwe, Chewa, Chikunda, Doma, Fingo/Xhosa, Hwesa,Tswana and Tswawo? Are the so-called minority languages already stratified? What was the criterion used to select the six? According to the Inter-governmental Conference on Linguistic Policies in Africa Chewa has 1% speakers while Venda, Shangani and Sotho have less than 1% each. Why then were the latter chosen ahead of the former if the criterion of percentage of speakers was used? Is it a question of the clout of those representing the language?

If the policy outlined in The Permanent Secretary’s Circular 3 of 2002 above had been attended to Tonga, Kalanga, Nambya, Venda, Shangani and Sotho would have had their first grade seven graduates in 2005 and could have been offered at Form 1 level in 2006,Form 2,in 2007 and Form 3 in 2008 but this was not the case. It should be pointed out that some of the languages are now (2012) being examined at Grade 7.The programme is largely lagging pathetically way behind schedule in spite of just wishing to introduce the languages as subjects and not as media of instruction, which is more demanding. This is a typical example of how policy does not always graduate into practice.

Let us briefly go beyond our borders and look briefly at the linguistic scenarios there:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>No. of African languages</th>
<th>Official language/s</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nigeria</td>
<td>394</td>
<td>Hausa (North of the country)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Yoruba (West of the country)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Igbo (East of the country)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>English (Whole country)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chad</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>Arabic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cameroon</td>
<td>237</td>
<td>English</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
How feasible is it for Nigeria, for instance, with her 394 languages to teach all of them up to university? Congo had a population of 1,740,000 in 1987 and 31 languages (Bamgbose, 1991) an average of 56,129,032 first language speakers per language while The Central African Republic had 3,400,000 inhabitants and 68 languages (Robinson and Varley cited in Mumpande, 2006) an average of 50,000 first language speakers per language. In the case of these two countries, which have been taken as examples, the powers that be may want to see mother tongues being used as per recommendations from UNESCO, A.U. and many other fora but the cost of just catering for a handful users may be prohibitive. In fact of the few speakers only a small percentage will be in school. In the light of the astronomical costs involved, we should be contented with ensuring that the minority languages are at least taught meaningfully up to Grade 3 wherever such speech communities exist.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Number of Languages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>D.R.C.</td>
<td>220</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C.A.R.</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gabon</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Statistics extracted from UNESCO, cited in Mazrui (Ed.): 1993

It is the contention of the author of this paper that:

- Globally dominant languages especially English, French, Spanish and Arabic have ceased to be preserves of their original countries—they have become part of African culture if ‘culture’ still refers to a way of living not, as many seem to believe, something to be kept in a locker to be brought out as need arises on ‘culture days’ or when entertaining tourists and foreign dignitaries. Though colonialism was a painful experience, it cannot be wished away together with its entrenched institutions—physical and otherwise (language policies inclusive). It would be foolhardy to throw away the said languages because of the way in which they found their way to Africa.

- Implementing language policies is an expensive undertaking that many African countries cannot afford. Expenses aside, there is also the question of feasibility and logistics. For instance out of the 220 African languages in the D.R.C. which one/s should be the official one/s? It is not a question of replacing a former colonizer’s language with an African one because very few African countries are monolingual. Such decisions have far-reaching socio-politico-economic implications and are very likely to be vehemently and violently resisted.
• A global village requires a global language, or a few languages, for wider communication. Reality dictates that not all languages can be used thus. Therefore some languages will be, in the eyes of society (and not intrinsically), more equal than others. It should be stressed again that this is a societal construct and may it be emphasized that this paper is not advocating the death of local languages. On the contrary these will continue to be indispensable for intranational and limited international communication.

The way forward linguistically

Minority languages should continue to be taught up to Grade 3. It is this paper’s contention that the African peoples of this country share many cultural traits eg. quite a number of proverbs are direct translations. This shows that people from different sub-cultures share a common worldview or at least a large chunk of it. Lawton, a renowned curricularist, views curriculum (what is taught in school) as “a selection from culture” (Lawton, 1975:6). We cannot run away from ‘selection’ in education because we simply do not have the time and resources to include everything our hearts desire. Even the ‘lucky languages’ which are taught up to university are still subjected to this process—not everything in them can fit on the timetable and in various syllabi. Of course there are various nuances, which differentiate one subculture from another, and we are fully aware of those. By the way, even in a monolingual scenario one will find the idiolects, sociolects and dialects which refer to peculiarities in the use of a language by an individual, a sub-group and even a larger social group in a speech community, respectively. There is so much in culture that selection, in spite of its inherent shortcomings, is still desirable and inevitable.

We need to maximize what we have in place linguistically. For instance Shona and Ndebele, the National languages should be written on different days instead of concurrently to enable bilingual learners and those who have a flair for languages to study and write them in one sitting. This will greatly benefit the many bilingual communities especially in the Midlands, Matebeleland and Masvingo provinces. This also means that the school timetables need to cater for learners who would like to study both. Such a move would go a long way in fostering national unity and harmony. A combination of English, Shona and Ndebele would be ideal for someone intending to pursue a career in eg. Journalism, education, law, public relations etc.

English has now become one of the world languages (used for wider communication) not just a preserve of the English people. It has been a unifying force in countries where it is not a National language. If the truth be said, many non-English speakers would rather have English as their lingua franca than any of the local ones for various reasons. Non-Shona speakers in this country would raise hell if Shona, spoken by 75% of the population, was to be elevated to official language status. They would rather wrestle with the imported language which is only spoken natively by approximately 1% of the Zimbabwean populace and which has a much wider social
distance from their own! The following sentiments on Nigeria may also prove true for other multilingual African countries:

In Nigeria, there is no politically neutral language. In fact, the division into three major regions reflects the three poles: Hausa, Yoruba, Ibo. The political survival of Nigeria as a country would be even more seriously threatened than it is if any one of these three languages were promoted by the government as being the one National Language. (Nida and Wonderly, 1971: 65)

If we agree that English can unify us, why can’t we embrace it and adapt it to suit our local needs? Many renowned African authors began this process way back by writing in a distinctly African idiom or flavour. What comes quickly to mind are works by such literary gurus as Charles Mungoshi, Chinua Achebe, Ngugi wa Thion’go and Chenjerai Hove. Works such as Waiting for the Rain, Bones and Things Fall Apart have received international acclaim in spite of being written in ‘African flavoured English’ in parts. This is evidence enough to show that English can be adapted to reflect our own sensibilities as a people. However, we should hasten to point out that this new variety should not stray too far from code(s) used internationally in order to maintain mutual intelligibility with the rest of the world. Of course we should continue to develop our local languages for they are indispensable for intranational communication.

Countries which share a language, which are quite many in Africa, for example:

-10% of Mozambicans are Shona-speaking.

-Kiswahili, which is spoken by 90% Tanzanians, is also spoken in Kenya, Uganda, D.R.C., Burundi, Rwanda, Mozambique, Malawi, Somalia and Zambia.

-Hausa, which is spoken, by 32% of Nigerians is also spoken in Niger, Chad, Ghana and Cameroon.

(Source: UNESCO cited in Mazrui (Ed.): 1993)

This could alleviate problems in as far as provision of reading materials and personnel are concerned, by linking up with sister nations in the region where there are established literary heritages in the said languages and excess experts. Transnational bureaus could be established to oversee the implementation of such policies. In as far as this cross-pollination is concerned, Great Zimbabwe University in Masvingo is already benefiting from personnel from the University of Venda who are teaching Venda and Shangani in the Faculty of Arts.

**Conclusion**

Languages were originally meant to be taught primarily at home with parents, siblings and other relatives as unpaid tutors in a situation where the learner was immersed in the
language. The modern set-up requires us to build educational institutions in which to teach the children and to draft a timetable, purchase learning materials and pay the tutors. This artificial set-up, which is as artificial as formula milk, should not be expected to be a panacea to solve our language teaching and learning problems. The educational satchel has limited space and cannot therefore carry everything our hearts desire. This may sound cruel, callous and unAfrican to some (who might even call for my tongue!) but it is reality not Utopian idealism. This is why 59 years after UNESCO’s proclamation on the virtues of teaching in the mother tongue not much has been done to change the linguistic scenario which obtained in colonial times (We suggest that this phenomenon, whereby an independent people perpetuates linguistic policies of their erstwhile colonizer, be christened linguistic inertia). Teaching and examining all minority languages up to tertiary level (even up to O-level) is a 21st century pipe dream for most African countries akin to the Rozvi’s dream to reach the moon on a magnanimous wooden ladder, emotionally appealing but difficult to realize.

References

The English, German, and French Cognates of Arabic Back
Consonants: A Lexical Root Theory Approach

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Abstract: This paper investigates the phonemic cognates of Arabic back consonants in English mainly besides German, French, and Latin. Using the lexical root theory as a theoretical framework, it shows that Arabic and English, for example, not only belong to the same family but also to the same language, contrary to traditional Comparative (Historical Linguistics) Method claims that they are not. The data consists of representative examples containing the pharyngeals /2 & 3/, the velar fricatives /kh & gh/, the uvular and velar stops /q & k/, the glottal fricative and stop /h & '/. The results show that they developed into similar ones in European languages which were either more advanced than their Arabic counterparts (e.g., /q, k/ → /t/) or unique to European languages such as /v/ which substituted for the pharyngeals and velar fricatives in the main. In other words, all the above Arabic sounds have true cognates with the same or similar forms and functions, irrespective of minor phonetic and morphological changes.

Keywords: Back consonants, Arabic, English, German, French, Latin, historical linguistics, lexical root theory

1. Introduction

The lexical root theory was first proposed in Jassem's (2012a) study of numeral words to establish the genetic relationship between Arabic and English, in particular, and all (Indo-)European languages in general, thus rejecting the claims of the Comparative 'Historical Linguistics' Method that Arabic and English, German, French, and so on belong to different language families (Bergs and Brinton 2012; Algeo 2010; Crystal 2010: 302; Campbell 2006: 190-191; Crowley 1997: 22-25, 110-111; Pyles and Algeo 1993: 61-94). The main reasons for that were: (a) geographical continuity and/or proximity, (b) persistent cultural interaction and similarity, and (c) linguistic similarity between Arabic and such languages (see Jassem 2013b for further detail).

Linguistically, the evidence was decisive, compelling, and clear-cut. In his investigation of all the numeral words from one to trillion in Arabic, English, German, French, Latin, Greek and Sanskrit, Jassem (2012a) showed that all are the same or similar in form and meaning in general,
forming true cognates with Arabic as their end origin. Jassem (2012b) examined common contextualized religious terms such as *Hallelujah*, *God*, *Anno Domini*, *Christianity*, *Judaism*, *welcome*, *worship*, and so on, which were also found to have true Arabic cognates. *Hallelujah*, for instance, is a reversal and shortening of the Arabic phrase *la ilaha illa Allah* ‘(There's) no god but Allah (God)’ as follows:

\[
\begin{align*}
Halle & + \quad lu & + \quad jah \\
Allah & \quad la & ilaaha & \& \quad illa \\
'God' & \quad 'no' & 'god' & \& \quad 'except'.
\end{align*}
\]

That is, *Halle* and *Allah* are the reverse of each other, *lu* and *la* (pronounced *lo* also) are the same, *jah* is a shortening of both *ilaaha* 'god' and *illa* 'but, except' which sound almost the same. Jassem (2012c) showed that personal pronouns in Arabic, English, German, French, Latin and related languages are true cognates, which descend from Arabic directly. Jassem (2012d) examined determiners like *the*, *this*, *an*, *both*, *a lot*, *very* in English, German, French, and Latin which were all found to have identical Arabic cognates. Jassem (2012e) established the Arabic genetic origins of verb *to be* forms in those languages. Jassem (2012f) showed that inflectional 'plural and gender' markers formed true cognates in all. Jassem (2013a) demonstrated the Arabic origins of English, German, and French derivational morphemes like *activity*, *activate*, *determine*, *whiten*. Finally, Jassem (2013b) dealt with the Arabic origins of negative particles and words like *in/no* in English and its sisters.

The lexical root theory has been used as the theoretical framework in all, which is so called because of employing the lexical (consonantal) root in examining genetic relationships between words like the derivation of *rewritten* from *write* (or simply *wrt*). The main reason for that is because it carries and determines the basic meaning of the word regardless of affixation such as *overwrite*, *underwrite*, *writing*. Historically speaking, all classical Arabic dictionaries (e.g., Ibn Manzoor 1974) used consonantal roots in listing lexical entries, first founded by Alkhaleel bin Ahmad Alfarahheed (Jassem 2012e).

The lexical root theory has a simple structure, comprised of a theoretical construct, hypothesis or principle and five practical procedures. The principle states that Arabic and English as well as (Indo)European languages are not only genetically related but also are directly descended from one language, which may be Arabic in the end. In fact, it claims in its strongest version that they are all dialects of the same language. The applied procedures for analyzing lexical roots are (i) methodological, (ii) lexicological, (iii) linguistic, (iv) relational, and (v) comparative/historical. As all have been reasonably described in the previous studies (Jassem 2012a-f, 2013a-b), only a brief summary will be given below.
The methodological procedure concerns data collection, selection, and statistical analysis. Apart from loan words, all language words, affixes or morphemes, and phonemes may be subject to study, and not only the core vocabulary as is commonly practiced in the field (Bergs and Brinton 2012; Crystal 2010; Pyles and Algeo 1993: 76-77; Crowley 1997: 88-90, 175-178). However, data selection is inevitable practically for which the most appropriate way would be to use semantic fields like the present and the above topics. The steady accumulation of evidence from such findings will aid in formulating rules and laws of language change later (cf. Jassem 2012f, 2013a-b). The statistical analysis employs the percentage formula (see 2.2 below).

The lexicological procedure is the first step in the analysis. Words are analyzed by (i) deleting affixes (e.g., overwritten → write), (ii) using primarily consonantal roots (e.g., write → wrt), and (iii) search for correspondence in meaning on the basis of word etymologies and origins (e.g., Harper 2012).

The linguistic procedure handles the analysis of the phonetic, morphological, grammatical and semantic structure and differences between words. The phonetic analysis considers sound changes within and across categories. That is, consonants may change their place and manner of articulation as well as voicing. Change by place relates to bilabial consonants ↔ labio-dental ↔ dental ↔ alveolar ↔ palatal ↔ velar ↔ uvular ↔ pharyngeal ↔ glottal (where ↔ signals change in both directions); manner change concerns stops ↔ fricatives ↔ affricates ↔ nasals ↔ laterals ↔ approximants; and change by voice indicates voiced consonants ↔ voiceless. Similarly, vowels may change as well. The three basic long Arabic vowels /a:/ (aa), /i:/ (ee), & /u:/ (oo) (and their short versions besides the two diphthongs /ai (ay)/ and /au (aw)/ which are a kind of /i:/ and /u:/ respectively), may change according to (i) tongue part (e.g., front ↔ centre ↔ back), (ii) tongue height (e.g., high ↔ mid ↔ low), (iii) length (e.g., long ↔ short), and (iv) lip shape (e.g., round ↔ unround). These have additional allophones or variants which do not change meaning (see Jassem 2003: 98-113). Although English has a larger number of about 20 vowels, which vary from accent to accent (Roach 2009; Celce-Murcia et al 2010), they can still be treated within this framework. Furthermore, vowels are marginal in significance which may be totally ignored because the changes are limited in nature and do not affect the final result at all. In fact, the functions of vowels are grammatical such as indicating tense (e.g., sing, sang, sung, song) and plurality (e.g., man/men) and phonetic to link consonants to each other in speech.

Such sound changes result in processes like assimilation, dissimilation, deletion, merger, insertion, split, syllable loss, resyllabification, consonant cluster reduction or creation and so on. Finally, Sound change may operate in a multi-directional, cyclic, and lexically-diffuse or irregular manner. The criterion in all the changes is naturalness and plausibility; for example, the change from /k/ (e.g., kirk, ecclesiastic), a voiceless velar stop, to /ch/ (e.g., church), a voiceless
The morphological and grammatical analyses overlap. The former examines the inflectional and derivational aspects of the grammar in general (Jassem 2012f, 2013a-b); the latter handles grammatical categories like pronouns, case, and word order (Jassem 2012c-d). Since their influence on the basic meaning of the lexical root is marginal, they may be ignored altogether.

The semantic analysis looks at meaning relationships between words, including lexical stability, multiplicity, convergence, divergence, shift, split, change, and variability. Stability means that word meanings have remained constant. Multiplicity denotes that words might have two or more meanings. Convergence means two or more formally and semantically similar Arabic words might have yielded the same cognate in English. Divergence signals that words have become opposites or antonyms of one another. Shift indicates that words have switched their sense within the same field. Lexical split means a word led to two different cognates. Change means a new meaning developed. Variability occurs in the presence of two or more variants for the same word.

The relational procedure examines and accounts for the relationship between form and meaning from three perspectives: formal and semantic similarity (e.g., three, third, tertiary and Arabic thalath 'three' (Damascus Arabic talaat (see Jassem 2012a)), formal similarity but semantic difference (e.g., ship and sheep (see Jassem 2012b), and formal difference but semantic similarity (e.g., quarter, quadrant and cadre from Arabic qeeraaT '1/4' (Jassem 2012a)).

Finally, in the comparative historical analysis, every word in English in particular and German, French, and Latin in general is compared with its Arabic counterpart phonetically, morphologically, and semantically on the basis of its history and development in English (e.g., Harper 2012; Pyles and Algeo 1993; Algeo 2010) and Arabic (e.g., Ibn Manzour 1974; Ibn Seedah 1996; Alsuya'Ti 2010) besides the author's knowledge of both Arabic as a first language and English as a second language.

The lexical root theory will be applied in this paper to the investigation of the correlates or cognates of Arabic back consonant phonemes in English, German, French, and Latin to show their genetic relationship to and/or their descent from Arabic. It has six sections: an introduction, research methods, data, results, a discussion, and a conclusion.

2. Research Methods

2.1 Data Sampling: Back Consonants
Arabic, English, German, French, Latin, and Greek share similar sound systems in general. Arabic has 28 letters or phonemes—25 consonants and 3 basic long vowels /aa, oo, & ee/, representing both vowels and semi-vowels. All the consonants are generally the same as their English, German, and French counterparts. However, Arabic has some special 'back' consonants, which are produced at the back of the mouth as a result of three articulatory processes. The first is contact between the back of the tongue and the velum or uvula, producing four sounds in all: /k/, a voiceless velar stop, /kh/, a voiceless velar fricative, /gh/, a voiced velar fricative, and /q/, a voiceless uvular stop. The second is due to retraction of the root of the tongue towards the pharynx, leading to two fricative pharyngeals: a voiceless /f/ and a voiced /3/. The last is a glottal stricture with two voiceless sounds: a fricative /h/ and a stop /'/.

In addition, Arabic has four emphatics which result from two strictures or articulations: one primary (alveolar/dental) and one secondary where the back of the tongue retracts towards the pharynx. Hence the name pharyngealization (Jassem 1993, 1994a-b; Ladefoged 2001: 218). In this work, they are transcribed in capital letters /T, D, S, & Dh/, which can actually be treated like their plain counterparts /t, d, s, & dh/. Therefore, they will not be treated here. In English, labio-velar /w/ and dark (velarized) /l/ are such examples (Ladefoged 2001: 218).

In spoken Arabic, the pharyngeals and velar fricatives have remained intact over the ages although /3/ varies with /h/ in some cases as in a3Ta v. anTa 'give' (my accent). The uvular and velar stops /q/ and /kJ have undergone huge changes which vary from accent to accent; for example, qiddam 'in front of' may be said with /g, gh, k, j, & dz/ whereas kaan 'was' with /ch, sh, & ts/ (Jassem 1993, 1994a-b). The glottal stop /'/ is highly variable where it is usually (a) dropped in speech as in ra's v. raas 'head', bi'r v. beer 'well' or (b) replaced by (i) /'w/ as in 'ain v. wain 'where', (ii) /y/ as in sa'al v. siyal 'ask', ma'a v. may 'water', or (iii) /h/ as in shaima' v. sheemeh 'proper name'. Similarly, /h/ is usually silent in final position at pause. In European languages, all have disappeared except for /k/ and, to a lesser extent, /h/ where it is silent in French (Lawless 2012), Latin (Omniglot 2012), and Greek (Wikipedia 2012). The voiced velar fricative /gh/ occurs as an /l/-variant in French as in Paris, rouge 'red' whereas its voiceless counterpart occurs as a /k/-variant in German as in Buch 'book' (Bauer 2012), and Greek (Wikipedia 2012). /q/ represents orthographic heritage rather than sound change, so it never existed as a sound in European languages. However, all were replaced by other closer sounds.

To sum up, the back consonants /2, 3, kh, gh, q, k, h, & '/ constitute the data here, by using select, representative examples derived from the author's research over the years, dating as far back as to 1984 in his doctoral days at Durham University, UK, and later in Syria, Malaysia, and KSA. For the sake of clarity, economy and due to their similarity in European languages, all the exemplary words below will be mostly for English versus Arabic, of course.
2.2 Data Analysis

The data will be analyzed theoretically and statistically. The theoretical analysis utilizes the lexical root theory as a framework as surveyed above. The statistical analysis calculates the percentage of shared elements by dividing the number of cognates over the total number of investigated ones multiplied by a 100. For example, suppose the total number of investigated pronouns or words is 20, of which 19 are true cognates (Jassem 2102c). Calculating the percentage of cognates would be 19/20 X 100 = 95%. Finally, the resultant figures are checked against Cowley's (1997: 173, 182) formula to determine whether such words or phonemes are accents of the same language or languages of the same family, and so on (for a survey, see Jassem 2012a-b).

3. The Results

3.1 The Voiceless Pharyngeal Fricative /2/

Arabic /2/ irregularly developed into several similar sounds in English as follows:

a) /v/ as in vita, vital, vitality, revitalize, vitamin, viva, survive, revive, etc., from Ar. 2aiat 'life', 2ai 'alive' (Jassem 2012a); live, alive, life from Ar. 2ai where /l/ split from /v/ (or from roo2 'soul, life' where /l/ became /l/); vie from Ar. waaha 'vie with, compete' where /w & h/ merged into /v/; arrive from Ar. ra2(aroo2 'go' via lexical shift; travel from Ar. tir2aal 'travel'; evolve, evolution, involve, revolve, revolution, devolve, convolve, Volvo from Ar. 2awl 'about, change, turn' (Jassem 2012b); invoke, invocation, revoke, provoke, etc. from Ar. 2aka 'talk'; value, valuables from Ar. 2ulee 'jewels, gold and silver' or from thaman/thameen 'price, expensive' where /th & m/ merged into /v/ while /n/ turned onto /l/.

b) /w/ as in worry, worried, wary, wariness from Ar. 2aira(n) 'worry, (worried)'; wizard(ry) from a reordered Ar. sa2irat or baSSaarat 'wizard'; war from Ar. 2arb 'war' where /2 & b/ merged into /w/ or wagha 'war' where /gh/ became /l/; worship from a reordered Ar. sub2aan 'glorify God' where /s & n/ passed into /sh & t/ each (Jassem 2012b).

c) /k/ as in cline, incline, inclination, decline, declination, declension, recline, etc. from Ar. 2ana, in2ana 'bend, incline' where /l/ split from /n/ or from a reordered nazal 'go down' where /z/ became /k/; curve/carve, curvature from Ar. 2arf/2afar 'curve/carve'; cod from Ar. 2oot 'fish' where /t/ became /l/; shake from Ar. shaa2a 'shake'; coy from Ar. 2aya 'shyness' (cf. shy below); culture (cultivation) from Ar. 2aDar, 2aDaar(at) 'civilized, civilization' where /D/ split into /l & t/, 2irath(at) 'cultivation, farming' where /l/ split from /t/, and khuthra(t) 'body culture, yeast' where /kh/ became /k/; coy from Ar. 2aya 'shyness' (cf. shy below); commend, recommend from Ar. 2amad/mada2 'praise' where /n/ split from /m/ (Jassem 2012b).
d) /g/ as in engrave, grave from a reordered Ar. (in)2afar 'dig, engrave' or (in)qarafa 'of hard objects, to break'; give, gift from Ar. 2adha, 2adhiat 'give, gift' where /dh/ became /f/ or jaab 'bring' via lexical shift and the passage of /b/ into /v/; graph (photography, paragraph, calligraphy, telegraph), graffiti from Ar. 2arf 'letter'; holy (Ger. heilig) from Ar. Saali2 'good, holy' (see i) below).

e) /s/ as in sorcery from a reordered Ar. si2ir 'sorcery'; obstrinate from Ar. 3aneed 'obstrinate' where /d/ became /t/.

f) /sh/ as in shy from Ar. ista2a, 2ayi 'to be' shy'; witch/switch from a reordered Ar. fattaa2(at) 'witch, open' where /f/ became/split into /w & s/.

g) /h/ as in hope from Ar. 2ubb 'love' via lexical shift; behold from Ar. laa2aDh 'look' via reordering and the change of /Dh/ to /d/; hymn from a reordered Ar. la2n 'song, melody' where /l & n/ merged into /n/ or /l/ became /m/.

h) /z/ as in zebra from Ar. 2imaar(at) 'donkey (f.)'.

i) Ø as in allow from Ar. a2alla, 2alaal 'allow, allowed'; pause from Ar. 2abas 'pause, jail'; rope/rape from Ar. 2abl/2abal 'cable/pregnancy' where /l/ passed into /r/; itch from Ar. 2akk(at) 'itch' where /k/ passed into /ch/; holy from Ar. Saali2 'good, holy' where /S/ became /ch/.

3.2 The Voiced Pharyngeal Fricative /3/

Arabic /3/ evolved irregularly into various closer sounds in English as follows:

a) /g/ as in grape from Ar. 3inab 'grape' where /n/ became /r/; design from a reordered Ar. Sana3, taSnee3 (n) 'make' where ta- 'verb marker' changed to de- (Jassem 2013a) (cf. sign from a reordered Ar. Sana3 'make', a reversed naqsh, 'sign', assign from Ar. aSna3 'I work', consign from Ar. sha2n 'consign', and resign from Ar. sakan/istakan 'calm down'); bought (buy, pay) (see l) below); malign, malignant, malignancy from Ar. mal3oon 'cursed, disease(d)'; benign, benignancy from Ar. na3eem, mun3im 'good, positive, wealth' where /m/ became /b & n/.

b) /k/ as in cognition, cognitive, recognize, recognition, cognizance, incognito, know, knowledge, acknowledge, etc. from Ar. 3aql 'mind, brain, recognize' where /q & l/ changed to /g & n/ each; know 'sexual intercourse (Harper 2012)' from a reversed Ar. n--k 'f---k', a reordered kahana/kaniha 'know' where /h/ changed to /w/, or aiqan 'know for certain'; likely from Ar. la3alla 'perhaps'.
c) /sl/ as in scorpion from Ar. 3aqrab(un) 'scorpion'; scores from Ar. 3asharat 'ten(s)' (Jassem 2012a); juris (jury, juror) from Ar. shar3 'legislation' where /sh/ became /j/; accelerate from Ar. asra3a, tasaara3a 'accelerate' where /l/ split from /l/.

d) /rl/ as in realm from Ar. 3aalam 'realm, world'; routine from Ar. 3aadat(an) 'habit' where /d & t/ merged; serpent from Ar. thu3ban(at) 'serpent' where /th/ became /j/; juris (jury, juror) from Ar. shar3 'legislation' where /sh/ became /j/; accelerate from Ar. asra3a, tasaara3a 'accelerate' where /l/ split from /l/.

e) /vl/ as in over from Ar. 3ala 'on'; severe, severity from a reordered Ar. 3aseer, 3usrat (n) 'severe' (cf. sever from Ar. za3ara 'cut', sha3ara 'split', zabar 'cut', or sha3ra 'razor'; verse, converse, versatility from a reordered Ar. shi3r 'verse' or kharraS 'talk-guess' where /kh/ became /v/; wine (wine) from Ar. 3inab 'grapes' where /3 & b/ merged into /vl/; avian, avionics, aviation from Ar. 3aSfoo'r bird' where /3, S & f/ merged into /vl/ while /l/ became /vl/; evil 'bad, harm, crime (Harper 2012)' from Ar. 3illa(t) 'bad, disease' and/or Dhulm 'injustice, harm' where /Dh & m/ merged into /v/; envy from a reordered Ar. 3ain 'eye, envy'.

f) /wf/ as in wood from Ar. 3ood 'stick, wood' or a reordered daff 'wood'; twist from Ar. Ta3aj(at)/Ta3waj(at) 'bend, twist' where /j/ changed to /s/; aware(ness), wary from Ar. a3rif/3aarif 'I know' where /3 & f/ merged into /wf/; wine (wine) from Ar. 3inab 'grapes' where /3 & b/ merged into /wf/; swood from a reversed Ar. nu3aas 'sleepiness' (cf. swine in 3.3 c) below); waive from Ar. 3afa 'exempt, waive'.

g) /yl/ as in hurry from Ar. hara3 'to hurry' or haiyar; dally from Ar. dala3 'dalliance'.

h) /sh/ as in shop from a reversed Ar. bai3 'sell, buy' (cf. sheep from Ar. kabsb 'male sheep' v ship from Ar. sabab2 'swim', worship and bishop from Ar. saba2 'glorify God', and shape from Ar. shabah 'shape, likeness' (see Jassem 2012b)); rush from Ar. sawe3 where /3 & s/ merged.

i) /nl/ as in insulate (isolate) from Ar. in3azal 'insulate'; antique from Ar. 3ateeq 'old' or a reversed aqdam 'older' where /d & m/ changed to /h & n/ each.

j) /hl/ as in howl from Ar. 3aweel 'howl'; helmet from a reordered Ar. al-3amamat 'the-helmet'.

k) /lz/ as in zigzag from Ar. 3awaj, i3wijaaj 'zigzag, bent'.

l) Ø as in odd, oddity, odds, oddness from Ar. 3adoo, 3adawat 'enemy' and/or wa2id, a2ad, aw2ad 'one, single, odd' (Jassem 2012a); odour from Ar. 3uToor 'perfumes'; alt, elite, elate, elevate, aloof, and derivatives from Ar. 3aal (3iliat/3uloo (n), ta3ala/ya3loo (v)) 'high';
pay, buy (bought) from Ar. baa3/bai3 'sell' via lexical shift where /3/ also became /g/; bead (O.E. gebedan 'worship') from Ar. 3abada 'worship' (Jassem 2012b); inform, information, informant, informatics from a reordered Ar. ma3rifat 'knowledge' via lexical shift and the change of /m/ to /n/.

3.3 The Voiceless Velar Fricative /kh/

Arabic /kh/ developed in an irregular way into various sounds in English as follows:

a) /v/ as in vapour, vapourization, vapourizer, evaporate, evaporation from a reordered Ar. bukhaar 'vapour'; serve, servant, service, servitude, servility, servile from a reordered Ar. sukhra(t) 'work freely for' (cf. observe from Ar. abSar 'see'; persevere from Ar. Sabara 'to be patient'; preserve, conserve from a reordered Ar. Sabara 'preserve, embitter'; reserve, reservoir from a reversed Ar. 2irz 'store, winning' or a reordered Ar. khazan 'store' where /nl/ became /tl/; deserve from Ar. ti2riz 'win, is worth' where /ti-/ became /de-/ (Jassem 2013a.)

b) /f/ as in fairy folk (tale) from Ar. khurafi 'fairy, superstitious' where /kh/ merged into /f/, Ar. khalq 'people' (and Ar. qaala(t) 'tale' (see 3.7f below)); felony from Ar. khiana(t) 'felony' where /f/ split from /nl/; ferment from a reordered Ar. khamrat 'alcohol' where /nl/ split from /nl/.

c) swine from a reordered Ar. khanzeer(at) 'pig (swine)' where /z & n/ became /s & r/ each (cf. swoon in 3.2 f) above).

d) /t/ as in waste from Ar. wasakh 'waste, dirt' (Cf. west, waist from Ar. wasaT 'middle'; tattoo from Ar. khaT(ooT) 'line(s)'.

e) /gh/ as in thigh from Ar. fakhdh 'thigh' where /f/ merged into /th/.

f) /ch/ as in cheap from a reversed Ar. bakhs 'cheap' where /kh & s/ merged; chivalry (cavalry, cavalier) from Ar. khail, khuyool 'horse(s)' where /w (oo)/ became /v/ and /t/ split from /tl/; charity from Ar. khair(aat) 'good (things), charitable'; teach (taught) from a reversed Ar. khaT 'write, line'.

g) /k/ as in take from a reversed Ar. akhadh, khudh 'take' where /th/ became /t/; mistake from Ar. khaTa', mukhTi 'mistake, mistaken'; sarcasm, sarcastic from a reversed Ar. sakhara, maskhara(t) 'sarcasm'; include, inclusion, inclusive, exclude, exclusion, exclusive, preclude, preclusion, seclude, seclusion, reclude, reclusive from a reordered Ar. dakhal, adkhal 'enter'.

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3.4 The Voiced Velar Fricative /gh/

Arabic /gh/ irregularly changed to various like sounds in English as follows:

a) /r/ as in tyranny, tyrannical, tyrant from Ar. Tughyaan 'tyranny'; rinse from a reordered Ar. ghasal 'wash' where /l/ turned into /n/; war from Ar. wagha 'war' or 2arb 'war' where /b/ merged into /w/; ram from Ar. ghanam 'sheep' where /n & m/ merged.

b) /g/ as in gulp from Ar. ghabb 'gulp' in which /l/ was inserted; guilt(y) from Ar. ghalaT 'guilt, error'; regret from Ar. ghalaT 'mistake' where /l/ became /t/ via semantic shift; graph from Ar. 2arf 'letter' (cf. e) below); forgive from a reordered Ar. ghafar 'forgive' where /l/ split into /l & v/.

c) /s/ as in spite, despite from a reordered Ar. ghaSeeb(at) 'take by force' where /gh & S/ merged or bughD 'hate' where /D/ became /t/ (cf. respite from Ar. subaat 'stillness'); upset from a reordered Ar. ghaDab 'anger', 3aSSab 'nervous' or 3abas 'frown'.

d) /z/ as in bizarre from a reordered Ar. ghareeb 'strange'.

e) /k/ as in crave, craving from Ar. raghiba 'desire' (cf. carve/curve from Ar. 2afar/2arf 'carve/curve' (3.1c above); tycoon from Ar. Taaghoon 'tyrants' (cf. a) above).

f) /h/ as in hare from Ar. ghurairi 'kind of wolf' or hirr 'cat'.
g) /v/ as in value, valuable, evaluate, evaluation from Ar. ghali 'valuable' or maal 'value, money' where /m/ became /v/.

h) /w/ as in wrist from a reversed Ar. rusgh 'wrist'.

3.5 The Glottal Fricative /h/

Arabic /h/ developed into various sounds irregularly in English as follows:

a) /v/ as in river, rivulet, Rivera, ravine from Ar. nahr 'river' where /n/ became /r/; eventually, eventuality from a reordered Ar. nihaiat, intaha 'end' (cf. event from Ar. 2aadat, i2nat; even so from Ar. wa’in 'even so', eve, evening: from Ar. la’il 'night' where /l/ changed to /v & n/.)

b) /k/ as in escape, scapegoat from Ar. dhahaba 'go' where /dh/ became /s/; dedicate, dedication from a reordered Ar. ahda, tahada give each other, dedicate' (Jassem 2012f).

c) /g/ as in king from a reordered Ar. kaahin 'priest' via lexical shift.

d) /s/ as in this, that, these, those, thus (deixis, deictics, indicate, indication, index, indices) from Ar. dha, dhih or tih 'this' (Jassem 2012c).

e) /z/ as in blaze from a reordered Ar. lahab 'blaze' or shallhoob 'blaze' where /sh & h/ merged into /z/.

f) /w/ as in wear from Ar. hara, ihtara 'wear' (cf. wear and tear from Ar. hara am Tarrfarr 'wear and tear'; wave from Ar. hawa 'air'); award from Ar. ahda 'give', a3Ta, a3Twat 'give' or awrada 'give'; woo from Ar. hawa 'love, desire'.

g) /p/ as in pyramid from Ar. haram, ihramat (pl.) 'pyramid'.

h) /l/ as in future from a reordered Ar. dahr 'time' where /d/ became /l/ or baakir/bukrat (baachir) 'tomorrow' where /b/ passed into /l/; facile, facilitate, facility, difficulty from a reordered Ar. sahl, suhoolat 'easy, ease'.

i) /h/ as in Hallelujah in 1) above; here from Ar. huna 'here' where /r/ changed to /ν/; he, him, (hya/hi 'she in O.E.') from Ar. huwa/hiya 'he/she' (Jassem 2012d); wave from Ar. hawa(a’) 'air' where /w/ became /v/.

j) Ø as in cave, cavity, excavate from Ar. kahf (cave); elope from Ar. harab, huroob (n) 'run away'.

3.6 The Glottal Stop //
Arabic /l/ changed to several sounds in English irregularly as follows.

a) /w/ as in whine from Ar. 'anna 'whine'; whiz from Ar. 'azza 'whiz'; wish from a reversed Ar. shaa', mashi'a(t) (n) 'wish' (cf. wash from Ar. maaS 'wash' where /m & S became /w & sh/ each); where from Ar. 'aina 'where' where /n/ became /l/; when from Ar. 'aiyana 'when?' and /or 2eena 'when' where /j/ changed to /w/; which from Ar. 'aish 'what?'; why from Ar. 'ai 'which?' via lexical shift.

b) /v/ as in review from Ar. ra'a, ru'ia(t), ru'a (n) (see, vision).

c) /h/ as in habit, habitual from a reordered Ar. 'adab 'politeness, habit' where /d/ changed to /l/ (cf. inhabit, inhabitant, inhabitation from Ar. bait, 'abeet 'house, I stay'); heritage, hereditary, inherit, inheritance, heir, heirdom from Ar. 'irth, wirthat 'inheritance' where /th/ became /t/.

d) /s/ as in Zeus, Deus, deity, divine, etc. from Ar. Dau' (light) (Jassem 2012b).

e) Ø as in Emily, Amelia from Ar. 'amal 'hope'; Mandy, Amanda from Ar. 'aamina(t) 'honest' where /l/ became /dl/; real, reality, realize from Ar. ra'a, ru'ya(t) 'see, vision'; Hereafter from Ar. 'aakhirat 'hereafter' where /l/ split into /f & t/ with /r/ being an insertion; human, humanity from a reordered Ar. 'anaam 'humans'; ya from Ar. 'ai 'ya, yes'; hello (hail) from Ar. 'ahla, halla 'hello, welcome'; Adam (democracy) from Ar. 'aadam, 'awaadim (pl.) 'man, men/people'; Academy from a reordered Ar. 'akamat 'grove, trees' where /l/ became /dl/.

3.7 The Voiceless Uvular Stop /q/

Arabic /q/ evolved irregularly into the following sounds in English:

a) /g/ as in grind, ground from Ar. qaraT, inqaraT 'grind' or qarmaT 'grind'; segment from a reordered Ar. qism(at) 'segment'; fragment from Ar. farq, farraq (v) 'fragment, division' (cf. b) & k) below); generation from Ar. qarn 'generation, century, horn' (cf. b) below); regurgitate from Ar. qarqaT 'of animals, to eat' where /l/ passed into /l/; religion from a reordered Ar. qara'a, qur'aan 'read, reading (Quran)' where /l/ passed into /l/ (for detail, see Jassem 2012b).

b) /k/ as in call from Ar. qaal 'say, call' (cf. recall, recollect from Ar. 3aql 'mind' where /3 & q/ merged into /kl/); crown, coronation, coroner; crane; cranium; chronology from Ar. qarn, quroon (pl.) 'horn'; core from Ar. qa3r 'bottom, core' where /3/ was lost; fork, bifurcate from Ar. farq, tafarraq 'division, divide, bifurcate'; trick from Ar. tareeq(at) 'track, plan' (cf. track, trek, truck from Ar. Tareeq 'road').
c) /q/ as in *acquit(tal)* from Ar. *a3taqa* 'acquit, set free'; *acquire, acquisition* from Ar. *qana/aqna* 'gain' where /n/ became /l/; *quarter, quadrant* from Ar. *geeraaT* '1/4, a cut' (Jassem 2012a).

d) /r/ as in *pre-, prior, priority* from a reordered Ar. *qabl* 'before' into which /l/ merged.

e) /s/ as in *size* from Ar. *qiias* 'size' (cf. *seize, seizure, crazy* from a reversed/reordered Ar. *raseesa(t)* 'madness fit' where /s/ became /k/; *incise, scissors, incision* from Ar. *qaSS* 'cut' or *2azz/jazz* incise, cut' where /2 & j/ became /s/); *(sun) rise* from a reordered Ar. *shuurooq* 'rise' where /sh & q/ merged into /s/ or a reversed *Dhahara* 'rise' where /Dh & h/ merged into /s/, which is more likely because of similarity to *rose* 'flower' from a reversed Ar. *zahra* 'flower' where /h/ was dropped.

f) /t/ as in *tell/tale* from Arabic *qaal(at)* 'say, tale'; *(sun) set* from Ar. *suqooT*; *tube* from Arabic *qaSab* 'tube, reed' where /q & S/ merged into /t/; *tribe, attribute to* from a reordered Ar. *gabeela(t)* 'tribe' or *qaraaba(t)* 'relationship, nearness'; *rate, ratio* from a reversed Ar. *qadr* 'rate' where /q & d/ merged into /t/ (cf. *root & rat* from reversed Ar. *jathr* 'root' & *jurth* 'rat' where /j & th/ merged into /t/; *write & rite* from Ar. *qira’at* 'reading' via lexical shift where /q/ became /w/ in the former while it merged with /t/ in the latter.)

g) /w/ as in *water* from Ar. *qaTr* 'water, rain'; *write, playwright* from Ar. *qira’at* 'reading' (cf. *word* and Ger. *Wort*.)

h) /d/ as in *dirt(y)* from a reordered Ar. *qadhar* 'dirt' where /dh/ became /l/; *doomsday* from Ar. *qiamat* 'doomsday'.

i) /tsh/ as in *approach, rapprochement, approximate, proximity, etc.* from a reversed Ar. *qaarab, aqarab, muqtarib* 'near, nearer, nearing' (cf. *attribute, tribe* from Ar. *qaraabat* or *qabeela(t)* 'nearness, tribe' in f) above.)

j) /h/ as in *horn* from Ar. *qarn, quroon* (pl.) 'horn' (cf. *crown* above).

k) /j/ as in *verge, converge, convergence, diverge, divergence, divorce, diverse, diversity* from Ar. *farraq, tafarraq* 'divide' and/or *furja* 'gap' where /q/ became /s/ also (cf. *fragment and fork* in a & b) above).

l) /sh/ as in *ancient* from a reordered Ar. *qadeem(at), aqdam* 'ancient' where /m/ became /n/; *punish, penal, penalty, punitive* from a reordered Ar. *3aaqab, mu3aqab(at)* 'punish(ment)' where /3/ became /n/. 
m) /yl/ as in yet from Ar. qaTT 'not'; lay from Ar. alqa 'lay down' or laga2a 'lay'; you, your, yours (O.E. ge, she, Ger. Sie/sie) from Ar. iaka/ka 'you' where /k/ changed to /g/ and then to /sh (s) & y/ (Jassem 2012d).

n) /Ø, gh/ as in neigh from Ar. na3aq 'animal's sound', nahaq 'donkey's sound', or nagh 'baby's sound'; sigh from Ar. shahaq 'sigh, exhale, choke' where /sh & h/ merged into /s/.

o) /vl/ as in poor, poverty, impoverish from Ar. faqeer 'poor' where /f/ became /pl/.

3.8 The Velar Stop /k/

Arabic /k/ underwent irregular sound changes in English as follows:

a) /tsh/ as in church from Ar. kanees(at) 'church' where /n/ changed to /r/ (see f) below); bachelor from Ar. bikr 'bachelor, virgin' where /l/ split from /r/; chew from Ar. akal 'eat' where /l/ passed into /w/ as in London's Cockney.

b) /sk/ as in script, scripture, scribe, scribble, inscribe, describe, prescribe, proscribe, subscribe, etc. from Ar. katab 'write' (Ger. schreiben) (see h) below).

c) /zl/ as in zone from Ar. kawn 'world'; lazy, laze, lousy from a reversed Ar. kasool 'lasy' where /k & s/ merged into /zl/ (cf. lose from Ar. khasira 'lose' where /kh & s/ merged and /l/ became /l/, lass from Ar. nisa 'woman' where /n/ became /l/, less from Ar. laisa 'not' and/or qal(eel) 'less', and louse, lice from a reversed Ar. qaml 'lice' where /k & s/ merged into /s/ while /m/ into /l/.

d) /l/ as in term, terminology, determine from Ar. kalim(at), takallam 'word, talk'; style, stylist from Ar. shakl 'form, style' where /sh/ became /sl/.

e) /sh/ as in share from Ar. shaarak 'share'; machine, machinery, machination from Ar. makr 'plot' (and maSna3 'machinery, factory' where /3/ became /l/ (cf. design in 3.2a above).

f) /kl/ as in book/copy from a reversed Ar. kitaab, kutub (pl.) 'book' where /l/ was lost; duck from Ar. deek, duyook (pl.) 'rooster' or a reduced dajaaj 'chicken' where /j/ became /k/; monarch from Ar. malik 'king' where /l/ split into /n & r/; ecclesiastical and kirk from Ar. kaneesat 'church' where /n/ became /l/ in the former but /l/ in the latter in which /s/ became /k/ also (see a) above); extra from Ar. akthar 'more' where /th/ became /l/ (cf. et cetera below).

g) /gl/ as in grip from Ar. karaba 'tighten' or kallab 'grip'; gyrate, gyration from Ar. karra(t), kura, kawwar 'roll, ball'.  
h) /h/ as in hyper from Ar. kabeer 'big'; hepat(itis) from Ar. kabd 'liver' where /d/ changed to /t/; abhor, abhorrence from Ar. akrah (v), kurh (n) 'I hate' where /k & h/ merged.

i) /s/ as in superiority; supreme, supremacy (cf. hyper, hypo above); exacerbate, exacerbation from Ar. kabeer 'big' (Jassem 2012b); bless from Ar. baarak 'bless' where /l/ became /l/ (Jassem 2012b); slam from a reordered Ar. lakam 'hit, slam'; bless from Ar. baarak 'bless' where /l/ changed to /t/; suffice, sufficient, sufficiency, (deficiency, deficient, efficiency, efficient, proficient, proficiency) from Ar. kafa, kifayat (n) 'enough, suffice'; et cetera from Ar. katheer(a) 'many' where /th/ became /t/ (cf. extra in f) above); is/was (Ger. sein/ist/gewesen; Fr. sui/soi/es, etc.) from Ar. kaan/kawan 'was/be' (Jassem 2012e) where /n/ was dropped.

In summary, although most of the above Arabic back consonants have disappeared in English, German, French, Latin, and Greek, they all, it can be clearly seen, have cognates, which reflect changes in place, manner, and/or voice. For example, if one takes /k/ as an illustrative case, one finds that its cognates underwent voicing change like /g & z/, manner change from stop to affricate/fricative like /ch, sh, s, h/, and place change from velar to alveolar like /t/.

Statistically speaking, the percentage of shared vocabulary is 100% as there is no exemplary word without a cognate.

4. Discussion

The above description has shown that Arabic shares the same or similar forms for most consonant phonemes as those of English, German, French, Latin, and Greek. However, some sounds are different and/or unique to Arabic: namely, the emphatic consonants /T, D, S, & Dh/, the velar fricatives /kh & gh/, the uvular stop /q/, the glottal stop and fricative /' & h/, and the pharyngeals /2 & 3/, generally called back consonants. Of all, /2, 3, & q/ are unique to Arabic whilst all the rest occur in varying degrees in the other languages.

All the phonemes have undergone different kinds of change within and across languages, reflecting place, manner, and voice modifications (see 3.8 above). As to the changes affecting common vowels and consonants which are shared amongst the above languages, they are not unlike those that occur in all world languages because of the operation of universal sound processes in this respect such as palatalization, spirantization, assimilation, dissimilation, merger, deletion, resyllabification, and so on (e.g., Campbell 2004: 16-52; Pyles and Algeo 1993: 35-39; Kreidler 2006: 242-265; Roach 2008: 110-116; Celce-Murcia et al 2010: 164-184). However, some of the common sound changes in European languages were more advanced than those in Arabic. For example, while the consonant /k/ has four variants in Arabic- namely, /ch, ts, sh/ as in /kaan, chaan, tsaaan, shaan/ 'was' (e.g., Jassem 1993, 1994a-b), it further turned in European languages into (a) /h/ as in hepat- from Arabic kabd 'liver' and (b) /l/ as in term from Arabic kalim(at) 'word' (3.8 above). The same happened with /q/ which alternates with /gh, k, g, j, dz,
'l as in qiddaam (ghiddaam, giddaam, kiddaam, 'iddaam, jiddaam, dziddaam) 'in front of' (Jassem 1993, 1994a-b) besides /t, s, ch, & h/ in European languages as in crown, horn, siren from Arabic qarn (karn, garn, gharn, 'arn) 'horn' (3.7 above).

As to the unique Arabic sounds, the pharyngeals /2 & 3/ and the velar fricatives /kh & gh/ have remained intact and stable over the ages in Arabic but have totally disappeared in English and European languages, especially the former. However, they were all replaced by similar consonants such as /v, w, k, g/ (see 3.1-4 above). Of all the consonants in English, German, French and Latin, /v/ is unique because it is lacking in Arabic, on the one hand, and it replaced nearly all of the pharyngeals and velar fricatives in a great many cases, on the other (see 3.1-4 above). It also replaced other common consonants such as:

i) /w/ as in vowel from a reversed Arabic al-waw 'the-(letter)-oo/w', vow (avow, avowal, avowedly) from Arabic wa 'vow, and' and (aiwa 'yes, avow');

ii) /b/ as in valve from a reordered Arabic al-baab 'the-door'; intervene, intervention from Arabic baina 'between' (cf. vent from a reordered Arabic nafadha 'penetrate, outlet'); seven(th) from Arabic sab3(at) 'seven' in which /3/ was deleted or became /n/ (Jassem 2012a);

iii) /m/ as in value from Arabic maal 'money, price' or ghaali 'expensive';

iv) /l/ as in vent, invent, prevent, advent, adventure from a reordered Arabic nafadha 'penetrate, outlet, window' where /dh/ became /l/; void from Arabic faaDee, faDaa 'void, empty' (cf. avoid from Arabic 2aiyad; vice from Arabic fu2sh 'vice' where /2 & sh/ merged into /s/ or waSee 'vice-' (cf. voice from Ar. 2is 'voice'); invite, invitation (Fr. invité 'guest') from a reversed Ar. Daif 'guest' where /D/ became /l/;

v) /th/ as in even (number) from Ar. thaaani 'two, second' (Jassem 2012a); heave from Ar. lahatha 'breathe in and out' where /l & th/ merged into /v/;

vi) /dh & Dh/ as in villain(y) 'lowly, cruel, farmhand (Harper 2012)' from a reordered Ar. nadhl 'lowly', Dhaalim 'unjust', and/or fallaa2 'farmer' where /2 & f/ merged into /v/; and

vii) /D & Dh/ as in vibrate, vibration from Ar. Darab, Darbat 'strike'; oval, ovulation, ovule from Ar. baiD(at) 'egg, ova' where /b & D/ merged (cf. ovation from Ar. 2aiya, ta2iyat 'greeting' and vital from Ar. 2ayat 'life' in 3.1a above); move, movement from Ar. maDā 'move, went'; evil from Ar. Dhulm 'injustice' where /m/ merged into /l/ (3.2e above).

The different forms of the cognate phonemes are due to the operation of different courses of sound change in such languages. For example, /k/ developed differently in different Arabic accents and so did /q/ as the above examples clearly show. The same phonemes underwent
further divergent changes in English, German, French, Russian, Latin, and Greek, for example, the different forms for *five, seven, quarter* 'four(th)', all of which derive from true Arabic cognates (for further details, see Jassem 2012a).

At least some of the sound changes in English, German, French, and Latin emanated as a result of convergence, where two or more formally similar Arabic phonemes or words have led to a particular case - a recurrent phenomenon in all Jassem's studies (2012a-f, 2013a-b). For example, /v/ in a great many cases might have arisen from two or more formally similar phonemes such as /w/ in vowel from a reversed Arabic *al-waw* 'the-(letter)-oo/w' and/or /z/ in *3illa(t)* 'vowel, illness'; /m/ in *value* from Arabic *maal* 'money, price' and/or /gh/ in *ghaale* 'expensive, dear'; similarly, *incline* may derive from a reordered Arabic *in2ana* 'bend' in which /2/ became /k/ with /l/ being an insertion or a split from /n/ or from *nazal* 'go down' in which /zl/ became /k/ (3.1 above).

Vocalic changes usually accompany consonantal ones but they are simpler, more predictable, and so non-consequential. For example, in *incline* above, identifying the meaning(s) of the word and its consonantal changes are sufficient. In fact, vocalic analysis will simply complicate matters for no obvious purpose. Therefore, vocalic changes can be ignored without negatively impacting the end result of the analysis in any way. This has so far been the practice in Jassem (2012a-f, 2013a-b).

The above sound changes resulted in processes like assimilation, dissimilation, palatalization, spirantization, deletion, merger, insertion, split, syllable loss, resyllabification, consonant cluster reduction or creation and so on. The results (3.1-8) have a plenty of such examples.

The above results also show that sound change proceeds in three different courses (Jassem 2012a-f, 2013a-b). First, it may be multi-directional where a particular sound may change in different directions in different languages at the same time. In fact, all the back consonants are multi-directional in nature where each has several forms (see 3.1-8 above). For example, Arabic *qarn* 'horn, century' is *crown* (*coroner, coronation*), *horn*, *siren* in English, French, Latin and so on; Arabic *qaal* 'say' is *call*, *tell/tale* in English; Arabic *qeeraT* 'a quarter' is *quarter, quatre, chatteere* 'four' in English, French/Latin, and Russian (Jassem 2012a). This happens even within the same language such as the different pronunciations of the above voiceless uvular stop /q/ in Arabic varieties themselves (Jassem 1993, 1994a, 1994b), /k/ in English as in *kirk, ecclesiastical v. church* from Arabic *kanees(at)* (3.8 above), or /th/ as in *three v. tree, free* from Arabic *thalaath/thilth* 'three/third' (Jassem 2012a). Secondly, it may be cyclic where more than one process may be involved in any given case. In *kirk* above, the changes include (i) turning /n/ into /l/, (ii) /s/ into /k/, (iii) vowel deletion, (iv) syllable reduction, and (v) consonant clustering; in *church*, turning /k/ into /ch/ and /ee/ into /ər/ (ur/) were added. In fact, the differences between Arabic, English, German, French, and Latin words (e.g., *vita, vitality, survive, revive, viva* in 3.1
above) are the result of the cyclic operation of sound change (see Jassem 2012b). Finally, it may be lexical where words may be affected by the change in different ways - a process known as lexical diffusion (see Jassem 1993, 1994a, 1994b for a survey). That is, a particular sound change may operate in some words, may vary in others, and may not operate at all in some others. For example, the different words or forms for Arabic kaneesat 'church' in English, where /k/ varies with /ch/ in church and /kl/ in kirk and ecclesiastical is a case in point; other examples are book/copy, scribe (German schreiben 'write') from Arabic katab 'write'; horn, siren, crown from Arabic qarn 'horn'. The different realizations of Arabic phonemes in English and European languages are all of this kind here.

All the changes above exhibit naturalness and plausibility; for example, the change of /k/, a voiceless velar stop (e.g., kirk), to /ch/, a voiceless palatal affricate (e.g., church), is more natural than to /sl/, a voiceless alveolar fricative, as the first two are closer by place and manner (cf. Jassem 2012b); the last is plausible. Likewise, the change of qaal 'say' to call is natural while to tell, tale is plausible; the change of Arabic qarn to crown and horn is natural while to siren is plausible. (For further detail, see Jassem (2012a-f, 2013a-b).)

Thus the above results agree with Jassem's (2012a) investigation of numeral words, common religious terms (Jassem 2012b), pronouns (Jassem 2012c), determiners (Jassem 2012d), verb to be forms (Jassem 2012e), inflectional 'gender and plurality' markers (2012f), derivational morphemes or affixes(2013a), and negative particles (2013b) in English, German, French, Latin, Greek, and Arabic which were found not only to be genetically related but also rather dialects of the same language. In all, the percentage of shared vocabulary or forms between Arabic and English, for instance, was 100%, which means that they belong to the same language (i.e., dialects), according to Cowley's (1997: 172-173) classification. In short, the lexical root theory is as adequate for the analysis of the present case as it has been for all the previous ones.

To sum up, all the foregoing phonemes and words in Arabic, English, German, French, and Latin are true cognates in the sense of having similar forms and meanings where Arabic can be safely said to be their origin all. Jassem (2012a-f, 2013a-b) offered some equally valid reasons for that to which the curious reader can refer. One such reason is the phonetic complexity, multiplicity and variety of Arabic 'back' consonants as opposed to the simplicity of English, German, French, and Latin ones in which the lower back part of the mouth or throat lies idle, phonetically speaking. Owing to their complexity, variety, and multiplicity, Arabic phonemes are, therefore, the real or original cognates from which English, German, French, and Latin forms stemmed.

6. Conclusion and Recommendations

The different back phonemes in English, German, French, Latin, Greek, and Arabic are true cognates, some of which change form according to phonological, morphological and/or
lexical factors or conditions (Jassem 2013a, forthcoming). The main ideas of this paper can be summarized as follows.

i) Arabic has a more complex and varied consonantal system than English, German, French, Latin, and Greek which have simpler systems in lacking the pharyngeals /2 & 3/, the uvular and glottal stops /q & /, the emphatics /T, D, S, & Dh/, and, to a lesser extent, the velar (and glottal) fricatives /kh, gh (& h/). However, all have been replaced by closer consonants which are alike in place, manner, and/or voice (see 3.1-8).

ii) The unique consonant /v/ in English, German, French, and Latin has developed from Arabic back consonants, especially /2, 3, kh & gh/ besides others like /w, b, m, f, th, dh, D, Dh/ (3.1-4, 5. above).

iii) The changes affecting Arabic sounds in English, German, French, and Latin are more advanced than those in Arabic as is the case with /q/ and /k/ which passed into /t & h/, amongst others (3.7-8 above).

iv) The changes were multi-directional, cyclic, and lexically diffuse in nature; all were also natural and plausible also.

v) Convergence was a common source of English phonemes where two or more similar Arabic sounds led to a new one as the above results and discussion show (3.1-8 above).

vi) Vocalic changes do accompany consonantal changes but these are simpler, more limited in nature and often non-consequential. The three basic vowels /aa, oo, & ee/ swap qualities amongst one another in a limited way such as raising v. lowering, backing v. fronting, and shortening v. lengthening. Moreover, while the root consonants carry word basic meanings, the function of vowels is mostly grammatical such as tense markers and phonetic such as linking consonants. Therefore, they can be ignored in relating words to each other. Once the meaning of the case/word has been ascertained and its consonantal changes identified, the vowels are done by default.

In conclusion, the lexical root theory has proven over and over again its applicability to and adequacy for the analysis of the close genetic relationships between Arabic, English, German, French, Latin, and Greek phonemes. The absence of back consonantal phonemes, especially the pharyngeals /2 & 3/, and their evolution into simpler forms in European tongues points to their Arabic origin in essence. To consolidate these findings, further research is required into especially the pharyngeals to determine whether there are any linguistic conditions or factors governing their different realizations in English and (Indo-)European languages. In fact, all other language levels need research. Moreover, the application of such findings to language teaching, lexicology and lexicography, translation, cultural (including anthropological and
historical) awareness, understanding, and heritage (Jassem 2012a-f, 2013a-b) is badly needed. This research opens up interestingly endless and extremely useful windows and grounds, whose results will hopefully bring down world barriers and prejudices of all kinds where language learning and cultural adaptation will eventually seem alluring and easier a great deal.

Acknowledgements

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References


English Teachers’ Barriers to the Use of Internet in English Language Classrooms

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Abstract: This paper aimed to discuss what features may hinder to possibilities of the mainstream use of internet in teaching English as a second language. These categories of barriers to the use of internet in English language classrooms are (a) financial barriers, (b) availability of computer hardware and software (c) technical and theoretical knowledge and (d) acceptance of technology.

One of the basic findings of the study is the lack of technical and theoretical knowledge of some teachers. Not only is there a shortage of knowledge about developing software to promote learning, but many instructors do not understand how to use the new technologies. Failing to do this would result in distorted findings and provide educationalists with data that only reflect one segment of the whole picture. One would need to understand that improper use of technologies can affect both the teacher and the learner negatively.

Key Words: Internet, Computer Hardware and Software, Financial Barriers, Globalization, Technology.

Introduction

Globalization and the advancement of ICT have had a profound impact on the teaching of English as a second language and a foreign language. While it is sometimes assumed that this is a relatively recent phenomenon, there is in fact quite a history of using computer technology to assist in English Language Teaching (Kern & Warschauer, 2000; Fotos & Browne, 2004).

The Internet has emerged as an important teaching-learning tool as learners better appreciate the learning process when it is mediated. Teachers should be provided with professional development opportunities to help them model effective use of the Internet as a tool for students’ learning, including integrating Internet learning with regular classroom learning.

Further, the Internet provides authentic language learning contexts that are rich in communication and in global diversity. When effectively exploited, the Internet enables students to participate in a wide range of meaningful and interactive tasks (Derewianka, 1997; Singhal, 1997; Silc, 1998; Graus. 1999; Levy & Debski, 1999; Warschauer, 1999, 2000, 2001; Krajka,
especially valuable for ESL learners are both the ‘authentic language material’ (Wilson, 2004:5) available on the Internet and its interaction possibilities (Warschauer, 2001), as such learners may have for other means of obtaining genuine communication in the target language.

The aim of this paper is to discuss what features may hinder to possibilities of the mainstream use of the Internet in teaching English as a foreign language. Although the problem can be approached from many different aspects, there are only few which will be discussed here. Without any attempt at prioritization, the paper will look at the following common categories of barriers to the use of Internet in English Language classrooms (a) financial barriers, (b) availability of computer hardware and software, (c) technical and theoretical knowledge, and (d) acceptance of the technology.

The research questions for this study are:

1. To what extents do the Filipino English language teachers’ use the Internet?
2. What are Filipino English language teachers’ practices of using the Internet for English language teaching?
3. What are the barriers that hinder Filipino English language teachers’ use and practices of the Internet in terms of English language teaching?
4. To what extent does the Internet contribute to the overall professional development of the Filipino English language teachers?

Review of Literature

The Internet is constantly growing in popularity and availability. Many people use the Internet daily, sometimes without even being aware of the fact that they use the Internet on a daily basis. As noted by Warschauer, Shetzer and Meloni (2000), the Internet has been reshaping many aspects of society such as on-line education, advertising, marketing and sales. A number of language teachers have become interested in using the Internet since recent developments in ICT support diversity in learning methods and multimedia materials that can be useful for language learners. The vast amount of information linked by hypertext on the Web seems highly valuable for learners with a self-directed learning style. Each learner is allowed and encouraged “to
manage the learning process independently and to explore linked pieces of information non-sequentially on the basis of their personal preferences and needs” (Son, 1998, p.121). Language teachers, accordingly, can make their classes individualized and personalized, resulting in self-empowerment and autonomy in learning (Warschauer, Turbee & Roberts, 1996).

Alomari, (2009) and Maor (2003) argue that teachers should take on the roles of a researcher or a facilitator to engage students to become involved in active, collaborative and constructive learning experiences. However, without a teacher to organize the resources and then contextualize the learning possibilities within the curricula, the power of Internet will dissipate and the potential of teaching will be lost. Therefore, teachers need to engage in more powerful roles that include not only using technology appropriately, but also finding ways to build in meaning purposeful connections and relationships to the larger world and community outside the school building (McCombs 2000).

Hence, teachers’ practices of the Internet have to mirror their new roles so that learning experiences can be enhanced and enriched through engaging learners in authentic and meaningful activities that the Internet can facilitate and support. Earlier studies have explored such possibilities with quite exciting outcomes. LeLoup (1997), for instance, notes that email provided teachers the access to discussion groups and newsgroups, which in turn allowed teachers to design activities and projects that enhanced their curriculum and provided students with opportunities to communicate directly with foreign language speakers. These discussions allowed the teachers to gain confidence and to learn and rely on and support each other (Taylor & Stuhlmann, 1998). Also, through discussions in an online networking environment, English language teachers contributed to mutual encouragement and recognition amongst teachers, which took form in giving positive feedback on ideas, materials and classroom practices (Tsui et al 1996) that benefit learners. Also, the Internet offers English teachers the opportunity for ongoing collaboration and professional development through various online activities such as online sharing, online collaboration and online researching (see Kabilan & Mohammed Amin 2004; Kabilan & Mohammed Amin; 2006 Kabilan 2005) that contributed to better classroom practices in terms of teaching and learning of English.

Methodology

The subjects in the study were 168 College English teachers (38 males and 130 females) of the three state universities and one state college in Cagayan Valley Philippines namely: Isabela State University (Isabela), Nueva Vizcaya State University (Nueva Vizcaya), Quirino State College and Cagayan State University (Cagayan). The age range of the respondents was from 21- 64 years with a mean age of 34. Their teaching experience ranged from less than 5 years to more than 25 years with a mean of 15 years. The study used a questionnaire to document Cagayan Valley, Philippines College English teachers’ perceptions and barriers on the use of the Internet.
for English language teaching purposes. The questionnaire consisted of three sections: a demographic section to get respondents’ background information; a multiple-choice section to find their perceptions and barriers on the use of Internet using a modified Likert scale; and an open-ended question section to elicit their general opinions or comments on the use of the Internet for teaching purposes in the classroom. It was distributed on-line and off-line to 168 College English teachers of Cagayan Valley, Philippines. A total of 168 questionnaires had been returned within three-month time and the data collected from the questionnaire were analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively.

Findings and Discussions

Of the 168 returned questionnaire, only 72 (43%) teachers indicate that they have access to the Internet and have used the Internet for some kind of teaching and learning activities in classrooms or have used the Internet for professional development purposes. Remaining teachers (n=96) report that they have not used the Internet at all for the purpose of teaching English, even though some of them might have access to the Internet. The teachers’ reasons for not using the Internet are indicated in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reasons for using the Internet</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>F (%)</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>F (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Don’t know how to use</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>(73)</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>(27)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. No time to learn about the Internet</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>(57)</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>(43)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. No time to use</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>(37.5)</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>(62.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. No interest at all</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>(27)</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>(73)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Most of the teachers are not using the Internet mainly because they do not know how to use the Internet and they have no time to learn about the Internet. Only a 27% of the teachers indicate that they have no interest at all in terms of using the Internet for teaching English. Studies have shown that there are teachers who do not prefer online activities, and sometimes it is very difficult to encourage teachers’ engagement in online activities (Kabilan 2003; Moonen & Voogt 2000; Owen 2000). These are because teachers have little or no knowledge and experience of technology or telecommunications in general (Levin & Thurston 1996), just like what was stated by the Filipino teachers in this study. For the following sections, the data analysed and discussed would be concerned with the Filipino teachers who have access to the Internet and have used the Internet for the teaching of English.
Filipino English Language Teachers’ Use of Internet

Table 2 shows the number of hours Filipino English language teachers who accessed and used the Internet in a week (by hours). Majority of the teachers spend about 1-5 hours per week, and 15% spend more than 20 hours per week.

Table 2. Overall usage of Internet in a week (by hours)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of hours</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>(%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1-5</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>(34)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-10</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>(28)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-15</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>(18)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16-20</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>(4 )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 20</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>(14)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>72</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Tables 1 and 2 imply that the issues of accessibility and lack of facilities and lack of time are the key factors that hinder teachers’ effective utilization of the Internet in Cagayan Valley Philippines. The same issues and problems have been identified earlier by Demirbilek (2009) in the Turkish context and by Kabilan and Mohamed Amin (2004); Kabilan (2003), and Kabilan and Mohamed Amin (2002) in the Malaysian context. In the open-ended question of the problems faced in using the Internet, even though the 72 Filipino teachers accessed to the Internet, they still lamented that they have difficulties accessing the Internet, slow Internet connection or disconnection, technical problems during the class, finding appropriate teaching materials and integrating Internet resources into their classroom curricula, taking much time to prepare and arrange facilities to use the Internet; and finding students’ plagiarism. These issues, to some extent, have hindered the teachers’ use and practices of the Internet. Though the Internet overcomes the lack of time factor for some conventional form of professional development, it seems that the Filipino teachers still do not have the time to use or learn more about the Internet. This is not surprising because teachers are busier than ever – teaching, writing reports, co-curricular activities, disciplining students, meetings, checking and marking students’ work, invigilation of examinations, and the list goes on (Kabilan & Mohamed Amin 2004).

Teachers’ Practices and Barriers of the Internet and WWW

Table 3 gives the degree of importance of the teachers’ practices of the Internet using; emails, chat rooms, messenger tools and online forums. It is revealed in this study that Filipino English language teachers’ practices of the Internet are mainly to develop and enhance their communication skills, increase their communication levels with other teachers and to seek information related to the teaching of English.
Table 3. Teachers practices of the internet

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers’ Practices</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. The Internet provides non-native speakers of English with a rich learning environment.</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>16 (9.5%)</td>
<td>127 (75.5%)</td>
<td>25 (15%)</td>
<td>3.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Internet tools can be used for teaching purposes.</td>
<td>3 (1.8%)</td>
<td>9 (5.4%)</td>
<td>120 (71.4%)</td>
<td>36 (21.4%)</td>
<td>3.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Internet resources can replace textbooks.</td>
<td>2 (1.2%)</td>
<td>30 (17.9%)</td>
<td>97 (57.7%)</td>
<td>39 (23.2%)</td>
<td>3.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. It is easy to find ESL/EFL materials on the Web.</td>
<td>2 (1.2%)</td>
<td>11 (6.5%)</td>
<td>133 (79.2%)</td>
<td>22 (13.1%)</td>
<td>3.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. ESL/EFL Websites are useful for teaching English.</td>
<td>5 (3%)</td>
<td>9 (5.4%)</td>
<td>124 (74%)</td>
<td>30 (12%)</td>
<td>3.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Students can be motivated by the use of the Internet in the classroom.</td>
<td>3 (1.8%)</td>
<td>13 (7.7%)</td>
<td>128 (76.2%)</td>
<td>24 (14.3%)</td>
<td>3.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Students can improve their English skills through the use of the Internet.</td>
<td>4 (2.4%)</td>
<td>5 (2.98%)</td>
<td>122 (72.6%)</td>
<td>37 (22%)</td>
<td>3.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Students can learn how to use Internet resources for learning English for themselves.</td>
<td>2 (1.2%)</td>
<td>8 (4.7%)</td>
<td>130 (77.4%)</td>
<td>28 (16.7%)</td>
<td>3.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Students can improve communication skills by e-mailing or chatting with native speakers of English on-line.</td>
<td>3 (1.8%)</td>
<td>5 (3%)</td>
<td>141 (83.9%)</td>
<td>19 (11.3%)</td>
<td>3.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Students will be more attentive in Internet-assisted English language teaching.</td>
<td>4 (2.4%)</td>
<td>7 (4.1%)</td>
<td>136 (81%)</td>
<td>21 (12.5%)</td>
<td>3.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. I am responsible for the success of internet-assisted English language teaching.</td>
<td>2 (1.2%)</td>
<td>9 (5.4%)</td>
<td>126 (75%)</td>
<td>31 (18.4%)</td>
<td>3.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. I am competent to use Internet-based materials in the classroom.</td>
<td>3 (1.8%)</td>
<td>11 (6.5%)</td>
<td>139 (82.7%)</td>
<td>15 (8.9%)</td>
<td>2.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. I know how to integrate Internet resources into existing classroom curricula.</td>
<td>4 (2.4%)</td>
<td>10 (6%)</td>
<td>140 (83.3%)</td>
<td>14 (8.3%)</td>
<td>2.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. I need training to improve my Internet literacy skills.</td>
<td>4 (2.4%)</td>
<td>7 (4.2%)</td>
<td>139 (82.7%)</td>
<td>18 (10.7%)</td>
<td>3.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. I would like to use Internet-based</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>145</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>3.04</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In Table 3, two items with the lowest mean scores are ‘I am competent to use internet-based materials in the classroom’ and ‘I know how to integrate Internet resources into existing classroom curricula.’ Previous studies elsewhere also indicate that English teachers are less engaged in activities related to professional support and discussions of TESL issues with fellow teachers compared to other online activities such as developing communication skills and seeking TESL-related information (see Kabilan & Mohamed Amin 2006).

Filipino English language teachers’ practices of WWW are purportedly to search TESL-related information, to learn about a variety of TESL topics, to be acquainted and oriented in a world of information, to search relevant materials and to read articles from online journals (Table 4). They emphasized that finding exercises, test questions/language testing materials questions and lesson plans are important reasons for surfing the Internet. As regards the practices of Filipino English teachers of WWW, Table 4 reflects they are willing to try to improve their teaching by engaging in activities such as searching for TESL-related information, reading academic articles and, searching for materials, exercises, questions and lesson plans. It appears that they are interested to use Internet applications for the teaching and learning of English.

Table 4. Filipino English language teachers practices of WWW

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers’ Practices</th>
<th>Mean Scores</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. to search TESL-related information</td>
<td>3.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. to learn about variety of TESL topics</td>
<td>3.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. to be involved in a world of information</td>
<td>2.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. to find materials</td>
<td>3.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. to read academic articles from online journals</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. to present creative works</td>
<td>3.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. to experience creative works</td>
<td>2.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. to find exercises</td>
<td>3.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. to find questions for exams/tests</td>
<td>3.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. to find lessons</td>
<td>3.07</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Several researchers such as Gonzalez-Bueno (1998), Graus (1999), and Chafe (1999) have extensively discussed the reasons behind using the Internet in the ESL classroom. Among these reasons is the fact that the human society is becoming an information society and the role of school is to equip students with necessary skills that enable them to function properly in the 21st century and keep up with the changes and challenges that are taking place outside the walls of school. Nevertheless, the Filipino English language teachers in this study have indicated several
barriers that they feel have seriously hindered their Internet use and practices. They are: (1) technical and theoretical knowledge (3.04), (2) availability of computer hardware and software (2.89), (3) financial barriers (2.87) and, (4) acceptance of technologies (2.86) (See Table 5). Only a small number of Filipino teachers admit that they lack the knowledge on using the Internet expertly.

Table 5. Mean scores of barriers faced by Filipino English language teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Barriers</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Technical and Theoretical Knowledge</td>
<td>3.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Availability of computer hardware and software</td>
<td>2.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Financial barriers</td>
<td>2.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Acceptance of technologies</td>
<td>2.86</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Technical and Theoretical Knowledge

As reflected in the table above, lack of technical and theoretical knowledge topped the list of the barriers in using the internet in English language classrooms in state universities and colleges in Cagayan Valley Philippines. Not only is there a shortage of knowledge about developing software to promote learning, as shown above, but many teachers do not understand how to use the new technologies. Furthermore, little is known about integrating these new means of learning into an overall plan. In the communication between McClelland and C. Dede (1995), Dede indicated the more powerful technologies, such as artificial intelligence in computers, might promote learning of higher-order cognitive skills that are difficult access with today’s evaluation procedures and, therefore, the resulting pedagogical gains may be under-valued. Improper use of technologies can affect both the teacher and learning negatively (Office of Technical Assessment, 1995).

Availability of Computer Hardware and Software

The most significant aspects of computer are hardware and software. Availability of high quality software is the most pressing challenge in applying the new technologies in education (Herschbach, 1994; Miller, 1997; Office of the Technology Assessment, 1995; Noreburg & Lundblad, 1997). Underlying this problem is a lack of knowledge of what elements in software will promote different kinds of learning. There are few educators skilled in designing it because software development is costly and time-consuming (McClelland, 1996).

McClelland (1996) indicated having sufficient hardware locations where learners have access to it problematic and is, of course, partly a financial problem. Computer hardware and software compatibility goes on to be a significant problem. Choosing hardware is difficult because of the
many choices of systems to be used in delivering education, the delivery of equipment, and he rapid changes in technology.

**Financial Barriers**

Financial barriers are mentioned most frequently in the literature by language education practitioners. They include the cost of hardware, software, maintenance (particular of the most advanced equipment), and extend to some staff development. Froke (1994b) said, “concerning the money, the challenge was unique because of the nature of the technology.” Existing universities policies and procedures for budgeting and accounting were well advanced for classroom instruction. The costs of media were accounted for in the university as a part of the cost of instruction. Through the initial investment in hardware is high, inhibiting institutions’ introduction of advance technologies; but Hooper (1995) recommends that the cost of computers will be so low that they will be available in most schools and homes in the future. Lewis et al. (1994) indicate three conditions under which Computer-assisted Learning and other technologies can be cost effectiveness: Computer-assisted Learning costs the same as conventional instruction but ends up with producing higher achievement in the same amount of instructional time, it results in students achieving the same level but in less time. These authors indicate that in examples were costs in using technologies in education are calculated, they are usually understand because the value of factors, such as faculty time and cost of equipment utilization, is ignored (McClelland, 1995).

Herschbach (1994) argues firmly that new technologies are add-ons expenses and will not, in many cases, lower cost of providing educational services. He stated that the new technologies probably will not replace the teachers, but will supplement their efforts, as has been the pattern with other technologies. The technologies will not decrease educational costs or increase teacher productivity as currently used. Low usage causes the cost barrier. Computers, interactive instruction TV, and other devices are used very few hours of the day, week, or month. Either the number of learners or the amount of time learners apply the technology must be increased substantially to approach the concept of cost effectiveness. There are other more quick and less expensive ways of reducing costs, no matter how inexpensive the technology being used (Kincaid, McEachron, & McKinney, 1994).

**Acceptance of Technologies**

We live in a time change. Gelatt (1995) stated that change itself has changed. Change has become so rapid, so turbulent, and so unpredictable that is now called “white water” change (p.10). Murphy & Terry (1998a) indicated the current of change move so quickly that they destroy what was considered the norm in the past, and by doing so, create new opportunities. But, there is natural tendency for organizations to resist change. Wrong conceptions about the use of technology limit innovation and threaten teachers’ job and security (Zuber- Skerritt,
1994). Instructor are tend not to use technologies that require substantially more preparation time, and it is tough to provide instructors and learners access to technologies that are easy to use (Herschbach, 1994).

Engaging in Computer-assisted Language Learning is a continuing challenging that requires time and commitment. As we approach the 21st century, we realize that technology as such is not the answer to all our problems. What really matters is how we use technology. Computers can/will never substitute teachers but they offer new opportunities for better language practice. They may actually make the process of language learning significantly richer and play a key role in the reform of a country’s educational system. The next generation of students will feel a lot more confident with information technology that we do. As a result, they will also be able to use the Internet to communicate more effectively, practice language skills more thoroughly and solve language learning problems more easily.

Overall Contribution of the Internet for Teachers’ Professional Development

The Filipino teachers in this study regard the Internet as important in their effort to enhance their professional development. They use the Internet to share ideas/views with other teachers, to grow professionally, to improve teaching skills, and to be aware of the latest developments in ELT (Table 6).

Table 6. The importance of Internet’s contribution to the overall professional development of the Filipino English language teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Importance of Internet</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. to share ideas/views with other teachers</td>
<td>3.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. to grow professionally</td>
<td>3.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. to improve teaching skills</td>
<td>3.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. to be aware of the latest development in ELT</td>
<td>3.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. to expand experiences for career/promotion purposes</td>
<td>3.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. to learn new skills related to ELT</td>
<td>3.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. to prepare self for innovation</td>
<td>3.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. to facilitate thinking abilities</td>
<td>3.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. to gain motivation</td>
<td>3.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. to remain interested in teaching</td>
<td>3.03</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When asked if the Internet has had a positive impact on the teachers’ practices of teaching and learning, 96 teachers (57.14%) stress that the Internet is useful and that the Internet is likely to lead to significant changes in the way they teach in the near future. Quite similarly, 76% of the Malaysian English language teachers in the Kabilan and Mohamed Amin’s (2002) study state
that the Internet has been useful to them, and have contributed meaningfully to their professional development. The Filipino teachers’ positive view of the Internet’s contribution to their professional development indicate that the Internet is a tool for these teachers to get connected to the outside world, to retrieve information, to keep in touch with the latest news, ideas and approaches to the teaching and learning of English. Hence, the Internet has a huge potential to engage these Filipino teachers to form collaboration with other teachers outside Philippines, especially for the construction of knowledge and ideas.

This study provides a clear indication that the Filipino English teachers are not lagging behind in terms of information, knowledge and professional development as the Internet has kept them informed of the current educational development, especially in the field of teaching English. The current trends of research and practice in enhancing teachers’ professional development using the Internet tools (or online professional development) are gearing towards “a more self-managed and self-directed process of enhancing professional development” (Kabilan 2005, p.55). With such use of the Internet, teachers actually have the opportunities to learn and gain valuable teacher competencies such as computing skills, creative and critical thinking and communication skills (Kabilan 2005). From the data, it is evident that the Filipino teachers in this study are aware of the potentials of the Internet to help them gain the competencies mentioned by Kabilan (2005).

Conclusion

As a final note, it should be pointed out that internet can or will never substitute teachers but they offer more opportunities for better language practices. They may actually make the process of language learning significantly richer and play a key role in the reform of a country’s educational system. The next generation of students will feel a lot more confident with information technology than we do. Therefore, the use of the Internet cannot be considered as the ultimate goal or the only solution for language teaching problems. There are and will be both advantages and disadvantages of its use. In sum, it needs to be looked at only as a working compromise-like everything else in education.

Suggestions and Recommendations

It is therefore necessary for the government authorities to take the initiative to encourage the use of the Internet for teaching English in Cagayan Valley, Philippines. This can be achieved by being more active and supportive in terms of:

1. Increase funding for technology especially computers and Internet facilities and access.

2. The different universities in the region should introduce computer/technology education into existing curricular as well as teacher education and professional development programs.
3. In-service courses which focus on the use of Internet in language education will experience a boom in the upcoming years, but will decline as pre-service institutions restructure their courses to meet the demands of public education. However, this is not a very fast process and will take perhaps a decade to produce tangible results. It is therefore suggested that state universities and colleges must provide support in the form of networks, technical support, resources and facilities and time allocation for teachers.

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Applying Aspects of the Cognitive Theory to $L_2$ Learning: Focus on Training Transfer

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ABSTRACT: One of the major issues that has been the focus of much SLA research is “Is SLA unconscious in the way $L_1$ acquisition seems to be?” The controversy over conscious versus unconscious learning has been at the heart of much debate in the field of $L_2$ acquisition. Although this debate has attracted a growing number of researchers, one area of worthwhile research that has received minimal attention is the effect of learners’ training on their ability to notice linguistic forms and meanings, which, in turn, may affect the rate of development of their metalinguistic knowledge. On the other hand, listening comprehension has been characterized as a highly-complex problem-solving activity that can be broken down into a set of distinct subskills.

With this theoretical background in mind, the present study reports the results of an experiment conducted on 200 learners of English as a second language. It attempts to answer three interrelated questions: (1) to what extent does the advanced students’ performance in listening tasks differ from that of the beginning students before and after training?; (2) how can two types of training (intensive listening vs. improving learners’ linguistic skills) affect $L_2$ learners listening comprehension skill?, and (3) what does students’ performance, before and after training, tell us about their abilities to transfer?

The instruments used are (1) pre-test; (2) classroom instruction sessions; (3) post-test, and (4) interviews. The data analysis has a quantitative and a qualitative, interpretative part. Results are obtained and discussed, and pedagogical applications are suggested.

Key words: cognitive theory; $L_2$ listening; Training transfer

Introduction

One of the major aims of education, whether stated explicitly or implicitly, is to increase students’ ability to competently interact with a varied and changing world. To meet this goal, students must be able to appropriately transfer knowledge and skills acquired in one setting to
another. Therefore, psychologists and educators have long been interested in understanding how people learn, for the concept of learning is central to many different human endeavors. The problem, however, is threefold: 1) given the central importance of transfer in our educational system, it is surprising that relatively little attention has been paid to this issue by educational and psychological researchers, and linguists, as well. 2) as we think about our experiences as teachers and researchers and examine our beliefs about the learning process, it becomes clear that we have no all-encompassing theory of language acquisition that matches what we have learned from experience. Rather, we find a great deal of research on small parts of the total picture without an integrated theory to guide our work. In this connection, Hatch, Shiari, and Fantuzzi (1990: 697) argue that “there is no theory that integrates all areas of language acquisition. Because each researcher must limit the scope of his or her research, the questions asked and answers sought are almost always about one separate subsystem of the total picture”. The third aspect of the problem we are encountering is that theories of how second languages are learned have been approached from a variety of perspectives: sociolinguistic, educational, neurolinguistic, psycholinguistic, and linguistic. “Because of this diversity, it is often difficult for researchers from different traditions to communicate with one another or to fully appreciate the significance of the questions being addressed (Gass, 1989: 6) Relatedly, McLaughlin (1987: 6), correctly, points out that “disciplines tend to become fragmented into ‘schools’, whose members are loath to accept, and are even hostile to the views of other schools using different methods and reaching different conclusions. Each group becomes convinced that it has a corner on ‘truth’. Instead, it should be kept in mind that 1) linguistics is only one of the disciplines that second language acquisition research can draw on, and “multiple sources of information are needed to build up a picture of the language knowledge in the mind” (Cook, 1993: 269). 2) As McLaughlin (1987: 6) argues, “multiple ways of seeing result in multiple truths... there is no scientific truth... Scientific progress is achieved as we come to illuminate progressively our knowledge in a particular domain by taking different perspectives, each of which must be evaluated in its own right”.

Specifically speaking, the field of linguistics and cognitive psychology contain separate paradigms for describing second language acquisition. As Spolsky (1985) points out, linguistic theories assume that language is learned separately from cognitive skills, operating according to different principles from most learned behaviors. As O’Malley, Chamot and Walker (1987: 288) point out, “this assumption is represented in analysis of unique language properties such as developmental language order, grammar, knowledge of language structures, social and contextual influences on language use, and the distinction between language acquisition and language learning. Language and linguistic processes are often viewed as interacting with cognition but nevertheless maintaining a separate identity that justifies investigation independent from cognitive processes”. In addition, theory development in second language acquisition that addresses cognitive processes remains limited despite recent interest in the relationship between language and cognitive processes.
The Subjects

The present study reports the results of an experiment, which was conducted on 200 learners of English as a foreign language. The first group (Beginners) consisted of 100 first year students in the department of English, at the Faculty of Education, Minufiya University, Egypt. The second group (Advanced) consisted of 100 fourth year students in the same department. Each group will be divided into two sub-groups: one group will be given visual training and the other group will be given auditory training.

Hypotheses

It was hypothesized that advanced students’ performance before and after training would be better than that of the beginning subjects. This may seem natural because of the seemingly advanced linguistic abilities of advanced students in comparison to those of the beginning students. In addition, it was hypothesized that intensive listening training would be more beneficial than visual training for both beginners and advanced students. Finally, it was hypothesized that advanced students would be able to transfer their learned knowledge, which they had obtained throughout the training sessions, to the actual task of listening. This ability of transfer may explain why advanced students would be better performers than the beginners, regardless of their linguistic level.

Instruments

The instruments of this study consisted of four tasks: 1) pre-test; 2) classroom instruction sessions; 3) post-test, and 4) interviews. The pre-test was made of 30 questions of part (A) from a TOEFL test; listening comprehension section. Each correct answer was worth one point. Having accomplished the above task, the subjects were asked to truthfully report on their performance. Specifically, they were asked to pinpoint the problems they faced while working on the pre-test, and the strategies they used to overcome these problems. The subjects were asked to come the next day following the pre-test to attend a group discussion on the test they had taken the other day. Each group (either “Beginners or Advanced”) was distributed into two sub-groups; one group attended a visual training and the other sub-group attended an auditory training. Each student in the auditory groups was given intensive exposure to the listening material of the pre-test. This session took place in the language lab, in which the auditory group had a chance to listen repeatedly to the listening material. The auditory training continued as long as students want. In the end of the session, students were asked if they want to listen more; and their answer was simply “we are ready for the test”. However, to be sure that the students had enough auditory training, they were asked to come the following day for further training. No discussion or explanation of the listening material was provided; the focus was mainly on just listening. Each student in the visual training groups had a copy of the sentences and conversations of the pre-test. Together we discussed them, and the purpose was to get them familiar with the vocabulary, grammatical structures, and to answer any question related to the linguistic aspects of these sentences and conversations. No student was allowed to take the
In the post-test session, the subjects in both groups were asked to work on the test used before. To be sure that their performance reflects their listening ability, the order of the sentences and conversations was changed before the post-test began. Also, the post-test was given one week after the training sessions to reduce any reliance on memorization. Finally, each student in both groups was interviewed to explain his/her performance in the post-test. I interviewed the students individually. Conducting the interview with each subject took about one hour and half. During the interview, students were asked to explain why certain answer was made. No feedback on the correctness of their responses was given before the end of the interview. Students’ explanations were tape-recorded and transcribed.

Data Analysis

The data analysis had a quantitative and a qualitative, interpretative part. The quantitative part consisted of a descriptive statistical comparison of the number of correct responses in the pre-and post-tests. The T-test was applied to determine the significance of differences among means. The qualitative part was an analysis of each student’s performance in the pre-and post-tests. The analysis was inductive, based on the individual’s explanations, and aimed at accounting for the differences between the tasks.

Theoretical Framework

Before Chomsky, linguistics tended to be a taxonomic enterprise, involving collecting a body of data (utterances) from the external world and classifying it without reference to its source, the human mind (Carston, 1988). Since Chomsky, “linguists have thought of themselves as investigating mental representations and rules, and thus as engaged in a branch of theoretical cognitive psychology. Chomsky himself characterized the study of generative grammar as having effected a shift of focus in language study from E-language (= externalized language) to I-language (= internalized language), that is, “from behavior or the products of behaviour to states of the mind / brain that enter into behaviour” (Chomsky 1986: 3). On the other hand, cognitive approaches to L2 acquisition see L2 acquisition as a complex cognitive skill. As Schulz (1991: 19) points out “rather than stressing innate, universal linguistic processes, affective factors, input, or interaction as causative factors for L2 development, cognitive theory sees L2 acquisition as a mental process, leading through structured practice of various component subskills to automatization and integration of linguistic patterns” (See Al-Hinai, 2006; Bardovi-Harlig, 2006; Beare & Bourdages, 2007; Brown, 2009).

Literature Review

Listening comprehension: its importance/Nature

The endeavor of today’s communication scholars and SLA researchers to penetrate and illuminate the mental processes involved in comprehending discourse spoken in one’s native language (NL) or second/foreign language (L2) is a quest that has engrossed philosophers since ancient times, has absorbed psychologists and speech communication scholars since the early
part of the 20th century, and, more recently, has captured the attention of SLA researchers and practitioners of English as a second language as well as English as a foreign language. The study of listening comprehension has, in fact, become a polestar of second language acquisition theory building, research and pedagogy. According to Dunkel (1991), a major catalyst for the relatively recent and intense interest in listening comprehension research has been the realization and accumulating evidence that input plays a critical role in second language acquisition. In this regard, Long (1985) points out that current theories of second language acquisition, such as the information processing model (McLaughlin, Rossman, & McLeod, 1993), monitor model (Krashen, 1977), the intake model (Chaudron, 1985), the interaction model (Hatch, 1983), all emphasize the key role listening plays in the development of a learner’s second / foreign language, particularly at the beginning stages of language development.

Not only is listening comprehension important at the beginning stages of SLA, it appears to be crucially important for advanced-level learners (Power, 1985). Peterson (1991: 106-107) maintains that no other type of language input is as easy to process as spoken language received through listening. At the beginning stages of language study, before students have learned to read well, it is by listening that they can have the most direct connection to the meaning of the new language. They can use spoken language to build an awareness of the interworkings of language systems at various levels and thus establish a base for productive skills. At the intermediate level, when students are refining the grammatical system of the language, listening can be used to stimulate awareness of detail and to promote accuracy. At advanced levels, when written language becomes a viable source of input, a regular program of listening can extend the limits of learners’ vocabulary and use of idioms, and build their appreciation for cultural nuances. Now, many contemporary foreign language educators and researchers regard comprehensible input (written as well as spoken) as essential to developing the ability to produce the target language fluently. Accordingly, listening comprehension has become the foundation of a number of theories of second language acquisition that focus on the beginning levels of second language proficiency. The primary assumption underlying these theories is that language acquisition is an implicit process in which linguistic rules are internalized by extensive exposure to authentic texts and particularly to comprehensible input that provides an appropriate level of challenge to the listener (See Centeno-Cortes & Jienez, 2004; Cohen, 2008).

Current understanding of the nature of listening comprehension draws on research in psycholinguistics, semantics, pragmatics, discourse analysis, and cognitive science. However, there is little direct research on second language listening comprehension. It may be pertinent, then, to look to the NL listening research literature for help in identifying some of the factors that seem to influence comprehension of L2 discourse. According to Clark and Clark (1977:49), the following processes appear to be involved in comprehension: (1) The listener takes in raw speech and holds an image of it in short-term memory, (2) An attempt is made to organize what was heard into constituents, identifying their content and function, (3) As constituents are identified, they are used to construct propositions grouping the propositions together to form a
coherent message, (4) Once the listener has identified and reconstructed the prepositional meanings, these are held in long-term memory, and the form in which the message was originally received is deleted.

Foder, Bever, and Garrett (1974) suggest that native language words are held in short-term memory only long enough for the listener to organize them into clauses and to extract the meaning that they convey. As soon as the listener has interpreted the clause, the elements that made it up are purged from memory in order to make room for incoming sounds. Foreign language input seems to be processed in the same way, but, as Rivers and Temperley (1978) point out, short-term memory for target language words is often overloaded. Causing words to be purged before they can be organized and interpreted. Thus, even though language learners may be able to recognize each word of an utterance as it is spoken, they may not be able to hold lengthy utterance in mind, long enough to interpret them. Since most learners experience this frustration in learning to communicate orally in a foreign language (Loe 1984, Rivers 1972), an understanding of this relationship is important for the purpose of improving instruction (See Conley, 2008; De Keyser, 2003; Echevarri et al., 2004).

**Short-Term Memory and Language Comprehension**

The act of listening to and understanding a spoken language can be described as a series of processes through which the sounds associated with a particular utterance are converted into meaning. As the sounds impinge on the auditory system of the listener, they are briefly retained (for about one second) in a sensory store called echoic memory (Loftus and Loftus 1976). At this point, the listener imposes order on this succession of sounds by means of previously learned patterns which segment the sound stream of the language into meaningful units. Once the patterns that the sounds form have been recognized, they pass into short-term memory, usually in the form of words. The capacity of short-term memory is limited to about seven units, plus or minus two (Miller 1956, Klatzky 1975). The definition of a unit varies with the type of input and also with the listeners’ previous experience in dealing with the particular type of material that they are processing. For example, if a series of letters of the Roman alphabet were presented in random order to native speakers of English, they would be able to recall only about seven, plus or minus two letters. If, on the other hand, the letters were presented so that they could be patterned into English words, listeners would probably be able to group the letters into meaningful units according to their previous knowledge of English sound-symbol correspondence.

In language processing, units are usually defined syntactically as words, phrases, or clauses. Once sounds have entered short-term memory and have been patterned into appropriate syntactic units, they are retained only long enough to be interpreted semantically before they are purged from memory in order to make room for new input. The information that they carried may or may not pass into long-term memory, but the exact words in which the information was expressed are seldom retained for a long period of time. Once the meaning has
been extracted, the exact words are forgotten. Jarvella (1971) offers evidence that only the last-heard sentence (or clause, if the sentence is lengthy) can be recalled verbatim. Thus, short-term memory, by using syntactic rules to chunk incoming linguistic data, plays a central role in the extraction of meaning and potential long-term retention of meaning from spoken language (See Ellis, N., 2002, 2005; Ellis, R., 2006).

**Attention: What is it?**

Attention is one of those psychological topics that everyone has intuitions about, but few know exactly how to define precisely. Although discussed by James (1890), it was long ignored in the behaviorist era as being too mentalistic and unobservable to be worthy of study in scientific psychology. In the 1950s and 1960s, however, there arose a resurgence of interest in studying attention, primarily by several British researchers, notably Broadbent (1958); Treisman (1964), and Cherry (1953).

Many of the contemporary ideas of attention are based on the premise that there are available to the human observer a myriad of cues that surround us at any given moment. Our neurological capacity is too limited to sense all of the millions of external stimuli, but, even were these stimuli detected, the brain would be unable to process all of them (Solso, 1991). Generally, attention has been conceptualized in two ways. First, it has often been considered as a state of concentrating on something. In this tradition, James (1970/1890) called attention the “focalization of consciousness”. As a state, it has some similarities to other psychological states, such as emotions like anxiety or happiness, which are also not directly observable, but rather must be inferred from behavior. An alternative way to conceptualize attention is as processing capacity, which can be allocated in a variety of ways to different stimuli and activities. In this regard, Leahey and Harris (1997: 109) maintained that “the concept of time-sharing is useful here. A finite amount of capacity (attention) exists that may be allocated or time-shared among the various stimuli and activities demanding attention. According to James (1970/1890: 403) “attention is the taking possession of the mind, in clear and vivid form, of one out of what seem several simultaneously possible objects or trains of thoughts... It implies withdrawal from some things in order to deal effectively with others” (See Eskildsen, 2008; Jiang, 2007).

Studies of attention fall into two broad classes, which are concerned respectively with divided and with focused or selective attention. Divided attention tasks used to establish limits to performance and to measure the extent to which different tasks can be combined without loss. They are also used to analyze the causes of dual-tasks decrements and to locate the stages of processing that limit performance. Tasks of selective or focused attention are used to study resistance to distraction, and to establish the locus beyond which relevant and irrelevant stimuli are treated differently. As Dodd and white (1980: 14) argue. “Attention... involves a selection of information [which] is often related to central processor control, depending on specific goals and plans, certain information will be selected and other information rejected”. According to Leahey and Harris (1997:109), how we select activities to attend to and how we determine how many
stimuli we can process simultaneously depends on a variety of factors: 1) the number of sources is important; that is, it is harder to pay attention to five people talking than it is to one; 2) the similarity of sources is important; that is, “some people find that they can study well with instrumental music in the background, but not with vocal music. The latter, being linguistic, is similar enough to reading to interfere, while purely instrumental music in not.”; and 3) the complexity of sources or tasks is another important variable; that is, it is much easier to pay attention to several simple stimuli or simultaneously perform more than one simple task than it is if the stimuli or tasks are complex. To sum up this section, Haberlandt (1997: 64) points out that “Attention plays a role in perception and performance, even though we may be unaware of it. We become aware of its role, however, when a stimulus is difficult to perceive. When we execute two tasks simultaneously, and when we face an overload of information” (See Hoey, 2007; Gass & Makey, 2011).

Our attentional system performs many functions other than merely turning out familiar stimuli and turning in novel ones. The four main functions of attention are 1) selective attention, in which we choose to attend to some stimuli and to ignore other; 2) vigilance, in which we watchfully wait to detect the appearance of a particular stimulus; 3) search, in which we actively seek out particular stimuli, and 4) divided attention, in which we prudently allocate our available attentional resources to coordinate our performance of more than one task at a time.

**SLA Research on Attention and Noticing**

Over the past two decades, researchers in the field of second language acquisition (SLA) have become increasingly interested in concepts traditionally associated with cognitive psychology such as memory, learning ability, and connectionism. Ellis (2002:299) points out, “we are now at a stage at which there are important connections between SLA theory and the neuroscience of learning - and memory”. The concept of attention has become especially important because of its crucial role in so many aspects of SLA theory such as input, processing, development, variation, and instruction (Lightbown and Spada, 2006). The noticing hypothesis seems to have been motivated by a seminal study by Schmidt and Frota (1986), which documents the role of noticing for a beginner learning Portuguese in Portugal over a period of 22 weeks. Their findings question the assumption that language acquisition is a purely subconscious process (Krashen, 1982), since the learner clearly noticed some of the grammatical structures he seemed to have acquired. Different results were obtained in a similar study by Altman (1990, as cited in Schmidt, 1990), who monitored her own acquisition of Hebrew over a period of five years. Altman was unable to identify the source of half of the new verbs she had learned. She concluded that awareness was not necessary in learning vocabulary. Schmidt and Frota also admit that they were unable to trace much of what had been acquired to what had been noticed. Self reports are inherently subjective. Moreover, memory effects may play a role depending on the amount of time that passes before the diary entry is made. Nevertheless, first person accounts seem to be the most valid method for assessing what is noticed. Much of Schmidt’s work ties
findings from cognitive psychology into SLA theory. As N. Ellis (1994: 10) points out, “Schmidt is one of the few linguists who have adopted the conceptual and experimental rigours of experimental psychology in answering questions concerning the role of consciousness in L2 acquisition”. Reviewing the psychological literature on consciousness has led Schmidt to propose the Noticing Hypothesis, which states that “noticing is the necessary and sufficient condition for converting input into intake” (1990: 129). Since then, a considerable amount of research has addressed the issue of noticing in SLA (Cross, 2002; Sakai, 2004; Chun & Zhao, 2006; Perry and Lewis, 2009).

One of the most influential attentional studies in SLA was conducted by Van Patten (1990), who investigated the notion of attention as a limited resource (Broadbent, 1958, as cited in Robinson, 1995). More specifically, the study examined whether learners were able to consciously attend to both form and meaning when processing input. Results showed that the content only and lexical groups significantly outperformed the form and morphology groups. This led Van Patten to conclude that it was difficult, especially for beginners, to notice content and form at the same time. Moreover, he postulated that learners would notice meaning before form, since their primary objective is to understand the prepositional content of utterances. Van Patten’s findings have led SLA researchers to try and find ways to help learners focus on both form and meaning. Posner and Petersen (1990) describe attention in terms of three networks: alertness, orientation, and detection. Alertness refers to a general state of readiness to receive input. The higher the level of alertness, the faster the speed of selecting information for processing will be. Orientation to the alignment of attentional resources to a particular stimulus from among a host of stimuli. Orienting attention to a stimulus facilitates the processing of that stimulus. Orientation differs from alertness in that a learner might for example be ready to learn (alertness) but not know whether to focus on form or meaning (orientation). Detection is probably the most important network in attention; it refers to the cognitive registration of a stimulus. Once a stimulus is detected, it becomes available for further processing. Although detection does not necessarily imply awareness, Schmidt (2001) suggests using the term registration to refer to stimuli that are detected without awareness. According to Schmidt (1994: 179) noticing refers to the “registration [detection] of the occurrence of a stimulus event in conscious awareness and subsequent storage in long term memory...” Schmidt is careful to distinguish noticing from understanding, which he defines as “recognition of a general principle, rule or pattern” (1995: 29). Understanding represents a deeper level of awareness than noticing which is limited to “elements of the surface structure of utterances in the input” rather than underlying rules (Schmidt, 2001: 5). Tomlin and Villa (1994) suggest that there are four conceptions of attention in SLA. One is that of attention as a limited capacity system. The idea being that the brain may be presented (through the sensory system) with an overwhelming number of stimuli at any given time, and it seems impossible to process them all. The limitations of attention refer not only to the amount (or duration) of attention that may be given to a single stimulus but also to the number of stimuli that may be attended to simultaneously. This leads to a
second conception of attention, namely that it constitutes a process of selection. The overwhelming amounts of incoming stimuli force the attentional system to be selective. The third conception of attention, involves controlled rather than automatic processing of information. The underlying assumption here is that some tasks require more processing effort, and hence a higher degree of attention, than others. A person may therefore perform two tasks at the same time, especially if one requires automatic processing (low attention). By the same token, it is more difficult to perform two tasks if both require controlled processing (high attention). The fact that controlled processing of two simultaneous tasks is sometimes possible led researchers to develop a fourth conception of attention, which is that it must involve a process of coordination among competing stimuli and responses. In this process, attention must be established, maintained, discontinued, and redirected in order to perform different actions (See Robinson, Ellis, N., 2011; Kimberly, 2009).

Transfer of Training

Within the last half-dozen years or so, cognitive psychologists have steadily become more and more interested in transfer, to the point where it is once again a principal focus of research. Transfer of training (often called transfer of learning) is pervasive in everyday life, in the developing child and in the adult. Transfer takes place whenever our existing knowledge, abilities, and skills affect the learning or performance of new tasks. In this connection, Cormier and Hagman (1987: XI) point out that “it is no wonder that the topic of transfer of learning has been of theoretical importance to the behavioral scientist and of practical importance to the educator and trainer”. At the most general level, transfer is a phenomenon involving change in the performance of a task as a result of the prior performance of a different task (Gick and Holyoak, 1987). In essence, transfer of learning occurs whenever prior-learned knowledge and skills affect the way in which new knowledge and skills are learned and performed. When later acquisition or performance is impeded, transfer is negative (See Nation, 2008; Mouhanna, M. & Mouhanna, L., 2010).

Human performance in almost any cognitive or motor skill shows profound changes with practice. For example, the beginning reader may need a few second to encode each new letter and be error prone, whereas the expert can accurately encode 25 letters per second and still have sufficient capacity available to encode the material semantically. The striking changes that occur with practice have led many researchers to propose that qualitative changes occur in the processing (Schneider, Dumais and Shiffrin, 1984). According to Fisk, Schneider (1981), training can help to increase vigilance, but in tasks requiring sustained vigilance, fatigue hinders performance, so there may be no substitute for frequent rest periods to enhance signal detection. After a great deal of consistent practice, subjects in a number of studies have been able to perform complex dual tasks with little or no duel-process performance decrement (See Mongubhai, 2006; Lightbown & Spada, 2006).
Because transfer depends on the application of previously acquired knowledge, it is inherently dependent on memory. There are four classes of factors that determine transfer performance, adapted from the four-factor model of memory performance developed by Jenkins (1979). First, it is important to consider the structure of the task to be initially learned and its relationship to the transfer task. That is, the learner’s representation of the task is necessarily dependent on the structure of the task itself. Second, it is necessary to assess whether the conditions at encoding foster learning of the material and are appropriate for the subsequent transfer task. The third class of factors concerns conditions at retrieval (i.e., the performance of the transfer task) that influence access to and applications of appropriate knowledge. The fourth important factor to be considered is the background knowledge of the subjects. Effective transfer of knowledge depends on its prior acquisition. As long as structurally similar responses are acquired in the training and transfer tasks, positive transfer increases with degree of initial learning. Despite the importance of this basic fact, studies of transfer have not always demonstrated the requisite degree of initial learning.

The Present Study

The present study reports the results of an experiment, which was conducted on 200 learners of English as a foreign language. It attempts to answer three interrelated questions: 1) to what extent does the advanced students’ performance in listening tasks differ from that of the beginning students before and after training?; 2) how can two types of training (intensive listening vs. improving learners’ linguistic skills) affect L2 learners’ comprehension skill?, and 3) what does students’ performance, before and after the training, tell us about their abilities to transfer?

The reader is reminded that listening comprehension is characterized as a highly-complex problem-solving activity that can be broken down into a set of distinct subskills. Two of these skills were described by Rivers (1972) as the recognition of component parts of the language (words, verb groups, simple phrases) and memory for these elements, once they have been recognized. Recognizing linguistic elements, while essential to the process, is not sufficient for comprehending what is heard.

Results

The first question that this study attempts to answer is “to what extent does the advanced students’ performance in listening comprehension skill differ from that of the beginning students before and after training?” Based on the results of the experiment reported in the present study, the following conclusions can be made:

1) Sub-group (1) of the beginning subjects (N=50) scored a total of 408 out of 1500 points in the pre-test, with a means of 8.16, and standard deviation of 3.18. After receiving visual training, they scored a total of 728 points in the post-test, with a means of 14.56, and standard deviation of 4.74.
2) Sub-group (2) of the beginning subjects (N=50) scored a total of 387 out of 1500 points in the pre-test, with a means of 7.74, and standard deviation of 3.20. After receiving auditory training, they scored a total of 526, with a means of 10.52, and standard deviation of 4.51.

3) Sub-group (1) of the advanced subjects (N=50) scored a total of 411 points out of 1500 in the pre-test, with a means of 8.22, and standard deviation of 3.44. After receiving visual training, they scored a total of 659 in the post-test, with a means of 13.18, and standard deviation of 4.59.

4) Sub-group (2) of the advanced subjects scored a total of 481 points out of 1500 in the pre-test, with a means of 9.62 and standard deviation of 3.72. After receiving auditory training, they scored a total of 695 points in the post-test, with a means of 13.90, and standard deviation of 5.82 (see Table 1).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>X</th>
<th>X^2</th>
<th>X</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Beginners (1) Pre-Test</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>408</td>
<td>3836</td>
<td>8.16</td>
<td>3.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Beginners (1) Post-Test</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>728</td>
<td>11724</td>
<td>14.56</td>
<td>4.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Beginners (2) Pre-Test</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>387</td>
<td>3507</td>
<td>7.74</td>
<td>3.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Beginners (2) Post-Test</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>526</td>
<td>6552</td>
<td>10.52</td>
<td>4.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Advanced (1) Pre-Test</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>411</td>
<td>3971</td>
<td>8.22</td>
<td>3.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Advanced (1) Post-Test</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>659</td>
<td>9741</td>
<td>13.18</td>
<td>4.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Advanced (2) Pre-Test</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>481</td>
<td>5321</td>
<td>9.62</td>
<td>3.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Advanced (2) Post-Test</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>695</td>
<td>11351</td>
<td>13.90</td>
<td>5.82</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5) Both sub-groups of the beginning subjects (N=100) scored a total of 795 points out of 3000 in the pre-test, with a means of 7.95, and standard deviation of 3.20. After receiving two types of training (visual and auditory), they scored a total of 1254 points, with a means of 12.54, and standard deviation of 5.05.

6) Both sub-groups of the advanced subjects (N=100) scored a total of 892 points out of 3000 in the pre-test, with a means of 8.92 and standard deviation of 3.65. After receiving both
types of training (visual and auditory), they scored a total of 1354 points in the post-test, with a means of 13.54, and standard deviation of 5.25 (see Table 2).

Table (2)

Means and standard deviations of both beginners and advanced in the pre- and post-tests.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>X</th>
<th>X2</th>
<th>X</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Beginners (1+2) Pre-Test</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>795</td>
<td>7343</td>
<td>7.95</td>
<td>3.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Beginners (1+2) Post-Test</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>1254</td>
<td>18276</td>
<td>12.54</td>
<td>5.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Advanced (1+2) Pre-Test</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>892</td>
<td>9292</td>
<td>8.92</td>
<td>3.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Advanced (1+2) Post-Test</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>1354</td>
<td>21092</td>
<td>13.54</td>
<td>5.25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7) Comparing the performance of sub-group (1) of the beginning subjects in the pre-test to the performance of sub-group (2) of the beginning subjects in the pre-test shows that there is no significant statistical difference between the two. The T value is 0.65 which is not statistically significant.

8) Comparing the performance of sub-group (1) of the beginning subjects in the pre-test to their performance in the post-test was in favour of the post-test. The T value is 7.85, which is statistically significant at 0.01. Also, comparing the performance of sub-group (2) of the beginning subjects in the pre-test to their performance in the post-test (auditory training) shows that the training effect is statistically significant. The T value is 3.52, which is statistically significant at 0.01.

9) Comparing the performance of all Beginners (N=100) in the pre-test to that of all Advanced (N=100) in the pre-test was in favour of the Advanced subjects. The T value is 1.99, which is statistically significant at 0.05.
### Table (3)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>$\bar{X}$</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Sign. Level</th>
<th>In favour of</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Beginners (1) Pre-Test</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>8.16</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td>Insign.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beginners (2) Post-Test</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>7.74</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td></td>
<td>Insign.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advanced (1) Pre-Test</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>8.22</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>1.93</td>
<td>Insign.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advanced (2) Post-Test</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>9.62</td>
<td>3.72</td>
<td></td>
<td>Insign.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beginners (1) Pre-Test</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>8.16</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>Insign.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advanced (1) Pre-Test</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>8.22</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td></td>
<td>Insign.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beginners (2) Pre-Test</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>7.74</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>2.68</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>Advanced (2) Pre-Test</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advanced (2) Pre-Test</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>9.62</td>
<td>3.72</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beginners (1+2) Pre-Test</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>7.95</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>1.99</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>Advanced (1) Pre-Test</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advanced (1+2) Pre-Test</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>8.92</td>
<td>3.65</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beginners (1) Pre-Test</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>8.16</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>7.85</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>Beginners (1) Post-Test</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beginners (1) Post-Test</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>14.56</td>
<td>4.74</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beginners (2) Pre-Test</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>7.74</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>3.52</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>Beginners (2) Post-Test</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beginners (2) Pre-Test</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>10.52</td>
<td>4.51</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$N_1 = N_2 = 100$

$T = 2.60$ significant at 0.01

$10$ Comparing the performance of sub-group (1) of the Beginning subjects in the pre-test to that of sub-group (1) of the Advanced subjects in the pre-test shows no significant statistical difference between the two. The $T$ value is 0.09, which is not statistically significant. In addition, comparing the performance of sub-group (2) of the Beginning subjects in the pre-test to the performance of sub-group (2) of the Advanced subjects in the pre-test shows statistical significant difference between them in favour of the Advanced sub-group. The $T$ value is 2.68 which is statistically significant at 0.01.
11) Comparing the performance of sub-group (1) of the Advanced subjects in the pre-test to that of sub-group (2) of the Advanced subjects in the pre-test shows no significant statistical difference between the two. The T value is 1.93 which is not significant statistically (see Table 3).

12) Table (4) shows that comparing the performance of the beginning subjects (N=100) in the pre-test to their performance in the post-test was in favor of the post-test. The T value is 7.64, which is statistically significant at 0.01. Similarity, comparing the performance of the advanced subjects (N=100) in the pre-test to their performance in the post-test was in favour of the post-test. The T value is 7.19, which is statistically significant at 0.01.

13) Comparing the performance of sub-group 1) of the advanced subjects (N=50) in the pre-test to their performance in the post-test was in favour of the post-test. The T value is 6.05, which is statistically significant at 0.01. The same can be said regarding sub-group 2) of the advanced subjects. The T value is 4.34, which is statistically significant at 0.01.

14) More importantly, comparing the performance of sub-group (1) of the beginning subjects in the post-test (after receiving visual training) to the performance of sub-group (2) of the beginning subjects in the post-test (after receiving auditory training) was in favour of the visual training. The T value is 4.32 which is statistically significant at 0.01 However, this is not the case with the advanced subjects. That is, comparing the performance of sub-group (1) of the advanced subjects in the post-test (after receiving visual training) to the performance of sub-group (2) of the advanced subjects in the post-test (after receiving auditory training) shows that the effect of either training has no significant statistical value. The T value is 0.68 which is not statistically significant (see Table 4).

**Table (4)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>X</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Sign. Level</th>
<th>In favour of</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Beginners (1+2) Pre-Test</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>7.95</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>7.64</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>Beginners (1+2) Post-Test</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beginners (1+2) Post-Test</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>12.54</td>
<td>5.05</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advanced (1+2) Pre-Test</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>8.92</td>
<td>3.65</td>
<td>7.19</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>Advanced (1+2) Post-Test</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advanced (1+2) Post-Test</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>13.54</td>
<td>5.25</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advanced (1) Pre-Test</td>
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<td>8.22</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>6.05</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>Advanced (1) Post-Test</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advanced (1) Post-Test</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>13.18</td>
<td>4.59</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advanced (2) Pre-Test</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>9.62</td>
<td>3.72</td>
<td>4.34</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>Advanced (2) Post-Test</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advanced (2) Post-Test</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>13.90</td>
<td>5.82</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The second question that the present study seeks to answer is “how can two types of training (intensive listening vs. improving learners’ linguistic skills) affect L2 learners’ listening comprehension skill?”. Based on the results obtained, the following conclusions can be made:

1. The beginning subjects (N=100) scored a total of 795 points out of 3000 in the pre-test, with a means of 7.95, and standard deviation of 3.20. After receiving the two types of training (visual and auditory), they scored a total of 1254 points, with a means of 12.54, and standard deviation of 5.05.

   Similarly, the advanced subjects (N=100) scored a total of 892 points out of 3000 in the pre-test, with a means of 8.92 and standard deviation of 3.65. After receiving both types of training (visual and auditory), they scored a total of 1354 points in the post-test, with a means of 13.54, and standard deviation of 5.25.

2. Comparing the performance of sub-group (1) of the beginning subjects in the post-test (after receiving visual training) to the performance of sub-group (2) of the beginning subjects in the post-test (after receiving auditory training) was in favour of the visual training. The T value is 4.32 which is statistically significant at 0.01. However, this is not the case with the advanced subjects. That is, comparing the performance of sub-group (1) of the advanced subjects in the post-test (after receiving visual training) to the performance of sub-group (2) of the advanced subjects in the post-test (after receiving auditory training) shows that the effect of either training has no significant statistical value. The T value is 0.68 which is not statistically significant. Tables (5) and (6), and Figure (6) below, may clarify this point.
Table (5)

**Beginners (N=100)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Test Type</th>
<th>Post-Test</th>
<th>Pre-Test</th>
<th>Beginners (1)</th>
<th>Type of Training</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>100</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>50</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1136</td>
<td>728</td>
<td>408</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>15560</td>
<td>11724</td>
<td>3836</td>
<td>X²</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>100</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>913</td>
<td>526</td>
<td>387</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>10059</td>
<td>6552</td>
<td>3507</td>
<td>X²</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>2049</td>
<td>1254</td>
<td>795</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>25619</td>
<td>18276</td>
<td>7343</td>
<td>X²</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table (6)

**Analysis of Variance (2x2) between the type of Training (visual vs. Auditory) and Test-Type (Pre- and Post-Tests) For Beginners**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Variance</th>
<th>Squares</th>
<th>Degree of freedom</th>
<th>Variance</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sign.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total Score</td>
<td>4627</td>
<td>199</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>1465.86</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>3161.14</td>
<td>196</td>
<td>16.13</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of Training</td>
<td>248.65</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>248.65</td>
<td>15.42</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Test Type</td>
<td>1053.41</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1053.41</td>
<td>65.31</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interaction</td>
<td>163.80</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>163.80</td>
<td>10.16</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

F = 6.76 significant at 0.01

F = 3.89 significant at 0.05
Tables (5) and (6), and Figure (1) show that the training that the beginning subjects received affected positively their performance in the post-tests. Table (6) shows that there is significant relationship between the training that beginning subjects received and their performance in the post-test. The F values that signify this result are 15.42 and 65.31, respectively. There is also a statistically significant effect of interaction of the training offered and the test type. The F value that signifies this result is 10.16. All F values are statistically significant at 0.01.

Moreover, Figure (1) clearly shows that the visual training is more effective than auditory training for the beginning subjects. Due to the visual training, sub-group (1) of the beginning subjects scored higher in the post-test (the means for their scores were 8.16 in the pre-test, and 14.56 in the post-test). Although the auditory training resulted in improving the performance of sub-group (2) of the beginning subjects in the post-test, its effect is not the same as that of the visual training.

Tables (7) and (8), and Figure (2) clarify the situation with the advanced subject.
### Table (7)

**Advanced (1+2)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Test Type</th>
<th>Pre-Test</th>
<th>Post-Test</th>
<th>Type of Training</th>
<th>Type of Training</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Advanced (1)</td>
<td>Visual</td>
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<tr>
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<td>X</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13712</td>
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<td>3971</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>50</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Advanced (2)</td>
<td>Auditory</td>
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<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16672</td>
<td>11351</td>
<td>5321</td>
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<td>100</td>
<td>N</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2246</td>
<td>1354</td>
<td>892</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30384</td>
<td>21092</td>
<td>9292</td>
<td>X²</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table (8)

**Analysis of variance (2x2) between the type of training (Visual vs. Auditory) and test-type (pre- and post-tests) for advanced subjects**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Variance</th>
<th>Squares</th>
<th>Degree of freedom</th>
<th>Variance</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sign.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total Score</td>
<td>5161.42</td>
<td>199</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>1129.18</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>4032.24</td>
<td>196</td>
<td>20.57</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of Training</td>
<td>56.18</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>56.18</td>
<td>2.73</td>
<td>Insign.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Test Type</td>
<td>1067.22</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1067.22</td>
<td>51.88</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interaction</td>
<td>5.78</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.78</td>
<td>0.28</td>
<td>Insign.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

F = 6.76  significant at 0.01

= 3.89  significant at 0.05
Tables (7) and (8), and Figure (2) show the extent to which the training that was given to the Advanced subjects affected their performance in the post test. Table (8) shows that neither the visual nor the auditory training significantly affected the advanced subjects’ performance in the post test. The F values that signify this result are 2.73 and 0.28, respectively. Table (8) also shows that the Advanced subjects’ performance in the post test was somewhat better than it was in the pre-test. The F value that signifies this result was 51.88, which is statistically significant at 0.01. This second result may appear to contradict the first result; but it is not. This can be illustrated in Figure (2).

Figure (2) clearly shows the increase in the Advanced subjects’ performance in the post-test, which implies that the training had some effect. This effect, however, is not statistically significant. The means for sub-group (1) of the advanced subjects were 8.22 in the pre-test, and 13.18 in the post-test (after visual training). Similarly, the means for sub-group (2) of the advanced subjects were 9.62 in the pre-test, and 13.90 in the post-test (after auditory training). This will be, further, clarified more in tables (9) and (10) and Figure (3) next.
### Table (9)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Training</th>
<th>Students’ Academic status</th>
<th>Advanced</th>
<th>Beginners</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Visual</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1387</td>
<td>659</td>
<td>728</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>21465</td>
<td>9741</td>
<td>11724</td>
<td>X2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Auditory</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1221</td>
<td>695</td>
<td>526</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>17903</td>
<td>11351</td>
<td>6552</td>
<td>X2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2608</td>
<td>1354</td>
<td>1254</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>39368</td>
<td>21092</td>
<td>18276</td>
<td>X2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table (10)

**Analysis of variance (2x2) between students’ academic status (beginners vs. advanced) and type of training: the post-test**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Variance</th>
<th>Squares</th>
<th>Degree of freedom</th>
<th>Variance</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sign.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total Score</td>
<td>5359.68</td>
<td>199</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>471</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>4888.68</td>
<td>196</td>
<td>24.94</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of Training</td>
<td>137.78</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>137.78</td>
<td>5.52</td>
<td>0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic Status</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>2.01</td>
<td>Insign.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interaction</td>
<td>283.22</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>283.22</td>
<td>11.36</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

F = 6.76 significant at 0.01
F = 3.89 significant at 0.05
5. Tables (9) and (10), and Figure (4) shows that the subjects of the study did benefit from the training they received, regardless of their academic status. That is, both beginners’ and advanced’ scores had been improved due to the training they received. The F values that signify this result are 5.52 and 11.36. Being beginner or advanced didn’t affect their benefit of the training sessions. The question, however, is that what type of training was more effective?, and with what type of students? Figure (4) may answer these two questions. According to this Figure, the following results can be summarized in the following table:

**Figure (3)**
Table (11)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Beginners (N=100)</th>
<th>Advanced (N=100)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Visual Training</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-group (N=50)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-Test</td>
<td>8.16</td>
<td>8.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test</td>
<td>14.56</td>
<td>13.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Auditory Training</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-group (N=50)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-Test</td>
<td>7.74</td>
<td>9.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test</td>
<td>10.52</td>
<td>13.90</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The means of the subjects’ scores, which are presented in Table (11) above, will be more clearer in the following Figures.

**Figure (4)**

**Visual Training**
Figure (5)
Auditory Training

![Bar graph showing the comparison of scores before and after auditory training for beginners and advanced groups.]

Figure (6)
Beginners vs. Advanced
Before and After Training

![Bar graph showing the comparison of scores before and after training for beginners and advanced groups.]

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Concluding Remarks

In the light of the previous results, some remarks can be made:

1) Increased practice may lead to improved performance. And, skilled performance is due in large part to a decrease in the total amount of attentional capacity that must be devoted to a task and to an increase in the efficiency of responding through the removal of unnecessary elements.

2) The results of the present study advocate practicing consistent single-task components first, prior to having the learner perform the tasks concurrently. That is, in single-task training, components become automatic, no longer requiring attention.

3) This study provides evidence suggesting that even after substantial single-task practice, additional practice was needed to stabilize performance when a multidimensional task such as listening comprehension had to be performed concurrently. As previously mentioned, listening comprehension is characterized as a highly problem-solving activity that can be broken down into a set of distinct subskills. Two of these skills were described by Rivers (1972) as the recognition of component parts of the language (words, verb groups, simple phrases) and a memory for these elements, once they have been recognized. Recognizing linguistic elements, while essential to the process, is not sufficient for comprehending what is heard.

4) For any training program to be effective, the trainee must have some level of proficiency on the individual tasks on one hand, and the whole task on the other hand. In this regard, it can be suggested that adaptive training can be idealistic solution. In adaptive training the task is first simplified and is then made progressively more difficult as the learner acquires greater levels of expertise. Typically the learner is exposed to the whole task or almost the whole task to be mastered. In this way, each component is practiced in the context of the whole task.

5) Comparing the performance of the advanced students to that of the beginning subjects in the Pre- and Post- tests may suggest that learners’ motivation and attitudes toward the skill they are to master are crucial factors in their success or failure in mastering such a skill.

6) Based on the subjects’ interpretations of their performance in the Pre- and Post-tests, it can be said the skill of listening should be given due attention. Almost all of them (Beginners and Advanced) complained that they had no sufficient training, and they were not satisfied with the quality and the quantity of the care currently given to the listening comprehension skill compared to other skills. Such a compliant should be taken seriously if we really value the role played by the listening comprehension skill in language acquisition.

Based on the subjects’ explanations during the interview, one can argue that listening comprehension skill is a multidimensional activity which requires L2 learners to do more than one thing simultaneously. The problem here is that the demands on short-term memory exceed
human being’s cognitive capacity. The argument is compatible with the principles of the attention theory. This means that the subjects’ incorrect responses can be explained within the principles of attention theory. That is, some L2 learners may appear to have the necessary knowledge for successful listening; however, they are unable to display this knowledge during listening. In this regard, Fodor, Bever, and Garrett (1974) suggest that native language words are held in short-term memory only long enough for the listener to organize them into clauses and to extract the meaning that they convey. As soon as the listener has interpreted the clause, the elements that made it up are purged from memory in order to make room for incoming sounds. As Call (1985) points out, foreign language input seems to be processed in the same way, but, as Rivers (1981) points out, short-term memory for target language words is often overloaded, causing words to be purged before they can be organized and interpreted. Thus, even though language learners may be able to recognize each word of an utterance in mind long enough to interpret them. The capacity of short-term memory is limited to about seven units, plus or minus two (Miller 1956).

This study showed that the subjects relied on many strategies in reaching correct answer: (1) focusing on certain key words; (2) relying on syntactic and semantic representations; (3) setting the overall meaning even when some words are missed (4) reading the four choices in advance, and (5) complete and successful listening comprehension but, unfortunately, in only few cases. However, their success or failure is constrained by the depth and completeness of their knowledge as well as the nature of the task they are performing. Second language learners’ strategies are, in essence, knowledge driven. Consequently, in thinking about their performance as an object of study, the essence of the underlying knowledge that accounts for their performance must be examined. The examination of the learners’ underlying knowledge will, in turn, uncover the basis for the strategies they use in solving language problems. It must be kept in mind that when we talk about knowledge, we do not only talk about the presence versus absence of knowledge, but also the depth, completeness, and accuracy of such knowledge. And, because subjects’ knowledge was not as complete as it should be, their strategies were not as successful as we all hope. And, since their knowledge was fragmentary, some subjects failed to provide rational justifications for their correct responses. Rather, they tended to rely on totally unrelated, even, strange reasons.

**Pedagogical Implications**

Change in the way we think about learning and what we know about the way learning occurs have important implications for those situations in which we want to facilitate changes in what people know and/or do. In education, for example, corresponding changes are occurring in the way we think about teaching. Since learning is an active process, the teacher’s task necessary involves more than the mere dissemination of information. Rather, if students are to learn desired outcomes in a reasonably effective manner, then the teacher’s fundamental task is
to get students to engage in learning activities that are likely to result in their achieving their outcomes, taking into account factors such as prior knowledge, the context in which the material is presented, and the realization that students’ interpretation and understanding of new information depend on the availability of appropriate schemata. Without taking away from the important role played by the teacher, it is helpful to remember that what the student does is actually more important in determining what is learned than what the teacher does.

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Second Language Acquisition: Issues and Implications

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The study of SLA is still in its infancy and there are still more questions than answers (Rod Ellis)

Abstract: This paper tries to cover some basic issues related to second language acquisition and examines the process of learning and using a second language. The affective factors that underlie language learning and use will be introduced and relevant research findings will be presented. It also aims at understanding of the principles and processes that govern second language learning and use and how should that serve as the background for reflective teaching practice.

Key words: SLA, approaches, learning

Introduction

Second Language Acquisition (SLA) is relatively young field as it only goes back about 40-50 years. As stated by Gass (2008), it has developed into an independent discipline, complete with its own research agenda. This can be reflected in the increase of conferences number, the journals devoted exclusively to research in the field (Studies in Second Language Acquisition, Language Learning, Second Language Research) as well as others in which reports of second language studies comprise a major part (Applied Linguistics and The Modern Language Journal). Furthermore, there are many edited volumes dealing with subareas of the field (eg. Language transfer, language input, language variation, Universal Grammar, Critical Period, etc.). The adoption of an inter-disciplinary approach led scholars to approach the field from a wide range of backgrounds, i.e. sociology, psychology, education, and linguistics. This reflects the complex nature of adult language learning and use. The content of the paper is limited to a discussion of adult second language acquisition to a great extent. The topics investigated in the present paper include:

1. Brief historical background
2. Approaches to SLA
3. Implications from the various perspectives on L2 acquisition
Brief Historical Background

Second language acquisition (SLA) is a relatively young field. In fact, it is hard to state a beginning date, but it is probably fair to say that the study of SLA has expanded and developed significantly in the past 50 years. It can be assumed that the field had its antecedents in the foundational texts published during the middle of the previous century (Fries, 1945; Lado, 1957; Skinner, 1957, and Weinreich, 1953 cited in Larsen-Freeman, 2007). These texts brought together a coherent theory of language (Structural Linguistics) and a theory of learning (Behaviourist Psychology), and reflected a renewed interest in teaching and learning at the same time. Two years after Skinner published his theory of operant conditioning Chomsky (1959) countered with his attack on behaviourism and presented his own form of linguistics claiming that at a deep level all languages shared the same properties. In addition, Chomskyan linguistics introduced the notion that developing language of the child was systematic from the start due to the presence of an innate universal grammar and was not just a reflection of the linguistic input to which he or she had been exposed to (Selinker, 1972).

The claims were represented in the literature of second language in a seminal article by Corder (1967). Corder (1967) argued that language learners' errors were not a reflex of the native language (L1), but rather were reflective of the learners' underlying L2 competence. This perception was later extended in the claim that learners were actively involved in constructing a system out of the linguistic input to which they had been exposed, a linguistic system variously called an idiosyncratic dialect by Corder (1967), an approximative system by Nemser(1972), and an interlanguage by Selinker(1972). All of them highlighted the position that learners' language was a linguistic system in its own right, replace with forms that indicated that learners were applying cognitive strategies to the language learning task. These strategies resulted in, for example, overgeneralization errors, which were taken to be evidence of an attempt by learners to construct the rules of the target language. Furthermore, they adapted a target–language centered perspective suggesting that the learners went through successive stages of learning usually taken to be the standard dialect of educated native speakers. Thus, language acquisition was not seen as a product of habit formation as the behaviourists had been claiming before the publication of Corder's article.

The development in linguistics, psychology, and L1 acquisition research and the shift in awareness contributed by SLA pioneers led to the liberation of the field from the bondage of behaviourism. Language learners were seen as cognitive beings, much more actively involved in the construction of their L2 knowledge. Owing to the pedigree of the SLA field, it was not surprising that a great deal of attention was given to the learners' developing morphosyntactic system. This attention was perhaps most obvious in the early SLA research with the morpheme acquisition studies (Bailey, Madden, & Krashen, 1974; Dulay & Burt, 1973; Larsen-Freeman, 1975 cited in Larsen-Freeman, 2007).
It was then 30 years after the birth of a cognitively oriented approach to SLA that Firth and Wagner presented their 1996 paper calling for an enlargement of the parameters of the field to include a social and contextual orientation to language. The publication of their article in 1997 has generated an extensive debate and discussion during the last 10 years. Finally, since the emergence of the field, there have been several approaches to SLA and each of them has its characteristic features. These approaches will be discussed in brief later. Ellis (1992) states that it is possible to identify three broad trends in the development of SLA research over the last 20 or so years:

(1) a general move from description to explanation of L2 acquisition,
(2) the widening of the frame of reference from the study of how learners acquire grammatical competence to how they acquire a knowledge of the pragmatic rules of an L2, and
(3) the establishment of SLA as a relatively autonomous subdiscipline of applied linguistics and a concurrent lessening of interest in its application to language teaching.

Approaches to SLA

According to Towell and Hawkins (1994), there have been a number of approaches adopted by researchers in SLA towards explaining such phenomena. These approaches fall into three broad categories: linguistic approaches, sociolinguistic approaches, and psychological or cognitive approaches.

Linguistic approaches to the nature of SLA are of a single broad type: they assume that infants are born with a 'language faculty' which equips them with biologically determined grammatical tools for the task of acquiring, natively, the language that is spoken around them. In SLA this language faculty has undergone some structural changes with the course of time, either as the result of the general biological development of the individual ('maturation'), or as the result of an L1 having been acquired. These structural changes which take place in the mental language faculty are what lead to differences between L2 and L1 acquisition.

Sociolinguistic approaches have been concerned with at least two issues: one is the attitudes which L2 learners have towards the L2, the people who speak it, or the culture with which the language is associated. Whether those attitudes are positive or negative may be involved in determining a learner's motivation to learn the L2, and indirectly influence the nature of SLA itself. The second issue is the effect that the context in which the learner encounters or uses the L2 has on the process of acquisition.

Psychological or cognitive approaches have also been concerned with at least two issues: one is the general cognitive maturity of L2 learners as compared with L1 learners. L1 learners acquire knowledge of language and knowledge of the world simultaneously, whereas L2 learners already know quite a lot about the world when they come to the task of SLA. The second issue is the nature of the mental devices
which comprehend, store and produce language, and how this might be related to the way that L1 and L2 learners acquire particular languages.

The linguistic approaches to second language acquisition include:

The Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis

The Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis is a result of the meeting of behaviourist psychology and structural linguistics. It assumed that language acquisition involved the formation of a set of habits. In the case of SLA, habits formed in the L1 would initially be transferred into the L2. The purpose of contrastive analysis was to compare the structure of languages and to state the differences and use methods of reinforcement and reward to change those habits in the L2.

The Natural Order Hypothesis

The failure of the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis to predict a number of observations in SLA led to a shift in perspective on the part of researchers in the late 1960s and early 1970s from a primary interest in transfer to a primary interest in staged development and cross-learner systematicity. This shift in perspective was signaled in two landmark papers of the period, one by Corder (1967) and the other by Selinker (1972). This shift has been reflected in the emergence of:

a) Morpheme Studies

The interest in the new shift in perspective is clearly reflected in the many studies (Dulay & Burt, 1973; 1974; Bailey, Madden & Krashen, 1974; Brown, 1973; Bailey, Madden & Krashen ,1974; Ravem, 1974; Cazden, Cancino, Rosanksy & Schumann ,1975;Wode, 1976 cited in Towell & Hawkin, 1994).

b) Krashen's Five Hypotheses

Krashen(1981) formulates five key hypotheses about second language acquisition:

1. The acquisition-learning distinction
2. The natural order hypothesis
3. The monitor hypothesis
4. The input hypothesis
5. The affective filter hypothesis

The second approach, the sociolinguistic approach, emphasizing the role of learners' attitude on the one hand and the learning context on the other hand can
be represented by the following approaches;

a) Tarone's Approach
Tarone (1988) argues that L2 learners acquire a 'capability continuum' of styles ranging from the 'vernacular' to the more attention-demanding 'careful' style. In production, different conditions of use will induce in the learner different degrees of attention to linguistic form, resulting in the accessing of different styles. This will create the impression of variability in an L2 learner's use of the L2. Styles towards the careful end of the continuum are more target-like than those towards the vernacular end, but they are internally less consistent. Development over time occurs because new forms may enter any one of the 'styles', and spread from there into the other 'styles'.

b) Ellis's Approach
Ellis (1992) suggests that learners have just one 'style' or grammar, but rules within this grammar may be variable. Initially, rules are constructed which have a unique output. But as the learner gets more exposure to the L2, competing forms may be associated with the same rule. This gives rise to free variation. With yet longer exposure to the L2, the learner may come to restrict each variant to a specific context of use or a specific grammatical function. In this way development in the learner's grammar occurs.

c) Acculturation/Pidginisation Approach
According to this approach, the social distance between a learner and the community speaking the target language is what gives rise to lack of development and individual differences between learners. When the distance is great learners will tend to use 'simplified' language lacking grammatical function words. This is because they omit items which are 'communicatively redundant'. The approach also implies that where there is no social distance between the L2 learner and the community speaking the target language, the learner ultimately will be as successful as native speakers. Thus, social and cultural aspects of L2 have to be taken into account to acquire near-native proficiency. To reduce the social distance between the L2 learner and the community speaking the target language, the learning situation and the context of learning should reflect to a great extent socio-cultural reality of that target community.

The psychological or cognitive approaches could be exemplified through the work done by Pienemann (1987, 1989) and Wolfe Quintero (1992). The former investigated
the stages of development in German word order whereas the latter looked at the account of wh- questions (who, what, which, etc. The two approaches primarily address the observations of staged development and systematicity.

A new approach to second language acquisition has emerged recently and gained widespread acceptance, i.e. The immersion approach. The immersion approach involves exposing learners to instructions through the target language and communicative interaction in it for many years, 100 percent of the school day during the first two or three years. In its longest form, early immersion, this method exposes children to the second language from kindergarten on. By the end of secondary school, young people in full-fledged immersion programmes should have been exposed to the second language for thirteen years. Several studies have revealed that students in such programmes develop very good listening and reading comprehension that they can learn other subjects well through the second language. Over the years, however, certain scholars have fund that, when it comes to the productive skills of speaking and listening, immersion students are far from linguistically competent(Hamerly, 1987)

**Implications from the various perspectives on L2 acquisition**

It is important to emphasize that the study of second language acquisition is separate from the study of language pedagogy, although this does not imply that there are not implications that can be drawn from second language acquisition to the related discipline of language teaching. For example, in Krashen’s view(1981), the Input Hypothesis is central to all of acquisition and also has implications for the classroom: a) Speaking is a result of acquisition and not its cause. Speech cannot be taught directly but “emerges” on its own as a result of building competence via comprehensible input.

b) If input is understood, and there is enough of it, the necessary grammar is automatically provided. The language teacher need not attempt deliberately to teach the next structure along the natural order—it will be provided in just the right quantities and automatically reviewed if the student receives a sufficient amount of comprehensible input (Krashen, 1981). Two of the important implications of Long’s hypothesis are that a task-based approach to classroom teaching is the most efficient, and that tasks can be selected and manipulated so as maximize the opportunities for learners to turn input into intake. The debate on the corrective feedback has some practical implications for classroom teaching and assessment. It offers language teachers new perspectives and techniques for providing assistance to the learner. It offers a new tool for promoting the learner’s development using negotiated corrective
feedback provided in collaborative interactions between the learner and the teacher, and it encourages teachers to search for the learner’s potential level of development rather than the learner’s actual level of development. The acculturation approach implies that classrooms should be viewed as a socio-cultural setting where an active participation in the target language culture is taught, promoted, and cultivated. In other words, classrooms should reflect as much as possible outside socio-cultural and institutional realities. The interaction hypothesis suggests that teachers should not be afraid to experiment with creating as many interactive activities as possible with learners of the same L1 backgrounds or different backgrounds or with L2 learners who are at the same or different levels of language proficiency. The dialogical tradition also provides a unified framework for SLA theory, research, teaching, and testing.

Having reviewed the various perspectives on second language acquisition, it is found that the five inter-disciplinary which shape the research field are psycholinguistics, socio-linguistics, neuro-linguistics, classroom research, and bilingual education. A bulk of research has been conducted in each of the addressed fields. It has been reported that when these perspectives are combined, the implications of L2 research for language teaching are considered.

**Conclusion**

As has become clear throughout this paper, the SLA phenomenon is multifaceted and complex. In order to fully understand this phenomenon, one must consider all the related issues that influence the process of acquiring the target language. As a result, it has been attempted to provide an account of those issues. The paper begins by shedding light on the historical development of the field of second language acquisition showing the contributions of the pioneers in linguistics, psychology, first language research, etc. In the next section, the various approaches to SLA have been presented in detail. Finally, some implications from the various perspectives have been inferred and explained.

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Language Journal, vol. 64, No. 3.
Reduplication in Bodo

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Abstract: Reduplication is a morphophonemic process by which a word, the root or stem of it (or initial, medial or final phonological part of it) or another lexical item structurally/semantically related to it is repeated, which is called reduplicant. It is one of the common morphophonemic processes of word formation in Bodo, the major Tibeto-Burman language of northeast India.

On the basis of the different structures of the roots/stems and their reduplicants five different types of reduplication are found in Bodo; viz., full reduplication, partial reduplication, rhyming reduplication, ablaut reduplication and dissimilar reduplication.

As a typical kind of reduplication, dissimilar reduplication is found in Bodo, where the root/stem and its reduplicant do not have any similarity in structure. Moreover, the language witnesses good number examples of different kinds of reduplication which are very rarely found across languages. For example- Inherent reduplication (refer examples- 38-43).

As in other Tibeto-Burman and Indo-Aryan languages, the function of the Bodo reduplicated elements includes- (i) to form plurals nouns, pronouns and adjectives; (ii) to intensify the action of a verb; (iii) to derive words: deverbal adverbials, denominal adverbials, deadjectival adverbials, collective nouns, etc.; (iv) to intensify adjectives and adverbs; (v) to derive compound adjective; etc.

Key Words: Bodo (brx), Reduplicant (dupleme), Reduplication, Replication.

Introduction

Reduplication is the technical term for the linguistic phenomenon where cloning, doubling, duplication or repetition of linguistic elements (especially, in morphophonemic level) occur and the repeated element is called reduplicant (the term dupleme is also used (after morpheme) to refer to different types of reduplication that have the same meaning. In other words, it is a morphophonemic process by which the root or stem of a word (or initial, medial or final phonological part of it) is repeated. For example-

(1) bibajari -ja gami gami maqi -duŋ
beggar -NOM village RED beg -PFV
‘The beggar begged village to village.’
Reduplication is used in inflections to convey a grammatical function such as plurality as in (1) above, intensification, etc., and in lexical derivation to create new words as in (2) above. It is also a regular process of expressing onomatopoeic words as in (3) above. It is found in a wide range of languages and language groups, though its level of linguistic productivity varies.

There are also considerable set of reduplications of parts of words in Bodo. In general, only the repetition of final part of root/stem is found in Bodo. For instance-

(4) \text{hamkʰɾeŋ} - \text{kʰreŋ} hinzaosa \\
\text{thin} - \text{RED girl} \\
\text{‘very thin girl’}

(5) \text{kʰaobɔ} - \text{bɔ} \text{zɔ} \\
\text{still} - \text{RED sit} \\
\text{‘Sit very still.’}

(6) \text{sumzru} - \text{z/u} sikʰla \\
\text{light dark} - \text{RED girl} \\
\text{‘dark girl’}

(7) \text{haitʰa} - \text{tʰa} \text{seŋgra} \\
\text{short} - \text{RED boy} \\
\text{‘very short boy’}

In most cases, in Bodo, the reduplicant of the final part of a root/stem adds some degree of intensification of the word. So, this sub-phenomenon of reduplication functions like an inflectional process.

\text{Examples from Other Languages:}

(8) ja: ‘themselves’ \rightarrow ja:ja: ‘they to them’\textsuperscript{30} \textit{(Kham language)}

(9) qʰél ‘to speak’ \rightarrow qʰélqʰel ‘talkative’ \textsuperscript{31} \textit{(Salish language)}

\textsuperscript{30}David E. Watters. \textit{A grammar of Kham} (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2002).

Methodology

Before going to work in this particular area on the Bodo language I went through available literature on this area and tried to find out the problems, and undescribed and underdescribed things in the reduplications in Bodo. Then, I tried to sort out things more or less related to reduplication and to formulate and present them in this paper. However, as there are limited resources in this area, this study is mainly based on the primary data.

Being a native speaker of the language under study I collected data from books through scanning and speeches through observation with my intuition on the language and analysed them using Leipzig Glossing Conventions for interlinear morpheme-by-morpheme analysis, and classified them into different sub-classes to distribute them to concerned types of reduplication found in linguistics tradition.

Types of Reduplication in Bodo

On the basis of different grounds reduplication, as a phenomenon, can be subdivided into different subtypes. The major grounds include structural point of view and degree of sameness of the structures and meanings of the reduplicant and the root/stem reduplicated. Some of the possible types based on the data collected and analysed for this study are considered in the following discussion.

On the basis of the structures of the reduplicants and the reduplicated roots/stems, reduplication can be divided into two different subtypes, namely, full reduplication and partial reduplication. These types of reduplication are discussed below illustrations of different examples.

Full Reduplication

Full reduplication involves a reduplication of the entire word. It can also be termed as exact Reduplication. This type of reduplication reduplicates the root/stem/word without any change in the structure of the reduplicated root/stem/word. For example-

(11) zûŋ söm söm zûŋ -ni qami -ao berai -hui -ju
we time RED we -GEN village -LOC visit -DIST -HAB
’Sometimes we go to visit our village.’

(12) sikʰiri -pʰur -a bibar bibar bidui sub -duŋ
butterfly -PL -NOM flower RED nectar suck -PFV
’Butterflies are sucking nectar flower to flower.’

(13) gezer gezer
middle RED
’sometimes/ in the middles’

Partial Reduplication

Partial reduplication involves a reduplication of only a part of the reduplicated root/stem. That part is very often called phonological because it is, in almost all cases, reduplication of some phonological part of the reduplicated root/stem. So, we can analyse the reduplicants as syllable units. For example, reduplication of the last consonant-vowel-consonant (CVC), consonant-vowel (CV), consonant-consonant-vowel-consonant (CCVC), consonant-consonant-vowel (CCV), etc. sequences of the reduplicated bases; i.e. base+CV/CVC/CCV/CCVC/etc. These four structures of partial reduplicants are possible in Bodo. Some examples are given below-

CV:

(15) kʰaobɔ - bɔ
   still - RED
   'very still'

(16) zatʰao - tʰao
   edible - RED
   'very edible'

CVC:

(17) dulu - lur
   round - RED
   'very round'

(18) rantiŋ - tŋ
   thin - RED
   'very thin'

CCV:

(19) damble - ble
   flat - RED
   'very flat'

(20) sansla - sla
   bald - RED
   'very bald'

CCVC:

(21) duisraŋ - sraŋ
   watery - RED
   'very watery'
Raucous - RED
‘very harsh (voice)’

Again, on the basis of the sameness of the reduplicants and the respective reduplicated roots/stems, reduplication can further be divided into, at least, three different subtypes, namely, rhyming, exact and ablaut reduplications.

**Rhyming Reduplication**

In this type of reduplication, the rhyme scheme of the root/stem and its reduplicant remains the same. For example-

(23) mansi - dumsi
person - RED
‘people’

(24) maiɾɔŋ - dɯiɾɔŋ
rice (uncooked) - RED
‘foods’

**Ablaut Reduplication**

Ablaut means ‘alternation in the vowels of related word forms’. So, in this type of reduplication, the vowel sound of the reduplicant alters. For example-

(25) sɪɡi - sɔɡɔ
frighten - RED
‘having frightened’

(26) kʰeŋkʰɾa - kʰeŋkʰɾi
bent - RED
‘bent (more than an angle/arc)’

**Dissimilar Reduplication**

Another type of reduplication occurs in the formation of some compound words in Bodo, in which different word/root/stem is found to be a reduplicant of the reduplicated word/root/stem; i.e., there is not a single similarity between the word/root/stem and reduplicated word/root/stem except their semantic relationship. For example-

(27) daokʰa - sila
crow - RED (kite)
‘others’

(28) mai - dui
paddy - RED (water)
‘raw properties/crop’
This type of reduplication is, often, not included within reduplication because the reduplicant forms of this kind of reduplication are completely different from the reduplicated root/stem. So, morphologically, dissimilar reduplication cannot be one of the types of reduplication. But, as the reduplicants in this type are somehow similar with their respective roots/stems semantically, sometimes it is called a type of reduplication. This type of reduplication can be better said to be compounding because the reduplicated forms mean some kind of compound meanings which are not exactly related to the meanings of the reduplicated forms rather more or less related to the meanings of the roots/stems and their respective reduplicants.

Multiple Replications

Reduplication, as its meaning suggests, is restricted to having only one reduplicant. However, in a number of languages like Bodo, Ewe, Min Nan, Mokilese, Shipibo, Twi, etc. languages, repetition of a root/stem or a syllabic part(s) of it can occur more than once. If a root/stem is repeated twice the process is said to be triplication. Pingelapese (a Micronesian language spoken on the Pingelap atoll) examples of both reduplication and triplication are cited below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Basic Verb</th>
<th>Reduplication</th>
<th>Triplication</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>koul 'to sing'</td>
<td>kɔukɔul 'singing'</td>
<td>kɔukɔukɔul 'still singing'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mejr 'to sleep'</td>
<td>mejmejr 'sleeping'</td>
<td>mejmejmcejr 'still sleeping'</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Reduplication and Triplication in Pingelapese (Rehg 1981)

However, reduplication has been a general term to mean repetition of roots/stems or their syllabic parts. Interestingly, the Bodo language witnesses repetition of roots/stems up to possible utterance in the context of the use of them.

In most cases, further replication in Bodo occurs to show intensification and frequency/plurality of action. For example-

(29) ɔ̞ma -ja bipʰaŋ -ni surgidin suɾ suɾ suɾ suɾ gidin ɣidin
pig -NOM tree -GEN around round RED RED RED turn
-duŋ -muŋ
-PFV -PST
‘The pig turned around the tree many times.’

(30) ɡɔtʰo -wa gudu gudu gudu gudu undu -laŋ -bai
child -NOM deep RED RED RED sleep -DIST -PRF
‘The child has slept very deeply.’

Reduplicant Position

Reduplicants occur to the right of the roots/stems in Bodo. However, reduplication may be initial (i.e. prefixal), final (i.e. suffixal), or internal (i.e. infixal)\(^3\), but only final reduplication is possible in the Bodo language. In both the two types, full and partial reduplications, reduplicants

\(^3\) \text{http://www.wikidoc.org/index.php/Reduplication (6/21/2010).}
follow their roots/stems. Orthographically, reduplicants occur like free words in exact reduplication and are combined with their roots/stems using hyphen in all other types of reduplication. But, still, using hyphens to connect reduplicants to their roots/stems has not been a hard and fast rule in the Bodo spelling system. Thus, the Bodo language is characterized with one of the properties of reduplications cited in a following page.

**Copying Direction**

A reduplicant can copy the whole word/root/stem, or from either the left edge of a word which is called *left-to-right copying* or from the right edge called *right-to-left copying*[^34]. Only the latter one is possible in Bodo. Therefore, the copying direction in Bodo can be formulated as- 

\[ \text{Final R} \rightarrow \text{L copying} \]

One thing should be very clear that a reduplicated structure, i.e., a root/stem/word and its reduplicant, is a single constituent of a higher structure. Because, sometimes, some structures such as \textit{ɡaonu gao, gaoba gao}, etc. look like reduplicated structures. These are not the combinations of the roots/stems/words and their respective reduplicants rather two different constituents of syntactic structures. Following illustrations of these examples can better explain this description-

\[(31) \textit{ɡao} - \textit{nu} \quad \textit{ɡao} \]
\[\text{herself/himself/itself -PTL herself/himself/itself} \quad \text{‘she/he/it (antecedent) herself/himself/itself (anaphor)’}\]

Here, the preceding \textit{ɡao} and the following \textit{ɡao} are two different constituents, namely, \textit{antecedent} and \textit{anaphor}.

\[(32) \textit{ɡao} - \textit{ba} \quad \textit{ɡao} \]
\[\text{herself/himself/itself -CONJP herself/himself/itself} \quad \text{‘themselves separately’}\]

Here again, the preceding \textit{ɡao} and the following \textit{ɡao} are two different constituents – two different reflexive pronouns (i.e., anaphors) of two different antecedents.

\[(33) \textit{ɡao} - \textit{zum} \quad \textit{ɡao} \]
\[\text{herself/himself/itself -INS herself/himself/itself} \quad \text{‘each other’}\]

Here also, the preceding \textit{ɡao} and the following \textit{ɡao} are two different constituents – two different reflexive pronouns (i.e., anaphors) of two different antecedents connected by the instrumental case marker {-zum}.

**Syllable Structures and various Morphophonemic Processes in Reduplication**

The reduplication process in the Bodo language is controlled by the syllable structure of the roots/stems which are reduplicated. In course of deriving deverbal adverbs reduplication follows

[^34]: ibid.
a derivational rule, i.e., the adverbializing suffix {-\text{ɯi}} occurs with the verb root/stem as well as with its reduplicant. It is obligatory in case of monosyllabic verb roots/stems whereas optional elsewhere. For example-

**Verbs → Adverbs:**

(34) kʰar -\text{ɯi} kʰarui / *kʰar kʰar  
  run -ADVLZ RED  
  ‘Having run’

(35) zaj -\text{ɯi} zajui / *za za  
  eat -ADVLZ RED  
  ‘Having eaten’

(36) mɯsa mɯsa / mɯsajui  
  dance RED / -ADVLZ RED  
  ‘Having danced’

(37) undu undu / undujui  
  sleep RED / -ADVLZ RED  
  ‘Having slept’

*Grammatically ill-formed.

**Functions and Meanings**

Reduplication is used –

(i) to form plurals nouns, pronouns and adjectives; e.g.- nɔ nɔ ‘houses’, gɑmɩ gɑmɩ ‘villages’, gɑo gɑo ‘selves’, suɾ suɾ ‘who.PL’, suɾba suɾba ‘somebodies’, mɯzaŋ mɯzaŋ ‘good.PL’, etc.

(ii) to intensify the action of a verb; e.g.- tʰayŋ tʰayŋ ‘go go’, pʰɯi pʰɯi ‘come come’, labu labu ‘bring bring’ sao sao ‘burn burn’, za za ‘eat eat’, luŋ luŋ ‘drink drink’, etc.

(iii) to derive words; (a) collective nouns (e.g.- rɛŋ-rup’a ‘property’, mɯsuɔ-mɯsa ‘cattle’, tʰuris-liɾa ‘kitchen utensils’), (b) adverbials from nouns (e.g.- som som ‘sometimes’), (c) adverbials from adjectives (e.g.- siri siri ‘silently’), (d) adverbials from verbs (e.g.- railai raiɹai ‘talking to each other’), etc.


(v) to derive compound adjective; kʰuirurum-duirurum ‘sweet-and-sour’, pʰura-suma ‘not so white/dark’, haja-zuowa ‘not so short/long’, etc.

**Inherent Reduplication**

There are also large number of words which are already in reduplicated forms, i.e., they are always used in reduplicated forms as single words. For example- ziri ziri ‘flowingly’, gũnu-gutʰu ‘confused’, suŋkʰu-mukʰu ‘like a flash’, ulayan ulayan ‘freely’, onomatopoeic words such as
ga ga, meo meo, etc. These types of words are called inherent reduplicated forms. Some examples follow-

(38) ziri ziri
    in a continuous stream (of flowing) RED
    ‘flowingly’

(39) gunu - gutu
    (no clear meaning) - RED
    ‘confused’

(40) suku - muku
    (no clear meaning) - RED
    ‘like a flash’

(41) ulan ulan
    free RED
    ‘free’

(42) ga ga
    caw RED
    ‘cry of a crow (cawing)’

(43) meo meo
    miaow/meow RED
    ‘miaow miaow’

Here, ziri, gunu or gutu, suku or muku, ulan, ga and meo are not used without their reduplicants or roots/stems.

Findings and Conclusion

Reduplication is one of the integral and most important processes of word formation in the Bodo language. The presence of inherent reduplication proves it. Thus, the word formation in Bodo is incomplete except the reduplication process. This process covers wide range of types of reduplication, which can be categorized into five different types on the basis of the different structures of the roots/stems and their reduplicants; viz., full reduplication, partial reduplication, rhyming reduplication, ablaut reduplication and dissimilar reduplication.

Some typological kinds of reduplication in the Bodo language are dissimilar reduplication, inherent reduplication, etc. The words formed by inherent reduplication are a problem in defining a word. Again, in course of deriving deverbal adverbs reduplication follows a derivational rule, i.e., the adverbializing suffix {-ui} occurs with the verb root/stem as well as with its reduplicant. It is obligatory in case of monosyllabic verb roots/stems whereas optional in others.

The functions of the reduplication elements in the Bodo language show a very much productive property of the reduplication process. The functions of the reduplication in the
language include- (i) to form plurals nouns, pronouns and adjectives; (ii) to intensify the action of a verb; (iii) to derive words; (a) collective nouns (e.g.- raŋ-raŋa ‘property’, musu-musa ‘cattle’, thursi-thursa ‘kitchen utensils’), (b) adverbials from nouns (e.g.- səm səm ‘sometimes’), (c) adverbials from adjectives (e.g.- siri siri ‘silently’), (d) adverbials from verbs (e.g.- rai rai ‘talking to each other’), etc.; (iv) to intensify adjectives and adverbs; (v) to derive compound adjective; etc.

However, reduplication in Bodo is a structural counterpart of compounding and onomatopoeic sounds forming process. Because, some copulative compounds which are here considered to be as dissimilar reduplication elements show more or less repetition of linguistic elements as the reduplicant in such reduplication elements are more or less related to the reduplicated roots/stems. And, the formation of the most of the onomatopoeic words in Bodo exhibits full reduplication (e.g.- ga ga ‘caw’), ablaut reduplication (e.g.- tʰat-tʰat ‘sound of heating on wooden object’), partial reduplication (e.g.- dabuduy-buduy ‘sound of a kʰam (a kind of big drum which is used as one of the five traditional musical instruments of the Bodos)’) and rhyming reduplication (e.g.- tʰir-tʰir-tʰo ‘sound of a flute’).

As a morphological process, reduplication exhibits both as inflectional (in case of repetition of an adjective to form its plural counterpart, repetition of a verb to form its intensive form, etc.) and derivational (in case of deriving deverbal adverbials, denominal adverbials, deadjectival adverbials) phenomena of word formation. Reduplication as a derivational process derives adverbials in majority.

References


Online Resources:

THE INTERFACE BETWEEN GENDER AND DISCOURSE ANALYSIS IN VISUAL ART AT TEACHER EDUCATION LEVEL

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Abstract: This qualitative study used discourse analysis as a semantic strategy to analyse the significance, relevance and influence of gender in symbolic interpretation and visual semantics. Whether the artist or viewer is man or woman, does it provide additional information that can certainly affect our understanding of works of art. The study in particular was aimed at discovering social, cultural, historical and biological implications related to the application of literary theory in deciphering content and symbolic meaning in visual texts. A total of 49 teacher education art students (24 females + 25 males) were selected for the study. Participants made individual interpretations to visual texts (paintings, drawings, installations, stone sculptures and public art structures- photographs). Interviews and observations were used to support and validate the interpretations written. Results indicated that females’ interpretations were impregnated with feminine reactions with themes of motherhood, sympathetic, care and love emerging common. Contrary and interestingly the males reflected masculine interpretations of authority, dominance, protectiveness and non-sympathetic attitudes on the same paintings. The reactions were in some instances diverse in meaning because they were a reflection of other factors like socio-cultural backgrounds, levels of education, biographical circumstances and personality departing from specific objective contextual meaning imbedded in visual texts.

Introduction

Literary criticism is an activity that attempt to analyse, interpret and evaluate a work of art. Matthew Arnold in Bressler (1994) states that it is a “disinterested endeavor to learn and propagate the best that is known and thought about a work art. However, the way we make known the world differs from individual, culture, gender, economic, social class, age and religious grouping. Thus Bressler laments that how we as readers make meaning out of or from the text will depend upon the mental framework that each of us has developed concerning the nature of reality. This framework or world views consists of the assumptions or presuppositions we all hold either consciously or unconsciously concerning the basic make up of our world. Gender stereotyping, role socialization and sex genetic makeup interferes with the assumptions and suppositions we all hold about the world hence the interpretations we all make. This paper therefore examines the extent to which gender affect visual discourse analysis at teacher education level in Zimbabwe, Masvingo province. That is, is, how and to what extent is the meaning making process or visual interpretation by teacher education students influenced by gender.
Background

The term “gender” has been for a long time been misused or construed to at one time refer to “women” and another to “sex”. “Gender and women” are not synonymous much the same as “gender and sex”, but are related in one way or the other. Gender refers to the socially constructed roles, responsibilities, identities and expectations assigned to men and women. It is different with physical sex characteristics though the societal expectations of women and men are communicated through sex role stereotyping. Thus stereotypes limit gender appropriate behaviour and expectations to a range of roles assigned to women and men on the basis of sex. These role expectations are subtle but engraved. However, there are exceptional cases of “transgender” where gender identity and physical sex are not coherent. Not all women fit in the stereotypical expectations of femininity, not all men fit all qualities associated with masculinity. Gender roles differ between cultures, communities and overtime.

Therefore gender is not so much of what one is but what one does (Battler; 1990). That is, performing the acquired or learnt societal expected roles, responsibilities, ways of thinking and identities defines ones gender. Gender socialization underscores that boys are different and are put into different learning environments. They develop different needs, wants, desires, skills, attitudes and temperaments. Thus, they become different types of people, men and women who continue to exhibit these different traits even in aesthetic judgment and criticism. The goal for feminist artists all along has been the gender-blind interpretation of art, allowing women equal opportunity for success. Feminists have long cried for museum curators and art collectors to see more than just “male” or “female” in a work of art.

Spain (1929) in Sinclair (2004) postulates that all observers are not led by the same physical evidence to the same picture of the universe unless their backgrounds are similar or in some way can be calibrated. The meanings we all can derive from looking at the same visual text are varied according to our backgrounds, culture, context, gender and style. Bressler acknowledges that a reader is not passive in creating meaning, he/she brings personal experiences, private emotions and past literary experiences. Meaning making from text or work of art depends upon mental framework that each of us has developed concerning the nature of world reality.

Discourse according to Sinclair (2004) has two planes of operation, autonomous and interaction. The interactive plane is the interface between the real world and the inner language signs therefore, a discourse exhibit its meaning from the referent in the real world or the subject in the text. The autonomous plane is the linguistic meaning in the text itself. While the signs and symbols in the text can generate meaning in themselves the suppositions, assumptions, realities of the world as conceptualized by an individual viewer are critical in meaning making. Therefore the thrust of this paper is to examine the extent to which gender polarization influences visual discourse analysis. While discourse analysis has many literal criticism theories, viewing a work of art using gender lenses can generate remarkable variability of interpretations.

Theoretical framework

There are three types of theories that explain gender socialization, that is, psychoanalytical, social and cognitive development.
Freudian psychoanalytic theory focuses on children observation about their genitals and realization of their physical differences. For instance the castration anxiety and penis envy on early childhood evidence of gender socialization.

Social learning theories are behaviorist theories that rely on larger society reinforcing and modeling expectations of society acceptable behavior. It is the society or environment that socializes people into their gender roles.

Cognitive development theories posit that children learn gender and gender stereotypes through own mental efforts to organize their social world. Barry (2002) has identified three key gender assumptions in social constructionist perspective which is a version of cognitive development. These are, gender polarization, a notion that men and women are different and these differences constitute a central organizing principle of social life. The second assumption is androcentrism, which means males are superior to females. The male experience is the normative standard. Lastly biological essentialism denotes that gender polarization and androcentrism are due to biological differences between sexes.

Social constructionist view gender acquisition as a self fulfilling prophecy. In order to be considered competent members of society. People must learn how to fit in as appropriately gendered individuals. This is because people think boys and girls are supposed to be different, they treat them differently and give them different opportunities for development. This differential treatment promotes certain behaviors and self images that recreate the preconceived cultural stereotypes about gender.

**Gender theory**

The theory posits that there exists a binary construction of male and female and the correspondingly appropriate masculine and feminine behaviors and roles. There are therefore feminine theories and masculinity theories that aim at re addressing many inequalities and inequities between men and women. The gender inequities not only affect women but also men. More recently a multidisciplinary field of study has emerged that examines the critical representations and the lived experiences of being male and female.

**The queer theory**

The theory explains the categories of gender and sexuality and challenges the notion of identity and normalizing of such social positions as heterosexuality, masculinity or femininity. Simone de Beauvoir (1982) in Barry (2002) observed that, ‘one is not born a woman but becomes one, similarly as alluded to earlier, Battler (1994) says gender is not so much something one is, as something one does. In this theory gender is an embodied discourse. It has no relation to biological truths about the sexed body. Gender goes beyond individual, the whole enacts the roles expected from the category to whom/he has been assigned but the context, culture or society that sets limits of normality and otherness.

Knowledge is socially constructed, that is, that our current ways of understanding the world are determined not by the nature of the world itself but by social process. People are products of social interaction. The ways in which we commonly understand the world are historically and culturally specific to relate to variables such as gender time, race, age and ability.
Gender is a critical consideration in all areas of life. There is no area that impacts on women and men in exactly the same way. The differences and disparities in the roles that women and men play and the power imbalances in their relations impacts on their lives, their needs, constraints, opportunities, esteem/self concepts, way of thinking and judgment.

Therefore it is imperative as Battler (1994) comments that in literary criticism the individual readers, men or women are not passive in creating meaning and brings personal subjective experiences, private emotions and abilities into discourse analysis.

**What is discourse analysis?**

Sinclair (2004) says discourse analysis is the construction of meaning from a text (discourse) based on the assumptions people draw on the cultural and inquisitive recourses. It is therefore a disciplined activities that attempt to analyse, interpret and evaluate a work of Art (poem, drama or visual image). Various theoretical orientations can be used to do own analysis (formalist, biographical, historical gender, psychological, sociological etc). Every reader espouses some kind of literary theory in his or her responds to works of art unconscious/consciously, complete/incomplete, informed or ill-informed, eclectic or unified.

Formalist Criticism approach regards literature as “a unique form of human knowledge that needs to be examined on its own terms.” All the elements necessary for understanding the work are contained within the work itself. Of particular interest to the formalist critic are the elements of form, style, structure, tone, imagery, etc. that are found within the text. A primary goal for formalist critics is to determine how such elements work together with the text’s content to shape its effects upon readers. A reader therefore regardless of one’s sex gender interpretation in this regard is based on formal elements in an artwork.

Biographical Criticism approach begins with the simple but central insight that literature is written by actual people men and women and that understanding an author’s life can help readers more thoroughly comprehend the work. Hence, it often affords a practical method by which readers can better understand a text. Male authors and female authors have different orientations. However, a biographical critic must be careful not to take the biographical facts of a writer’s life too far in criticizing the works of that writer: the biographical critic focuses on explicating the literary work by using the insight provided by knowledge of the author’s life. Biographical data should amplify the meaning of the text, not drown it out with irrelevant material.

Historical Criticism approach seeks to understand a literary work by investigating the social, cultural, and intellectual context that produced it a context that necessarily includes the artist’s biography and milieu. A key goal for historical critics is to understand the effect of a literary work upon its original readers.

Gender Criticism approach examines how sexual identity influences the creation and reception of literary works. Originally an offshoot of feminist movements, gender criticism today includes a number of approaches, including the so-called “masculinity” approach recently advocated by poet Robert Bly. The bulk of gender criticism, however, is feminist and takes as a central precept that the patriarchal attitudes that have dominated western thought have resulted, consciously or
unconsciously, in literature full of unexamined ‘male-produced’ assumptions. Feminist criticism attempts to correct this imbalance by analyzing and combating such attitudes such as why a female in “Luncheon on the grass” would be naked with fully dressed man. Other goals of feminist critics include “analyzing how sexual identity influences the reader of a text and examining how the images of men and women in imaginative literature reflect or reject the social forces that have historically kept the sexes from achieving total equality.

Psychological Criticism approach reflects the effect that modern psychology has had upon both literature and literary criticism. Fundamental figures in psychological criticism include Sigmund Freud, whose psychoanalytic theories changed our notions of human behavior by exploring new or controversial areas like wish-fulfillment, sexuality, the unconscious, and repression as well as expanding our understanding of how language and symbols operate by demonstrating their ability to reflect unconscious fears or desires; and Carl Jung, whose theories about the unconscious are also a key foundation of mythological criticism. Psychological criticism has a number of approaches, but in general, it usually employs one (or more) of these three approaches:

1. An investigation of “the creative process of the artist: what is the nature of literary genius and how does it relate to normal mental functions?”
2. The psychological study of a particular artist, usually noting how an author’s biographical circumstances affect or influence their motivations and/or behavior.
3. The analysis of fictional characters using the language and methods of psychology.

Sociological Criticism approach examines literature in the cultural, economic and political context in which it is written or received, exploring the relationships between the artist and society. Sometimes it examines the artist’s society to better understand the author’s literary works; other times, it may examine the representation of such societal elements within the literature itself. One influential type of sociological criticism is Marxist criticism, which focuses on the economic and political elements of art, often emphasizing the ideological content of literature; because Marxist criticism often argues that all art is political, either challenging or endorsing (by silence) the status quo, it is frequently evaluative and judgmental, a tendency that can lead to reductive judgment. Marxist criticism can illuminate political and economic dimensions of literature other approaches overlook.

Mythological Criticism approach emphasizes the recurrent universal patterns underlying most literary works. Combining the insights from anthropology, psychology, and history, and comparative religion, mythological criticism explores the artist’s common humanity by tracing how the individual imagination uses myths and symbols common to different cultures and epochs. One key concept in mythological criticism is the archetype, a symbol, character, situation, or image that evokes a deep universal response. According to Carl Jung, all individuals share a set of primal memories common to the human race, existing below each person’s conscious mind. Northrop Frye, defined archetypes in a more limited way as a symbol, usually an image, which recurs often enough in literature to be recognizable as an element of one’s
literary experience as a whole. Regardless of the definition of archetype they use, mythological critics tend to view literary works in the broader context of works sharing a similar pattern.

Reader-Response Criticism approach takes as a fundamental tenet that “literature” exists not as an artifact upon a printed page but as a transaction between the physical text and the mind of a reader. It attempts “to describe what happens in the reader’s mind while interpreting a text” and reflects that reading, like writing, is a creative process. According to reader-response critics, literary texts do not “contain” a meaning; meanings derive only from the act of individual readings. Hence, two different readers may derive completely different interpretations of the same literary text; likewise, a reader who re-reads work years later may find the work shockingly different. Reader-response criticism, then, emphasizes how “religious, cultural, gender and social values affect readings. Thus it also overlaps with gender criticism in exploring how men and women read the same text with different assumptions. Though this approach rejects the notion that a single correct interpretations exists reading exists for a literary work, it does not consider all readings permissible. Each text creates limits to its possible interpretations.

Deconstructionist Criticism approach rejects the traditional assumption that language can accurately represent reality. Deconstructionist critics regard language and visual elements as a fundamentally unstable medium the words or image of a “tree” or “dog,” for instance, undoubtedly conjure up different mental images for different people—and therefore, because literature is made up of words, literature possesses no fixed, single meaning. According to critic Paul de Man, deconstructionists insist on the impossibility of making the actual expression coincides with what has to be expressed, of making the actual signs [i.e., words] coincide with what is signified. As a result, deconstructionist critics tend to emphasize not what is being said but how language is used in a text. The methods of this approach tend to resemble those of formalist criticism, but whereas formalists’ primary goal is to locate unity within a text, that is, how the diverse elements of a text cohere into meaning, deconstructionists try to show how the text “deconstructs,” how it can be broken down ... into mutually irreconcilable positions. Other goals of deconstructionists include (1) challenging the notion of authors’ “ownership” of texts they create (and their ability to control the meaning of their texts) and (2) focusing on how language is used to achieve power, as when they try to understand how a some interpretations of a literary work come to be regarded as “truth.”

Research objectives

This research study was therefore guided by the following research objectives.

- To identify differences and similarities in visual interpretations by male and females.
- To what extent does gender affect visual discourse analysis at teacher education level in Zimbabwe, Masvingo province?
- To evaluate how the meaning making process or visual interpretation is influenced by gender.
Methodology

The researcher used a qualitative paradigm and the descriptive survey method in particular to collect data. Qualitative designs seek insight or deeper understanding about a problem and its context. Borg and Gall (1995) suggest that descriptive surveys are done for the purpose of producing detailed description about a phenomenon or develop possible explanations of phenomena or evaluating phenomenon. The study was done in the present, as things occurred at the time of the research. Data was collected conveniently by the researcher. Descriptive survey estimates the nature and degree of existing conditions hence the method was found suitable for the study.

Purposive sampling procedure was employed to select a total of 49 teacher education art students 24 females and 25 males for the study. This was to ensure that only art and design education students participated in the study that was likely to be knowledgeable about the phenomena under study.

Participants made individual interpretations to visual texts (paintings, drawings, installations, stone sculptures and public art structures- photographs). Marshall and Rossman (1999) view document analysis as a method for describing and interpreting the artifacts of a society or social group. The content analytic approach was used to analyse artworks by the visually handicapped learners. Short interviews as suggested by Chivore (1990) were used to aid document analysis for enlightening the evaluators on the culture, socio-politics and socio-economic educational background of the art learners. Interviews and observations were used to support and validate the interpretations written.

Findings

Interviews on academic and professional attainment as well as biographical circumstances were conducted and obtained the following data.

*Academic Art background*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Academic level</th>
<th>Grade 7</th>
<th>O’ level</th>
<th>A’Level</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Females</td>
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<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Males</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>25</td>
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</table>

*Professional Art Background*

<table>
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<th></th>
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<th>Dip</th>
<th>HND</th>
<th>Dip Edu.</th>
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</thead>
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<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
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<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Though the respondents are all involved or studying art and Design at teacher education level, their background knowledge about the subject, the visual grammar is limited to aid them fully read and unlock the meanings in visual world. This results in them commenting, “I don’t
understand it’. Most females quickly withdrew themselves from the abstract work. They didn’t want to commit themselves when they didn’t recognise objects and their resemblance in the real world.

**Birth position and family members sex composition**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Birth position</th>
<th>Sex</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| 1
| 1st born             | 5     | 4   |
| 1st Opposite sex     | 7     | 8   |
| Last Born            | 5     | 2   |
| With mixed elders    | 8     | 10  |
| Total                | 25    | 24  |

The following visual forms were analysed in the research. Participants were asked to make individual interpretations on these visual works of art with titles supplied.

“**Accident**”

“**Nzou nemhuru yayo**”/ “The Elephant & its calf”

“**Ita Havapo**”/ “Tell them I’m away”

“**The emerging Giant**”
From the data collected the following results were gathered.

**Patriarchy**

With reference to the painting ‘Nzou nemhuru yayó’ above, 80% males generally concurred that it is a representation of adult elephants dominated scene with only one calf as a minor. These big mammals have destroyed the whole vegetation around them. Such is the nature of elephants with power, authority and dominance and does not tolerate any other animal spices in their vicinity. Most of these animals are males save for one female with the calf. That is patriarchy. Females agreed that the title itself suggest that only one female is responsible for the calf present in the image. This is a caring mother standing close to the calf, protecting that it is not harmed away from her in this unpredictable world. Fear of the unknown away from her the care giver’s vicinity therefore they maintain a close physical distance. This patriarchal attitude of dominance was common in the interpretations done.

Carl Jung (2006) on personality in his psychoanalysis theory suggests that first born males and females develop a tendency towards decision making responsibility leadership roles and caring attitudes toward siblings. This could explain the greater proportion of the respondenses whom in their analysis of “Nzou nemhuru yayó” was concerned about the barrenness of the land to sustain lives of elephants. There are no trees, grass or water to feed the animals.

**Personal attitudes**

Females bring in subjective experience and identity crisis into visual analysis. They brought comments like “I don’t like elephants”. This is not based on visual impression of the paintings as if the images are not properly drawn or represented, but rather personal reaction to the referent in the real world. Sinclair declares that interpretation can also be influenced by culture and context. Animals are used as totems in Sub-Saharan Africa. Therefore some attitudes to the animals are connected to personal attitudes gained elsewhere.
Concept

Sausure (1916) in Holdcroft (1991) say signifier and the signified are linked with a psychological “associative bond”. The associative bond is the ability to relate or remember what the work of art refers to in the world or the permanent association stored in the mind or brain of the art critique. The symbol is the signifier in a work of art and the referent is the world of experience equivalent. These two can only be linked in criticism by thought of reference which is the concept. For example the term “Giant” has many referents but the thought of reference or concept is a huge object rising above the rest. Hence regardless of sex and gender identifying a baobab tree as a true giant was easy and common because the concept has no sexual bias.

Both males and females showed that they are greatly influenced by the art works title in their interpretation. Ferdinand de Sausure (1916; 1959) in Holdcroft (1991) in the sign system theory suggests that a signifier is a word in the language with a referent, signified in the real world that it stands for. Therefore a title of a work of art has a referent in the work of art or abstract. Therefore, the first level of interpretation is recognizing the referent image, for example, the elephant and its calf or the accident scene. One has to, at first level; identify the elephant and the calf or the original vehicle(s) that has been involved in the accident. When the referent was not recognisable, interpretation stopped. Most females lost interest in pursuing analysis of “Tsaona” when they could not relate or identify the referent in the real world of an accident.

The metal collage of “Tsaona” is not a realistic representation of vehicles collision but a conceptual or abstract representation. Mostly males appreciated and recognized the conceptual referent of vehicles in the deformed metals.

Semantic structure

Meaning can or is also derived from the whole sentence. The rocky outcrops or boulders on the visual composition “emerging giant” were also recognized as emerging giants complementing the concept of emerging baobab tree giant. Hence it creates intra-relations within the whole composition, “semantic structure”.

Sinclair (2004) suggests that form words have a grammatical meaning that cannot be stated in isolation but in relation to other words/ whole sentence or composition. While most participants agreed that the human subject in the composition “Ita Havapo” [Tell them I’m away], is expressing fear. The colour of the curtain generated different interpretation among males and females for intra relations within the whole composition. Most females liked the red colour in the curtain just for the sake of femininity. While the red colour added fear for most males. Thus they said the red colour is symbolic of danger which the human figure is fearing. One female, probably influenced by a stronger academic background of art education espoused on the black background surrounding the figure. She laments that the black shows depth and uncertainty which in itself generates a sense of fear, implying that there could be fear even from within the person much as from outside. Palmer (1994) says colour raises some interesting general problems of semiotics. Colour is accounted for in its hue, luminosity and saturation.
Musclunity and femininity traits

The “Ita havapo” imagery was interpreted as someone hiding from reality. Men/women, who cannot face reality, hide secrets or have life full of pretence. They are the worst enemies of themselves, people who cannot face challenges or consequences of their own actions. Most males suggested that such characters have suicidal tendencies and they deserve such ending. This unsympathetic attitude was prevalent among males and contrary to females. Females felt pity for the character threatened by unknown fearful and dreadful circumstances.

Conclusions

It can be concluded that there is diversity of interpretations in general between males and females influenced to a considerable extend by gender and other factors like proficiency in art and biographical circumstances.

Consciously or unconsciously the bulk of the criticism done were influenced by the percept of the patriarchal attitudes that have dominated for some time in our society.

The biographical circumstances of the readers as active participants in the visual interpretation have an influence on the reader response behaviour. For instance first born males displayed attitudes of caring and sympathy more than other colleagues. It has also been noted that males or females born with elders of opposite sex express their specific and exclusive traits. Castle (2007) suggests that their behaviour and gender role expectation is role modeled. Sigmund Freud’s castration anxiety demonstrates that they have identified that their genitals are different therefore behaviour expected is different as well and could account for the gender different interpretations.

Females relate forms identified in the visual texts to personal feelings and emotions in their interpretations while males considered forms in their context or semantic relations. For instance to say “I don’t like elephants”, “red is nice” is subjective to emotion and personal attachments.

There is no reference to a specific literary theory in the criticism by teacher education art students but there is a tendency informed or uninformed towards formalistic and deconstructionist criticism. They both searched the meaning within the forms, style and structure within the visual images. No participant bothered to investigate the biography of the artist in order to interpret images.

Regardless of gender, visual discourse analysis requires competence in the language and grammar of art in order to be able to unlock meaning embedded in the visual text, form style, elements, tone of the imagery.

Personal experiences, myth, cultural and social beliefs and religious orientations have a strong influence on interpretations. These circumstances shape patriarchal attitudes that have always persuaded gender inequality principles of male dominance.
Recommendations

In view of the conclusions drawn which are based on the findings of this research, it is recommended that:

Art students at teacher education level be trained in the visual language and grammar as a critical component that can help in interpretation of visual works as well as assessment and

Art student teachers should be taught the visual criticism theories so that their analysis is based on a theoretical framework hence can reduce gender biased interpretations and promote objectivity in analysis.

Further researches are recommended to further probe the influence of birth positions and role socialization in the shaping of gender stereotypes in visual interpretations.

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References


ELT AS COMMUNICATION

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Abstract: In this paper, I have taken up a problem in the teaching of English as communication. One of the important reasons why I took up this issue is that it has gained prominence over the past few years. I have suggested solutions to the issue.

Introduction

It is a fact that students, especially from the rural area remain deficient in the ability to actually use the language. It happens even after their going through the formal English teaching. Moreover, their inability to understand its use in communication, whether in the spoken or the written mode is glaring. The problem has come into existence in the globalization in recent years. Globalization denotes ‘a holistic view of human experience in education’. It is felt that globalization is concerned with business and economy, its impact has been felt on all walks of life.

In effect, globalization has changed the life style both for good and worse. Joseph Stieglitz considers that Globalization fundamentally, is the closer integration of the countries and peoples of the world which has been brought about by the enormous reduction of costs transaction and communication, and breaking down the artificial barriers to the flows of goods, services, capital, knowledge and people across borders.

Globalization of English

It is true that there is the impact of globalization on the teaching of English as communication. Teaching of English as communication is the need of hour. In globalization everyone wants to learn English in a fast way. The opportunities are available in the form of multinational recruitment in the form of various fields such as call centers, marketing staff, medical transcription centers, engineering information and telecommunication field, all such and others need the trainers to equip their employees with the skill of spoken English, communication, and efficient translation. Even the unpredictable issues of the world government like economical, political, social, hygienic can be solved amicably.

So there is a need to train the political leaders, and social workers with proper communication in English through which they can resolve the issues leaving no room for any miscommunication. Due to the expansion of information and technology like mobile phones, internet, satellites and
e-communication people started migrating in search of opportunities to lead their lives. In all these cases English communication plays a very crucial role in making the people to be at ease.

Taking into account the impact of globalization and the opportunities available in various fields across the globe, the task of a teacher to teach English as a communication has become more difficult. In the fast growing scenario of education, the students are constantly facing the pressure of knowledge exposure, the competition, the expectations of parents etc. particularly the students from the local areas face these problems, and to add to the problems they develop double consciousness and has to cope with stress as well. Here the duty of a teacher is to teach or present himself as a counselor, mentor, and facilitator or as a friend.

In the 21st century the teacher has to adjust himself in the global and local scenario. It is expected that the teacher should become a digital native and must be willing to adopt the changes which are taking place across the globe. In such condition the teacher should globalize himself and should bridge the gap between global and local. It is the age of internet and information technology. We get information from the internet sources. So the teacher needs to be able to filter news and information. Before teaching to the students how to filter information and data, the teacher must know how to filter it efficiently. The ubiquitous search engine is the tool for discovery. Unless the teacher understands how to write a good search string and how to filter search engine results, he will be unable to teach the students how to do the same.

Globalization has impacted various walks of life and particularly language e.g. worldwide production markets and border access to a range of foreign products for consumers and companies particularly movement of material and goods within national boundaries were allowed, there was a rapid movement of human resources among these countries. For them, the main medium of communication happens to be English language. So there emerged the trend of world English’s which means the emergence of localized and globalized English and varieties of English. World English consists of varieties of English used in diverse socio-linguistic contexts globally.

In the socio-cultural context of Indian urbanization, privatization and globalization, the multi-lingual aspect is very important. In the cultural context English is the vehicle of the urbanities that the rural students, who are educated in their mother tongue, try to imitate English language. Due to the emergence of worldwide financial markets and better access to external financing for borrowers, many multinational companies started establishing their enterprises across the globe. So the job opportunities are available for the youngsters who have better knowledge of English.

Therefore the need for learning English becomes more urgent. Right from the beginning of English language teaching in India, the method of teaching English language was confined to develop language skills. But only listening, reading and writing skills were given much importance neglecting the communication skills. The reasons for neglecting communication
skills are hidden in the annual scheme of teaching and testing the skill of writing. All the universities are interested in testing the writing skills by conducting three hour examination at the end of academic year. Taking into consideration of globalization and the need of hour, teaching communication skills got prominence due to the advent of multinational companies which provide jobs to the graduates based on their communication ability.

The communicative method makes heavy demands on the learners as well as on the teachers. It has impact on the system and needs awareness and assessment of what existing situation is and what activates would be needed to improve or change it in order to make it useful to the learners in a given community. Therefore, the syllabus and the curriculum should be learner centered and based on the methodology and principles of teaching/learning process “which are clearly designated to bring about a classroom where enquiry, activity, discussion, reflection and open-ended personal interpretations features rather than predetermined objectives, content and mastery level.”

There are different challenges in front of the teacher in choosing a methodology for the students from urban and rural area. The urban and rural divide the students those who have done their schooling in English medium of instruction vs. those who have come from regional medium of instruction, students who have had a good exposure to the language vs. those whose contact with the language was confined only to the classroom; students who are capable of speaking fluently those who suffer from stage fear and inhibition; students who do not have good grammatical knowledge and hence are tongue tied and passive, there are some of the disparate factors that separate the students into groups in class. In such case the role of a teacher becomes more crucial. The teacher is expected to bridge the gap between urban and rural, global and local interacting between the global and local that is by glocalizing teaching of English as communication. Oral communication is interactive and is dependent on the following factors:

a) Collection and organization of ideas following the discourse principles of cohesion and coherence like selecting and evaluating, and systemization of ideas.

b) Mastery of grammatical rules and sentence structures for gaining proficiency in language use.

c) Good articulation to make the presentation audible and clear to the audience.

d) A grasp of the context or situation in which the speech occurs.

e) Faith and confidence in oneself to face the audience.

Fluency vs Accuracy
Learners learn a language at their own pace. The level of language proficiency differs from one student to the other. So it is necessary that the teacher designs and presents the lessons in a way that matches their learning style. This will help to accomplish learning at a faster rate and the intention to internalize such items actual use for communicative purposes will also be high. Insistence on grammatical correctness often stands as an impediment between the language and the learner. Persuading a student to learn grammar first and then to translate his ideas for language use with ease often becomes an uphill ask. So to start with, in oral communication, fluency rather than accuracy should be encouraged. The students’ errors should be tolerated without making him/her realize that s/he has committed errors. Importance must be given to the overall message conveyed and not to the accuracy of it.

Some Strategies

The art of public speaking must be learnt only by practice. There are a host of oral tasks like Face to Face Conversation, Telephone conversation, Role-play, Debate, Presentation, Conducting and participating in meetings, Group Discussions and Mock Interviews. The teacher must first create a congenial atmosphere in class in order to eliminate the inhibitions of slow learners. It is important that the ambience in a language class is learner friendly. So initially ensuring participation of every student in speaking will contribute to confidence building of slow learners.

Increasing the learners’ self confidence and liking for the language is very crucial at this stage. The confidence that learners get may encourage him/her to speak in English whenever an opportunity comes. The teacher must devise activities suitable to the learners’ level of competence so that the learner is willing to come out of his shell to speak and participate in the oral activity. These activities have a lot of merits.

1) Teachers know the students’ potential and pay individual attention to every one
2) This creates a good rapport between the teacher and students
3) Students feel confident to overcome their fear and inhibitions
4) Their self esteem increases
5) The hesitation disappears and they start to participate with joy and comfort
6) The fluency level of students increases
7) The students’ proficiency increases

Conclusion
English Language Teaching helps students develop their communicative skills. In fact they express their willingness to have more ELT classes as it provides opportunities for participation and development of the spoken English and confidence to face placement interviews.

Works Cited


Extroversion/Introversion and Test Performance of Iranian EFL Students on Multiple-Choice and True/False Reading Comprehension Test

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Abstract: A host of factors contribute to test performance of testees in language learning contexts. The study is an attempt to investigate any probable role that personality types might play in the performance of language learners in their performance on multiple-choice and true/false reading comprehension tests. Attempts were made to examine whether being an introvert or extrovert makes any significant difference in their performance on multiple-choice and true/false reading comprehension tests or not. To achieve such a purpose, 61 English language learners were selected on the basis of availability sampling procedure and their personality type was determined by using Eysenck’s Personality Questionnaire (EPQ). Next, a series of multiple-choice and true/false reading comprehension tests were administered to the participants with the two personality types. The result of t-test revealed no statistically significant difference between the personality types of the participants in the study and their performance on the multiple-choice and true/false tests. The results could have implications for educators concerned with the validity of tests interpretations, testing researchers, and practitioners as well.

Keywords: Multiple-Choice Reading Comprehension Test, True/False Tests, Introversion, Extroversion, Eysenck’s Personality Questionnaire

Introduction

Personality

Measuring performance of students is challenging since performance is product of socio-economic, psychological and environmental factors. Ellis (2003) believes, “second language acquisition is a complex process, involving many interrelated factors” (p. 4). Therefore, in order to deal with this complexity, language researchers have offered theories that were generalized in nature and hence often not very productive. As Brown (2000) mentions, “These theories ruled out individual differences and sought only to explain globally how people learn, and what common characteristics there are in language learning” (p. 274).
Accordingly, one of the most significant aspects of any kind of pedagogy is to take into account the impact of these differences on the learning and teaching processes (Snow, 1997). According to Ellis (2003), general and personal factors have social, cognitive, and affective aspects. Because people are often assessed based on their personality, personality is recognized as a very prominent category of individual differences. So it is assumed that any given individual will act in a plausibly coherent manner on different situations. Over the last few decades, researchers have done many works in order to find an extensive definition of personality. They clarify personality on different levels such as social, psychological, and educational. In teaching and learning, we seek those aspects of personality that have influence on the nature and quality of learning. Many psychologists agree that personality has effect on learning.

Despite the fact that previous research has investigated the relationship between personality and academic performance (Cattell & Butcher, 1968; Eysenck, 1967; Kline & Gale, 1977), academic achievement has been generally went with intelligence rather than personality (e.g., Elshout & Veenman, 1992; Harris, 1940; in addition, some researchers (Allik & Realo, 1997; Dollinger & Orf, 1991; Green, Peters, & Webster, 1991; Mehta & Kumar, 1985; Rothstein, Paunonen, Rush, & King, 1994) inferred that personality is not significantly connected to academic achievement and is not of real significance in educational environments. Nevertheless, empirical evidence continued for a long time showing that both personality and intelligence are important forecaster of academic performance in the way that both of them have been recognized to be related to learning (Busato, Prins, Elshout, & Hamaker, 1999; Eysenck, 1981).

Stanger (1933) had proposed that “the energy output of the individual student . . . varies independently of ability” (p. 648). Thus treating personality characteristics as forecasters may be responsible for extra variance in performance. Lately it has been asserted that personality dimensions, on their own, are influential enough to illustrate a moderate percentage of the difference in academic performance (Blickle, 1996; Cacioppo, Petty, Feinstein, & Jarvis, 1996; De Raad & Schouwenburg, 1996; Goff & Ackerman, 1992; Rindermann & Neubauer, 2001; Wolfe & Johnson, 1995)—despite of the fact that a few earlier studies had asserted this before (especially Chorro, 1981; Hamilton & Freeman, 1971).

Although numerous dimensions of personality have been identified by different psychologists, the research in personality psychology has revealed increasing general agreement on the nature and number of fundamental personality measures (Digman, 1989), sometimes named Big Five. Big Five includes neuroticism vs. emotional stability, extroversion vs. introversion, openness to experience, agreeableness, and conscientiousness. The scope of the current study is limited to extroversion/introversion personality dimension. Thus, it will be elaborated on in the following section.

**Extroversion/Introversion**

Individual differences are the variables that describe learners and donate each one his/her individual singularity. The aim of probing individual differences is to investigate the variety of intellect, shapes of cognitive procedure, and various intellectual functions (Skehan, 1989). Personality is recognized as a very influential category of individual differences because the individual is often assessed based on her/his personality. Researchers who investigate human
personality are often curious about individual differences. They believe that there are substantial individual differences in personality and they will be shown by differences in treating and responding in a granted occasion (Eysenck, 1985). Because of this point, one characteristic similar to the most of personality theories is the focus on the individual.

Eysenck (1970) specified personality as the more or less fixed and lasting organization of a person's trait, nature, intellect and physique which specifies individual’s personality. Guilford (1959) believed that personality includes all of an individual's traits, his physical characteristics, intellectual qualities, aptitude and talents as well as his temper and mental qualities, interests, expressive behavior, and pathological symptoms. He defines personality as an individual's "unique pattern traits" (p. 5).

Personality is considered as one of the individual differences which is greatly agreed to have an influence on learning in general and second language acquisition (SLA) in particular. It should also be emphasized that people should not be regarded to be either extraverts or introverts because it is a continuum which specifies one’s degree of outgoingness.

Eysenck (1965, p.59) characterizes a representative extravert as:

…sociable, enjoys parties, has a lot of friends, hates reading or studying by himself. He desires excitement, takes opportunities…and is usually an impulsive individual. He is fond of useful jokes, always has a prepared answer…likes change…and becomes irritated fast. 

From another point of view, he clarifies a representative introvert as:

…peaceful, timid, introspective, enthusiastic about books rather than people; he is reticent and reserved except to close friends. He enjoys planning ahead, “looks before he leaps”; and mistrust the impulse of the moment. He hates excitement, takes issue of everyday life with suitable seriousness….does not lose his temper fast. 

**Review of Literature**

Rankin (1963 as cited in Farley and Truog, 1970) reported significantly better reading test performance for introverts than extraverts, whereas, Vehar (1968) determined no such significant differences in reading test performance between personality dimensions of extroversion and introversion, although, a small but significant correlation was gained between extroversion-introversion personality test scores and reading among male introverts. Introverts performed five times better than extroverts.

Related to reading and grammar components of the standardized English tests, Busch (1982) stated that extroverts had a significant negative correlation with pronunciation and introverts tend to have higher scores. The relationship between the personality dimensions of introversion/extroversion and EFL reading comprehension among the Iranian students was investigated in Pazhuhe’s study (1994). The result of this study showed that introverts
Astika, Carrell and Prince Moneta (1996) studied the relationship between Extroversion/Introversion and English proficiency of Indonesian university students through non-standard monthly tests of reading comprehension, vocabulary, grammar, and writing. They reported a very weak negative relationship between extraversion and vocabulary as well as the composite course scores but did not report any relationship with other measures of English proficiency.

Statistical analysis of Zandi’s study (2001) showed that the introversion/ extroversion personality dimensions of the students did not have a significant effect on their proficiency. In this study the relationship between introversion/ extroversion, gender and the EFL proficiency of Iranian students were investigated in an educationally deprived region. Babaekhou (1995) studied the relationship between extroversion/introversion and Iranian EFL learners’ English proficiency. The results showed that extrovert learners outperformed their introvert peers.

Kiany (1997) examined the relationship between extroversion and English proficiency of 237 Iranian postgraduate students studying in English-speaking countries. He used Persian version of EPQ, and TOEFL, IELTS, MCHE, and cloze tests. The results showed a negative and a significant relationship between extroversion and TOEFL subcomponent of reading comprehension; more extroverted learners tended to have lower scores on the reading comprehension. In addition, this study revealed that introverts outperformed extroverts at least in receptive proficiency tests and general academic achievement.

Busch (1982) explored the relationship between introversion-extroversion and English language proficiency of 105 adult school and 80 junior college learners in Japan. A Japanese version of EPI and a nationally standardized English test, consisting grammar / vocabulary, reading, aural comprehension, and dictation, were used to collect the data. In general, no significant relationship was found between extroversion and language measures. Only, pronunciation, a subcomponent of the oral test, was significantly and negatively correlated with extraversion. Lately, Kim (1998) examined the relationship between extroversion/introversion and EFL proficiency of Korean elementary school children measured in the Level Test. In this study grade and gender were specified as two independent variables. The results of this study did not display any significant main effect of personality variables.

A research project conducted with 120 pre-university students in Hamadan, Iran, revealed that there was no significant difference between the grammatical performances of extroverts and introverts (Karami, 2001). Another relevant study conducted in Tehran with Islamic Azad University students and those of Teacher Training University also showed no significant difference between EFL proficiency of introvert and extrovert students (Farnia, 1993). This study also took other variables, such as sex and subcomponents of an English proficiency test into consideration. No difference was observed.

Rastegar (2002) found a non-significant but negative relationship between extroversion and EFL proficiency of Kerman and Shiraz university students. In a study considering various kinds of
writing strategies, Validy (1998) evaluated English language proficiency of Allameh University students by a CELT test and measured their extroversion scores on the EPQ scale. He indicated that extroverts, who are more inclined toward risk taking compared to introverts, tend to use achievement strategies, whereas introverts are more likely to use reduction strategies.

Swain and Burnaby (1976) investigated the effect of extroversion, sociability and talkativeness on the performance of French kindergarteners. The results of their study showed no influence of the forecasting variables on both comprehension and production tests in French.

Conflicting results relating the effects of personality traits stressed the importance of the present study. Two different questions were planned to accomplish the purpose as follows.

RQ1: Is there any significant difference between the performance of extrovert and introvert Iranian EFL learners on multiple-choice test?

RQ2: Is there any significant difference between the performance of extrovert and introvert Iranian EFL learners on true/false test?

Methodology

Following Mackey and Gass (2005), and considering the nature of the variables and samples under study, a comparison study design was applied to test the hypotheses.

Participants

A sample of 75 English learners from different language institutes in Sari, Iran, participated in this research. The subjects were non-randomly selected using the availability sampling method. A version of Cambridge Placement Test was used to homogenize the participants in the study, comprising 45 female and 30 male learners. Their age ranged from 14 to 26. The type of non-random sampling used for the study was the convenience one in which the participants were those who happened to be available for the study (Mackey & Gass, 2005) after receiving pass mark in a standard homogenizing test. Cambridge Placement Test (CPT) was used to homogenize the students' level. There were initially 75 participants, but 14 of them had to be excluded because they weren’t in the level of knowledge that the researcher wanted.

After administering the Eysenck personality questionnaire, it became clear that 11 subjects were at the medium level; as a result, their data were eliminated from the study. Finally 50 subjects (17 male and 33 female) were considered the main participants for the current study. Due to practicality problems and the number of subjects needed, the sampling was a non-random one despite the probable external validity problems.

Materials

Eysenck Personality Questionnaire

The Persian restandardized form of the Adult EPQ (Eysenck personality questionnaire, 1975) was used to measure the degree of extroversion in the study. This measure is an internationally
reliable instrument which has been translated and validated in Iran (Kiani, 1997). The EPQ is an established and popular personality test with a world-wide usage. It has also been extensively studied, translated and restandardized in more than 50 countries. Although it has been originally developed for an English population, it does not carry cultural load and has a high reliability and validity. It is comprised of 90 questions which measure psychological factors of Extroversion (E), Neuroticism (N), and Psychoticism (P). It also has a Lie (L) scale which aims at identifying possible faking on the part of the subject. Twenty one items are related to Extroversion. However, the whole questionnaire was taken by the subjects to avoid violation of the reliability and validity.

**Multiple-Choice and True/False Tests**

Because the researchers aimed to study the relation of personality traits on different test formats, they selected some reading comprehension passages from the books which were written for the upper intermediate and advanced students who were the researchers’ main purpose then the level of difficulty of each subset is suitable for them. The researchers asked the participants to read them and answer the multiple-choice questions. The reading passages were selected based on their proficiency levels. The researchers decided to choose the texts which had interesting topics and caused the participants to read and answer the questions eagerly.

**Procedure**

**Eysenck Personality Questionnaire**

The introversion/extroversion questionnaire which was introduced before contained 90 questions. Although 21 questions were related to the study, the researchers administered all questions to the participants. The participants were required to read the instruction prepared for the questionnaire. They were asked them to answer the items quickly and not to analyze the questions. Based on participants’ answers to extroversion/introversion section of the questionnaire, they were assigned into two groups named extrovert/introvert. Some of their answers showed that they were ambivert, so they were crossed out from data analysis.

**Multiple-Choice and True/False Tests**

The researcher administrated two types of the tests, multiple-choice and true/false reading comprehension tests during a term in the institute.

**The Procedure of Scoring and Data Analysis**

The items of the tests were scored objectively due to their format. Equal weight was given to each item. Both numerical and graphical techniques were applied to test the normality of obtained data. Then, independent and paired-samples t-test were run to analyze the data.

**Research Results**

**Testing Normality**
For EFL researchers, a pivotal decision to be made is concerning the choice of appropriate statistical techniques; that is, whether to apply a parametric test or a non-parametric one to interpret the research results (Soleimani, 2009). Two normality examination methods were used for the present study: descriptive numerical method (skewness) and theory-driven graphical and numerical method (Q-Q plot; Kolmogorov-Smirnov). According to the results of testing normality, the data distribution was normal, thus parametric statistics were applied to test each null hypothesis.

**Testing Hypotheses**

**Testing Null Hypothesis 1**

*RH0 1:* Introverts do not outperform extroverts in multiple-choice test.

Table 1 shows independent-samples *t*-test between introvert and extrovert performance in multiple-choice tests. As the table shows, obtained sig. value is .76, which is greater than the value of .05. Therefore, the data did not violate the assumption of equal variances and the first line of Table 1 was used to interpret the results. Based on Table 1, the obtained sig. (2-tailed) value is .25 and above .05. Hence, there is not a significant difference between two groups.

**Table 1. Independent Sample t-test Between Introvert and Extrovert: MC-test**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Levene's Test for Equality of Variances</th>
<th>t-test for Equality of Means</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>F</em></td>
<td><em>Sig.</em></td>
<td><em>t</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><em>t</em>-test between Mc</th>
<th>Equal variances assumed</th>
<th>Equal variances not assumed</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>.093</td>
<td>.762</td>
<td>1.153</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.153</td>
<td>47.99</td>
<td>.254</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to Table 2 the mean of the introvert is 8.80 out of 12 and the mean of the extrovert is 8.08 out of 12. The mean difference here is .72. It shows that there is a difference between groups but this difference is not significant. Based on these results it can be claimed that there is
no significant difference between the introvert and extrovert groups’ mean scores in multiple-choice reading comprehension questions and the first hypothesis is rejected.

Table 2. Group Statistics between Introvert and Extrovert: MC -Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>SEM</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>t-test between : MC Introvert</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>8.80</td>
<td>2.198</td>
<td>.440</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extrovert</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>8.08</td>
<td>2.216</td>
<td>.443</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Testing Null Hypothesis 2

RH0 2: Introverts do not outperform extroverts in true/false test.

Table 3 shows independent-samples *t*-test between introverts and extroverts in true/false test. As the Table displays, the obtained *sig.* value is (.092) which is greater than the value of .05. Therefore, the data did not violate the assumption of equal variances and the first line of Table 3 was used to interpret the results. Based on Table 3, the obtained *sig.* (2-tailed) value is .184 which reveals no significant difference between two groups.

Table 3. Independent Sample t-test Between Introvert and Extrovert: True/False test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>t-test for Equality of Means</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Levene’s Test for Equality of Variances</td>
<td>2.963</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances assumed</td>
<td>Equal variances assumed</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As Table 4 displays, the mean of the introvert is 3.60 out of 5 and the mean of the extrovert is 3.92 out of 5 with a difference of .32. However, the difference is not significant. Based on these results, it can be concluded that there is no significant difference between the introvert and extrovert groups’ mean scores in true/false tests, and the second hypothesis is rejected.

Table 4. Group Statistics between Introvert and Extrovert: True/False test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>SEM</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>t-test between</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>True/False test</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>.912</td>
<td>.182</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extrovert</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td>.759</td>
<td>.151</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Discussion

An independent t-test was used to examine the difference between two sample means. The analyses for hypotheses indicated that although there is a difference between performance of introvert and extrovert Iranian EFL learners on different test formats, the difference was not statistically significant. The research questions were to find if there was any difference between
the personality tendencies of introversion/ extroversion of Iranian learners of English on the one hand, and their performance on multiple-choice and true/false tests, on the other. The findings revealed that there exists no significant difference between introversion/ extroversion dimension and participants' performance on these two types of tests, despite the fact that there was a small mean difference between groups. Failing to discover any difference between these two categories of variables was not surprising, since some past studies, as was mentioned in the literature review, have more or less obtained the same findings. Psychological phenomena are among the most sophisticated concepts, and of vague and intricate transactions with other phenomena. Therefore, discovering relations within this intertwined web is not an easy task. It requires lots of research and long studies to explain them.

The aforementioned findings may be clarified in different ways. One conceivable explanation can be in light of Brown’s (1997) view that it is misleading to say extroverts are smarter than introverts in language learning. Introverts can have an inner strength of trait that extroverts do not have. Unluckily, these stereotypes have effect on teachers' intuition of students. There is enough evidence that teachers are often impressed by talkative and outgoing students who take part freely in class discussions. Educators have warned against prejudging students on the basis of perceived extroversion. Chastain (1988) believes that extroverts can control classroom communicative activities with less fear of risk-taking comparing to their introvert peers; however, introverts are probably more conscientious and devoted to their task. These personality differences cannot represent the priority of extroverts to introverts in learning reading, speaking, and writing skills. The findings of this study seem to coincide with the above-mentioned opinions.

The current findings can illustrate the issue Stern (1983) stated related to an obvious contradiction of language teachers in Iran, like what most of their counterparts in other countries do, who like to support extroversion and to behave quiet reserved students as problems. The emphasis in modern communicative classes on speaking skills and neglecting the grammatical accuracy of what the EFL learners produce result in this valuing over introversion. However, Chastain (1988) mentioned that some students are so shy and so timid and unsure of themselves even in their first language, and then trying to communicate in a second language can be traumatic for them. Students' reclusiveness is not going to be considered as their inability in language learning.

In the study done by Kiany (1997), the results of the test indicated a negative and a significant relationship between extroversion and TOEFL subcomponent of reading comprehension. Babaeikhou's study (1995) showed that extrovert learners performed significantly better on a measure of language proficiency than did their introvert counterparts. Hence, the result of the first and second research questions of this study, which showed no significant differences between groups, was in sharp contrast with the claims and findings of Kiany (1997) and Babaeikhou (1995).

According to Karami (2001), there is no significant difference between the grammatical performances of extraverts and introverts. Rastegar (2002) found a non-significant but negative relationship between extroversion and EFL proficiency of Kerman and Shiraz university students. Based on Pazhuhesh (1994), introverts are significantly better than their extrovert
counterparts. Swain and Burnaby (1976) revealed no impact of the predictive variables on both comprehension and production tests in French. Statistical analysis of Zandi's study (2001) demonstrated that the introversion / extroversion tendencies of the students did not have a significant correlation with the EFL proficiency. In addition; Busch's study (1982) showed no significant relationship between extraversion and language measures. Consequently their finding is in the same trend with the results of the research questions in a way that no significant difference was found between extroverts and introverts in different kinds of test formats.

**Conclusion**

The study was, in fact, an attempt to probe any plausible role of the personality traits of language learners in their performance of two types of the test: multiple-choice reading comprehension tests and true/false tests. In other words, the study attempted to understand if being introversion/extroversion makes any significant difference in their performance on these two tests or not. Administering a series of multiple-choice tests and true/false tests among the two types of learners, the study revealed that there is no significant difference between the personality factors of learners and their performance on the multiple-choice and true/false tests.

In this study, the construct introversion and extroversion was found to have no or very little effect on the multiple-choice and true/false tests of the Iranian upper intermediate and advanced students. This finding questions the strong version of the theories that predict all individual factors play crucial roles in EFL success. Therefore, according to the results of this study, it can be claimed that at least some individual characteristics such as introversion/extroversion may have little or no bearings on adult EFL success.

As the findings of this study suggest, personality traits do not slow down or enhance the performance of EFL learners. Because of the problems the researchers faced with regards to the availability of the participants, the factors of gender and age were not considered in the research. Doing more studies on the grammaticality judgment of the female and male EFL Iranian learners concerning their age limit is the researcher's preoccupation.

**References**


Strategies and Approaches for Teaching and Learning of Medical Terminology

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ABSTRACT: The teaching of English for specific purposes (ESP) courses is not an easy task for the teachers of English either as a second or foreign language. Further, the teaching / learning of medical terminology is an acute problem for both teachers and learners of medical discipline. The teachers cannot convey easily the ideas hidden in ambiguous lexemes which are derived from foreign languages other than English (i.e. Greek and Latin). In turn, the learners are frightened of long and complicated terms and they find it very difficult to pronounce, spell and understand unfamiliar forms. The present research paper investigates the difficulties encountered by the learners of medicine in understanding medical terminology. It provides some strategies for the learners such as breaking down strategy, identifying the word – parts, removing affixation (pre-and post) and memorisation of eponyms (terms named after persons). The most appropriate and efficient approaches which may help in the teaching process of medical terminology are suggested such as diagnostic approach, a generative model for acquisition of medical vocabularies, using L1 in teaching L2 and other collective methods.

Keywords: Medical Terminology, Loans, Strategies, Approaches, Breaking down.

1.0. Introduction

English is accepted as the language instruction of different sciences and technologies. It is distinguished uniquely from the other global languages, because it borrows freely and constantly from other languages (i.e. loan words), for instance, there are a lot of Arabic words introduce(d) from time to time not only in general English domain, but also in specialised areas such as medicine, pharmacology, etc. Obviously, we can witness Arabic terms as alcohol, alkali, alembic, naphtha, tartar, al-chemy, el-exir and so on. Many other languages enrich the English globe by a huge number of loans in different fields, exemplification, a lot of medical terminology or lexemes are originated from Latin and Greek because they were very popular as English widely used nowadays. Also, French, German and many other languages played and still play a very important role in supporting and promoting the phenomenon of English. Hence, English can be defined as not a language in its own right, but it is a collection of overlapping languages. Interestingly, many words transmitted to English by indirect way, that means passed from one language to another language then to English.
Serjeantson (1935:15-6) points out "some words have entered English, not by direct contact with the language which is its source, but indirectly through an intervening language. In this way many of the earlier Italian Loans come through French, the earlier loan words from the east come through Latin, many of them having already passed through Greek before reaching Latin …. Words travelled thousands of miles, westward from Asia to Europe, across Europe from east to west and from south to north, all round the Mediterranean from nation to nation and from generation to generation."

There is no doubt then English like any other languages serves the native speakers with a wide range of implementations in different disciplines, but it is striking to note that it serves the non-natives of English with an equally wide range of use as it is international and can be used in various fields of sciences, commerce, trade and communication between the different states of the world (Talgeri, 2004: 17).

English is used in three varieties. First language (L1), second language (SL) and foreign language (FL), for the learners of English as an SL and FL, English is implemented in two ways: English for general purposes (EGP) and English for specific purposes (ESP). EGP provides an unlimited range of language which can be applied for various purposes without identification of particular needs or specific people (Abdullah, 2005: 68) Whereas, ESP concentrates on a restricted use of language which is designed for specific needs of a particular group of learners for example English for medical studies, English for technicians, English for airlines employees, English for agricultural learners, etc. (ibid: 47).

English for specific purposes is one of the principal offshoots that has emerged in the last few decades and has been internationally accepted as the language of instruction of science and technology. In the last few years, the phenomenon of learning English for specific purposes has begun to appear more and more frequently throughout the process of English language teaching. Unquestionably this has become a major activity in today's highly automated world (Abdullah, 2009: 1 and Abdullah and Othman, 2010:4).

Medical English is a branch of ESP in which it is designed to meet the entire prerequisites of medical studies and profession. Medical lexicon which is the accepted international terminology of the discipline and the profession, is the prime need of the ESP learner of medicine irrespective of whether his own language is Arabic or Swahili or Hindi (Khan, 1986: 146).

The present research paper is an attempt to investigate the difficulties encountered by the learners of medicine in understanding the medical terms and providing strategies, techniques and approaches for comprehending the hidden ideas in such complicated terminology.
2. Medical Terminology

Every profession or field has its own jargon, i.e. a registered or a specialised language that allows for quick and efficient communication smoothly between members of the same discipline. Practitioners of medicine and health sciences have their own jargon or particular language for medicine. Medical terminology is a specialised language used by learners, specialists and experts of medicine and health sciences. It is regarded as one of the most difficult language among all the other specialised languages in different fields. Medical language includes very complicated long terms which seem difficult to sound, spell, remember and even understand e.g. amonasehydrocharideoeymphaeoid, encephalomyeoneuropathy, dermatomucosomyositis, etc. Kenneth and Chuntana Methold (1975:6) argue "medical writing relies very heavily on a specialised vocabulary. most of these words cannot be usefully translated or even defined. Medical writing is often so difficult to understand, it is necessary to approach it from a variety of angles if one is to understand the ideas hidden in long words and even longer and complex terms."

Further, medical language provides unfamiliar and strange words, for example some words contain triple (o) together as in hysterosaplingooophorectomy and others start in double (o) as in oophorectomy.

Furthermore, the grammatical patterns in medical context are different, for instance the plural is formed by another way different from that one in an ordinary English, many nouns do not add "-s" or "-es" in the plural, but change in vowels or the last part of the words e.g. amoeba / amoebae, bacterium / bacteria, phenomenon / phenomena, protozoon / protozoa, fungus / fungi, curriculum / curricula, etc.

2.1. Techniques and Approaches for Understanding Medical terminology

As preliminary for this section, it is important to explain what is meant by medical terminology. The word "medical" is an adjective which means areas / contexts / settings of medicine. Terminology is divided into three parts: term- = word, -in- = inside (-o-, linker) and –logy = a branch of study. Therefore, it can be deduced that the two terms mean a branch of science which is concerned with the study or understanding what is hidden inside the medical words.

There are different techniques or strategies and methods or approaches which can be used to understand the meanings of the medical terms and comprehending the ideas beyond such complicated lexemes. In the next discussion, the focus will be on the most important strategies and approaches which may help in learning and teaching medical terms.
2.1.1 Strategies

As it has been pointed out earlier that it seems not easy to learn the different source language or even Greek and Latin which offer the largest chunk of medical lexicon. A short cut to the necessary information is inevitable and, therefore, certain fundamentals of vocabulary acquisition and linguistic procedure of word formation and word analysis have to be learnt and fruitfully utilised (Khan, 1986 : 149).

New strategies have to be formed and past techniques have to be reviewed in the interest of medical terminology and in the interest of effective teaching / learning process. One of the most effective strategies in learning / teaching medical terminology is breaking down each term into small meaningful units.

2.1.1.1. Breaking Down

It is commonly known that breaking down indicates destruction or collapse which means harmful effects e.g. breaking down a building, piece of furniture, white blood cells, antibody protection, etc. But there is an exception in the case of breaking down the loan items into parts to explain what each element of a word refer to, when collecting such segments of the small parts leading to comprehend what notion is hidden inside such items.

The ESP learners of medicine and health sciences will be exposed to handle long and apparently difficult scientific terms like those mentioned in (2). In the beginning, it may seem impossible to learn how to pronounce , spell and memorise these complicated terms and their meanings. The learners of medical discipline need to know the techniques for understanding the meanings of the confused forms. One of the useful strategies which can be applied is breaking down the loan into meaningful constituents, the meaning of each element listed separately and combing the meanings of all the units leading to comprehend the definition or the meaning of the whole terms. Once these elements have been mastered, there is no difficulty in discovering the meaning of the compounded medical terms, no matter how long it may be, for these elements over and over again in all kinds of the words used in the field of the study (i.e. medicine). Below are some examples for applying the breaking down strategy:

a) The term Hemangioendotheliosarcoma can be broken down in this way:
   - Hem = blood
   - angi(o) = vessel
   - endotheli (o) = pertaining to endothelium
   - sarcoma = a tumour, often malignant from this we can deduce that Hemangioendotheliosarcoma is a medical condition of a malignant tumour of the blood vessel with masses of endothelial.
b) The term **Electroencephalography** can be broken down like this:
Electr(o) - = electricity
-en - = in
-cephal(o) - = head (together en + cephalo means brain)
-graphy = writing or recording.
Therefore, **electroencephalography** can be defined as the process of recording the electrical activity of the brain.

c) The term **Hysteroaplingooophorectomy** can be analysed as under:
hyster(o) - = pertaining to the uterus.
-sapling(o) - = uterine tube
-oophor(o) = ovary
-ectomy = excision

The combination of the above separated elements can lead to the following definition:
Excision of the uterus (along with) uterine tube and ovaries.

d) The term **otorhinolaryngologist** is made up of the following constituents:
 ot(o)- = ear
- rhin(o) = nose
- laryng(o) = larynx or voice – box.
-log (y) replaced by (- ist ) = specialist or an expert in the field of study or particular medical condition.

The meanings obtained from these elements can be combined to produce the following definition: A specialist in treating the diseases of ear, nose and larynx.

e) **Encephalomyeloneuropathy**:
Encephal (o) - = brain
-myel (o) - = spinal cord
-neur (o) - = nerves
-pathy = disease condition
A disease condition involving the brain, spinal cord and peripheral nerves.

f) **Dermatomucosomyositis**:
Dermat (o) - = skin
-mucos (o)- = mucous membrane
-hly (o) - = muscle
-itis = inflammation.

Of course, the above examples are selected randomly to explain how to use the strategy of breaking down in learning / teaching the loans, the list of the medical terminology is endless and such technique is not the only one, but there are other methods and tools which can be used to facilitate the procedure of understanding the medical terms, identifying the parts of the words as roots and affixation is important for the ESP learners of medical discipline.

**2.1.1.2. Word – parts**

Any word can be divided into two main parts: a) **Root** and b) **Affixation**.
2.1.1.2.1. Root

Root is the most important part of the word, it can be described as the head or nucleus of a lexeme in which the divisions and sub-divisions of the affixations can be formed. In an ordinary English, most of the words have just one root e.g. incurable, "cure" is the root. Unfortunately, the learners of medical discipline encounter an acute problem with the poly-root of one term (i.e. more than one root in one term). For example, the term analysed in the previous section "otorhinolaryngology" has three roots viz. a) oto- = ear b) –rhino- = nose and c) –laryngo- = larynx. Therefore, it is very crucial for the medical learners to understand which elements of a lexeme are roots and which are other word parts (i.e. affixations).

Once, the students discriminate between the different elements of the same vocabulary, this will be resulted in understanding easily the assumed meaning of the whole term.

2.1.1.2.2. Affixation

Another word part is an affixation, by affixation it is generally meant additions to the word-form either initially or finally. It is sub-divided into two main parts: a) prefix and b) suffixes. Some grammarians add a third category i.e. infix, it will be explained something later.

2.1.1.2.3. Prefix

Prefix is a Latin loan consisting of two parts pre- means "before" and –fix means "fasten". The combining of the two forms means that part of the word which is fasten or added at the beginning of the word e.g. polynéuritis, the first part poly- is a prefix, it is added to the neuritis to mean "many".

2.1.1.2.4. Suffix

Suffix consists of two parts "suf-" and "-fix". The former means "after" behind or beneath and the later means "fasten". They mean that part of the word which can be added to the end of the lexeme, for instance in the above example "polyneuritis", the first part "poly-" is a prefix, the second part "neur-" is the root (i.e. nucleus) means nerves and the last part "-itis" is the suffix mean inflammation. The combination of the three elements means a medical condition in which there is inflammation of many nerves. It is worthy to point that the prefixes and suffixes can modify the meaning of the word root i.e. they can add, change or even give an antonym e.g. useful and useless, "use-" is the root and –ful/-less is the suffix, the two terms can mean the opposite of each other.
As it has mentioned before, in some reference books of grammar, there is a third category i.e. infix. It consists of two forms "in –" means inside or in the middle and "–fix" means fasten. The two elements indicate a change which can appear at the middle of the word e.g. man – men, woman – women etc. (i.e. the change of the vowels "a" and "e")

2.1.1.2.5. Derivation

In the medical studies, the former two types of affixation (pre and suffix) play a very important role in forming a lot of medical words emerged from one root by the assistance of derivation. By derivation, it is meant that the process by which new words are formed through the mechanics of affixation to a root – form already in existence. Khan (1986:199) points "most of the scientific terms employed by medical course are derivatives and compounds. One of the obvious feature of these terms is the frequency with which several elements are used over and over again ".

In medical English, the prefixes and suffixes can be expressed by pre-derivatives and post-derivatives respectively. In the next few discussion, we will shed light to differentiate between the two forms and explain how each one can form a lot of medical terms emerged from just one root.

2.1.1.2.5.1. Pre-derivatives

By pre-derivatives, it is meant that a lexeme which is formed by adding a prefix to the source of the word (i.e. root). A huge number of vocabularies are formed by the process of pre-derivation not only in medical English or ESP, but even in an ordinary English or EGP. For example consider the following terms which are derived from the root – cide which means "killing", of course all of them are pre-derivatives:

a) Suicide = sui- = of oneself –cide "killing" the two means killing of oneself.
b) Matricide / parricide = matri- or parri- = mother means killing the mother by her son or daughter.
c) Patricide = patri- = father "killing the father by his son or daughter ".
d) Sororicide = sorori- = sister "killing the sister by her brother or sister ".
e) Fratricide = fratri- = brother "killing the brother by his brother or sister ".
f) Uxoricide = Uxori – wife "killing the wife by her husband ".
g) Infanticide = killing an infant.
h) Pesticide / insecticide = killing insects.
i) Herbicide = Herbi- = plant "killing unwanted plant ".

(Baalabki, 1997:841-2)

If we take another root or base as JECT we can identify several derivatives as be explained below:

Inject projectionist
Injection                         projective
Injector                          projectivity
Object                           projectively
Objection                      projectional
       Projection
       Projector

2.1.1.2.5.2. Post – derivatives

The prefix " post " means "after " , by the compound – word post – derivative , we mean that term which is formulated by adding a suffix to the base or root. There is a huge lexemes in the medical vocabulary which are members of the post-derivative family. If we move ahead to the most important organ in the human body " cardi- " (i.e. heart ) we can discover a great number of post derivatives as follows :

Cardia                                cardiac                                  cardialgia
Cardiopathy                    cardiotherapy                           cardiotomy
Cardiovascular                cardiovalvular                          cardiomegalay
Cardiomyopathy                    cardiocele                           cardiodynia
Cardioplegia                     cardiography                                    carditis
Cardiometer                       cardiogram                                  cardiorrhexis
Cardiopneumatic                 cardiosclerosis                            cardioid

It is worthwhile to explain that all the above terms are descended from one base " cardi", but they represent different classes of grammar such as verbs, adjectives and even different forms of nouns (i.e. nouns of process, nouns of medical conditions, etc). Further, the list includes different meanings i.e. synonyms and antonyms, therefore, the learners of medical studies are exposed frequently with such derivatives in different professional and academic settings. Hence, they should familiarise themselves with formulation of terms declined from particular source or root. Of course, this kind of learning strategy can be found in unlimited areas of study and in different reference books and subjects of medical discipline. For example if we take another lexeme as the terms of the nervous system, we can deduce the following huge list :

Neur-, neuro-                Neurad                                   Neuradynamia          Neuragmia
Neural                               Neuralgie                               Neuralgiform          Neuramebimeter
Neurangenesis                 Neurangiosis                              Neurapophysis        Neurapraxia
Neurarchy                               Neurasthenia                           Neurastheniac        Neurasthenic
Neurataxis                 Neuratrophia                              Neuratrophic        Neuraxial
Neuraxis                                  Neuraxitis                                Neuraxon            Neure
Neurectasia                 Neurectomy                                 Neurectopia         Neurenergen
Neurenteric                Neurepithelium                               Neurergic           Neurexeresis
Neuriatry  Neuricity  Neuridine  Neurilemma
Neurilemmitis  Neurilemmoma  Neurility  Neurimotility
Neurimotor  Neurinoma  Neurinomatosis  Neurit
Neuritic  Neuritis  Neuroallergy  Neuroanastomosis
Neuroanatomy  Neuroarthropathy  Neurobiology  Neurobion
Neurobiotaxis  Neuroblast  Neuroblastoma  Neurocanal
Neurocardiac  Neurocell  Neuroceptor  Neurochemism
Neurochemistry  Neurochitin  Neurochorioretinitis  Neurochoroiditis
Neurocirculary  Neurocladism  Neuroclonic  Neurocoele
Neurocranial  Neurocranium  Neurocrinia  Neurocutaneous
Neurocyte  Neurocytology  Neurocytoma  Neurodegeneration
Neurodendrite  Neuroderm  Neurodermatitis  Neurodermatosis
Neurodiagnosis  Neurodokon  Neurodynamic  Neurodynia
Neurodystonia  Neuroelectrotherapeutics  Neuroencephalomyelopathy  Neuroendocrine system
Neuroenteric  Neuroepidermal  Neuroepithelial  Neuroepithelioma
Neuroepithelium  Neuroequilibrium  Neurofibril, neurofibrils
Neurofibrillosis  Neurofilament  Neurogangliitis  Neuroganglion
Neurogastric  Neurogen  Neurogenesis  Neurogenetic, neurogenous
Neuroglia  Neuroglial  Neurogliocyte  Neurogliocytoma
Neuroglioma  Neurogliomatosis  Neurogliosis  Neurography
Neurohematology  Neurohistology  Neurohormone  Neurohumor
Neurohumoralism  Neurohypophysisal physical  Neurohypophysis  Neuroid
Neuroinduction  Neuroinidia  Neuroinoma  Neuroinomatosis
Neurokeratin  Neurokinet  Neurokyme  Neurolabyrinthitis
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Neurotrophasthenia Neurotrophic Neurotrophine Neurotropic
Neurotropism Neurotrosis Neurotubule Neurovaccine
Neurovaricosity Neurovascular Neurovegetative Neurovirulence
Neurovirulent Neurovirus Neurovisceral Neurula
Neurulation Neururgic

(Hitti and Al-Khatib, 2006:282-5)

2.1.1.3. Linker Vowel

There is a spelling point should be noticed in the breaking down process. A vowel letter is used to separate two roots or more from each other or from a suffix in the same medical term. Usually, it is the vowel (o), but there are some rules and exceptions which can be taken into consideration when applying such a combining form (i.e. vowel "o") . When a word-root combines or joins with another root or a suffix, a vowel "o" needs to link between the two constituents e.g.
Cardiovascular = (cardi- "root 1" + linker "-o-" + -vascular "root2")
Neurology = (neur-"root" + linker "o" + -logy "suffix") .

When the medical loan contains two roots or more the linker vowel "o" is used even if the next root starts with a different vowel e.g. GastrOenterostomy .
When the suffix starts with a different vowel or a consonant letter an "o" needs to be used e.g. Cardiology . But if the suffix is initiated with the same vowel as the final vowel of the root, one of them should be deleted e.g. carditis not *carditits or *cardioitis .

Eventually, it is worthwhile to explain that the wisdom for using the linker vowel "o" is twofold: It helps the learners to separate between the elements of the term in order to understand their meanings on one hand. On the other hand, it helps the foreign students of English to pronounce easily the long complicated medical vocabularies, which are derived from other foreign languages as Greek and Latin.
2.1.1.4. Removing Affixation

The other strategy which may help the learners of English either ordinary English (i.e. EGP) or non-linguistic learners (i.e. ESP) is the procedure of removing affixation. By removing the prefixes and suffixes the students can assume the general idea or what the lexeme rounds about i.e. the closed meaning of the term. For example if we take the following word: "supernaturalization", we can do it in this way:

a) Removing a prefix "super-" remaining naturalization.

b) Removing the noun suffix "-tion" remaining verb naturalise.

c) Removing the verb suffix "-ise" remaining adjective natural.

d) Removing the adjective suffix "-al" remaining the base or the root "nature". 

Then, the student can guess or conclude that, the lexeme "supernaturalisation" is something about or related to "nature".

2.1.1.5. Eponyms

There are two major categories of medical terms:

a) Descriptive lexeme, which are concerned with describing shape, colour, size, functions, etc.

b) Eponyms: Literally means "putting a name upon". The latter has been to honour those who first discovered or described an anatomical structure or diagnosed a disease or first developed a medical instrument or procedure. Also, some term of this kind are named to indicate the source of a drug (i.e. named after the plant in which this drug is extracted) or the source of a disease e.g. animal (Ave, 2012:6).

In learning eponyms, it is useless to apply the strategies of "breaking down" or "removing affixation", memorization is the preferable process. Some examples of eponyms can be shown below:

**Ishihara test**: Named after its inventor this test is used to detect your ability to see colours.

**Vaccine**: From Latin "vacca" means cow the source of the disease, because the cowpox virus transmitted to man from cattle.

**Ephedrine**: A drug used in treatment of asthma. The name came from the source i.e. ephedra plant.

**Morphine**: From French "Morphens" ancient Roman god of sleep.

**Nicotine**: Named after a French diplomat (Jean Nicot), who first brought tobacco into France (Longman Advanced American Dictionary, 2007: 1036,74).

**Addison's disease**: Named after a physician, a disease due to under functioning of the adrenal glands characterised by low blood pressure, anemia, mythenia, gastric upsets and pigmentation of skin.

**Meniere's disease**: A disease of the inner ear characterised by attacks of vertigo.

**Parkinson's disease**: Paralysis resulting from loss of muscular control.
2.1.2. Approaches

There are several approaches which can be used in teaching/learning process of medical vocabulary, in brief, the next discuss will focus on the most important methods.

2.1.2.1. The Diagnostic Approach

Among the several methods designed and fruitfully applied, experience has shown that the diagnostic approach is one of the preferable methods to the rest of discovering communicative difficulties directly related to target-situation needs. A subject specific ESP programme like medical English can utilise the diagnostic approach where by the learners can taught directly in terms of the problems revealed by the diagnosis. Joan and Richard Allwright (1977: 60) suggest " a diagnostic approach can be used in the classrooms of medical learners to promote meaningful clinical problem – solving ". They add " vocabulary items are vital to a particular topic must be reading available to keep the process of communication going " (ibid).

2.1.2.2. A Generative Model of Medical Vocabulary Acquisition

The designers of this approach claim that it teaches a lot of things through little efforts. It is based on a) certain principles and b) carefully chosen language elements. These two categories can be explained in more details below:

A. Principles: (1) Learning to look analytically at word-form.
(2) Recognising the underlying stems through the application of the knowledge of affixation; recognizing the related forms and the changes resulting from affixation leading to corresponding differences in the syntactic function; developing word-analysis insights by manipulating prefix-root suffix elements.
(3) Discovering the meaning of the whole by an analysis of the parts; moving from word-analysis to word building i.e. from word to definition and from a given definition to building an appropriate word.
(4) Discovering the meaning of strange, unfamiliar elements/words by establishing meaningful association.

B. Elements: (1) Affixes producing grammatically classed words.
(2) General suffixes attached to a number of words, adding special meaning to the same radical;
(3) Combining forms used in the formation of compounded forms of specialist use;
(4) Carefully, selected root forms.

The model of the generative vocabulary will take the following operational procedure:
Stage I Memorisation of the selected roots and other word-elements (most of the memorisation will be reduced by developing skills of meaningful associations);

Stage II Identification of the elements making up the word, e.g. roots, stems, affixes etc.

Stage III Application analysis of the parts of a word leading to its definition; building words as per definitions given in 2.1.1.1.

Stage IV Generalisation producing word-forms not specifically learnt.

For Example, we can recognise the formative elements in the structure of a word, analyse the word-form into its component units, produce the meaning of each unit separately and then combine the root-affix meaning to arrive at its definition:

(a) INJECT In- = inside
    -ject = throw
    The full definition is to throw inside (to inject a syringe)

(b) OBJECT ob- = before, against
    -ject = throw
    It means to throw against (thrown before the mind)

(c) PROJECT Pro- = forward
    -ject = throw
    The combining of the two elements mean to throw forward (an image, plan, idea etc.)

(Khan, 1986: 162-5)

2.1.2.3. Using L1 in Teaching L2

Some new trends claim for the argument of using L1 in teaching L2, in some situations of language teaching, emphasising in teaching specialised English vocabulary (i.e. ESP vocabulary). Swan (1985: 96) claims that "the mother tongue is a central element in the process of learning a foreign language, why it is so conspicuously absent from the theory and methodology of communicative language teaching? Why is it so little attention paid, in this and other respects, to what learners already know?"

Chapman (1958:34) "an early defender of L1" argues "there is no open Method (with a capital M) which excels all others … plain commonsense should indicate that the mother-tongue has its place among these methods".

The learners of medical discipline handle a lot of ambiguous and complicated loans which are derived from foreign languages (Greek and Latin) before they arrive to English that means they pass through three languages Greek/Latin → into → English → then into → Arabic. Therefore, such learners necessarily need to be exposed to benefit from their mother-tongue, but this use should be controlled by the limitations of place and time (i.e.in particular settings). Atkinson (1993: 2) integrates communicative methodology with selective and limited use of L1. He notes: "It is impossible to talk of a right balance or a perfect model for using L1 … It is not
that simple. L1 can be a valuable resource if it is used at appropriate times and in appropriate ways.

Othman and Abdullah (2011: 6-7) observes four reasons for using L1 by Arab teachers of English: (a) for classroom management i.e. giving instruction to the student, maintaining discipline, etc (b) to elicit responses from students, (c) for explaining vocabulary / word meaning and grammar and (d) for error correction.

2.1.2.4. Collective Methods

The previous approaches are not the only tools which can be used in teaching or learning medical terminology. The practitioners of ESP as medical discipline can adopt and integrate other collective methods depending on the prerequisites of the contents of each topic in the prescribed textbooks or recommended references. Some selected methods can be utilised in teaching medical vocabulary, some of these methods can be summarised below:

Maclean (1975: 21) provides another angle to the study of vocabulary in medical texts.... she prefers to divide the subject according to "the compartments of the body, organs and systems" and to select vital terms there from in order to present vocabulary lists classified into grammatical categories like verbs, adjectives, prepositions etc, commonly used in relation to them. Maclean's suggestions point to a useful direction in the compilation of vocabulary lists. Brasnett (1976:58) presents "unfamiliar features of the kind of scientific English used in medical texts" and focuses upon both vocabulary and structure. He also provides lists of "useful and frequently occurring" terms in relation to "research in laboratories, general practice, hospitals, etc. Parkinson (1976:32) chooses case histories, as he believes they provide "a valuable teaching aid" from different departments like "chest, psychiatry, gynecology and pediatrics" for review and listing of vital medical terms.

3. Conclusion

As it has been pointed previously, this study investigates the difficulties encountered by ESP learners of medicine in understanding unfamiliar, long and complicated terminology. It provides modest insights for both learners and practitioners. In respect to the learning process, some strategies are displayed such as breaking down the terms into meaningful elements, then combining such constituents leading to comprehend the definition of the whole term, another strategy was explained that is identifying the word-parts (roots and affixes), also removing the additional parts pre-and post can help in understanding and learning new medical lexemes. Some terms cannot be broken down, they are considered as one mass, because they are named after persons, plants or animal, memorisation is the preferable procedure for learning such vocabularies. Regarding the teaching process, the most appropriate and effective approaches are
suggested such as diagnostic approach, generative model for acquisition medical vocabularies, using L1 in teaching L2 and other collective methods are provided.

References


Evaluation of the Writing and Communication skills course taught at Quaid-E-Awam University of Engineering, Science and Technology

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2. **Dr. Abdul Fattah Soomro**, PhD in TESOL from Leicester University, MSc in Educational Research from Manchester University and MA in English literature from Sindh University.
3. **Tariq Umrani**, Final year PhD student in University of Wales, MA in Applied linguistics & TESOL from Leicester University, and MA in English Literature.

**Abstract:** This study evaluated the current Writing and Communication Skills Course provided to assist students enrolled on the undergraduate engineering programme at Quaid-E-Awam University of Engineering Science, and Technology (QUEST), Sindh Pakistan. The questionnaire was used as a main tool of data collection to seek the perspectives of the currently enrolled final year students from Civil Engineering Department, and English teachers of English Language Centre (ELC). The present study explored the extent to which the Writing and Communication skills (WCS) course taught by ELC teachers met the academic literacy and learning needs of undergraduate students of QUEST. The course was evaluated from its two aspects: contents (themes and topic) and methodology (instructional approach, resources/materials, and assessment criteria). Findings based on the students’ scaled responses and open-ended responses and teachers open-ended responses by and large showed an agreement that the WCS course was falling short in meeting the needs of undergraduate students of QUEST both in terms of its contents and methodology.

1. **Introduction**

The most straightforward definition of English for Specific Purpose (ESP) is that it “describes language programmes designed for groups or individuals who are learning with an identifiable purposes and clearly specifiable needs” (Johnson & Johnson, 1998, p.105). ESP is an umbrella term that can be subdivided into English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP) courses. English for Academic Purposes can be further divided into English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP) and English for General Academic Purposes (EGAP). ESAP mainly focuses on the terminology, text types and tasks required for competence in a specific academic discipline, whereas EGAP courses enable students to attain command over basic and transferable academic needs. Figure 1 below provides an overview of different types of ESP:
Therefore, there has been some debate in recent years as to the relative value and applicability of general academic and specific academic purposes for particular groups of learners and teaching contexts. Some researchers believe that EGAP courses are more appropriate for developing general academic literacy skills in pre-degree programmes and for classes of students from different disciplines (Spack, 1988; Johns, 2005; Wette & Lessels, 2010). Others point out that differences between disciplines mean that students, particularly at more advanced levels of study, need to learn language and skills that are specific to their discipline (Huckin, 2003; Hyland, 2002; Robinson, 1980). The development of an ESP course can be seen as dependent on five main elements: the concept of specialized language, rhetorical or discourse analysis, target situation analysis, skills and strategies, and the learning centered approach (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987). Since the learning centered approach focuses on the learners’ needs at the course design stage as well as throughout the course, assessing learners’ needs and using authentic materials to meet their language needs are vital aspects of ESP courses.

Consequently, a significant body of literature claims that the greatest contributions of ESP to language teaching are authenticity and needs assessment (Bhatia 1986; Dudley-Evans & John 1998; Hutchinson & Waters 1987; Jordan 1997; Mackay & Mountford 1978; Munby 1978; Nunan 1988; Robinson 1991; West 1998). The concept of authenticity is related to the idea that the main consideration in an ESP course must be authenticity in terms of the texts and tasks used (West, 1998). Since authentic texts are directly related to the professional interests of ESP students, they will be more likely to motivate the students in order to perform effectively in their target situation. It is also recommended that authentic tasks that are the real life project-based studies related to learners’ field of study should be used in ESP courses, as they are a good way of preparing students for actual professional applications (Spaulding, 1992).
2. Rationale for the study

Quaid-E-Awam University of Engineering, Science and Technology (QUEST), is a public sector university located in the Southern Pakistan where I have been working as a lecturer in English for the last four years. The medium of instruction at the university is essentially English, and students attending the courses are expected to have sufficient knowledge of English on entry to perform well in their professional academic life. The university offers students compulsory English courses to augment their English language knowledge and communication skills to meet their academic and professional needs. An English Language Centre (ELC) has been established as an independent section in the university with five lecturers and two English language laboratories for the purpose teaching practical lessons in English.

At QUEST, as with other universities in Pakistan, many students are of low-proficiency in English. As a result, the majority of students fail their major papers, and those who pass somehow do not get jobs related to their fields, since they lack communication skills essential for any public or private industry or organization (Mansoor, 2005 and Siddiqui, 1994). The English language course Writing and Communication Skills (WCS) taught at undergraduate level is perceived as more a course in English for General Academic Purposes (EGAP) than a course in English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP) that focuses on the particular academic literacy needs of engineering students. There is no prescribed textbook (set-text) for the English course, and a number of students have expressed dissatisfaction with their proficiency in English both during and after completing their engineering studies.

One factor that may contribute to students’ English inadequate level of proficiency is the quality of the English language curriculum offered at the university as the syllabus for courses offered at the ELC have not been developed on the basis of an analysis of the English language needs of the undergraduate engineering students. Evaluating the current curriculum against the needs of students would therefore be a way of identifying more precisely where changes need to be made and, as a number of writers point out, should in fact be the first step in designing any ESP syllabus (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Nunan, 1988). Thus, the present study examines the syllabus used on the English course (WCS) currently offered at QUEST to evaluate the extent to which course meets the specific academic literacy and learning needs of the students.

3. The Context and Participants

The study was carried out at a public sector Quaid-E-Awam University of Engineering, Science and Technology, Sindh, Pakistan. The participants in the study were students and English lecturers at QUEST. The number of student participants was 60 final-year undergraduate engineering students and all four English lecturers from ELC of the university volunteered to participate in the research. The study used questionnaires for both teachers and student -
participants as a main research instrument. The students’ questionnaire was based on 10 Likert-scale items and three open ended items. In 10 Likert scale items, students were given chance to self-assess on the language skills they needed, and the extent to which the WCS course they took in their first year met their needs as engineers. In the final part of the questionnaire, three open-ended items gave students a chance to comment in their own words about the WCS course, and suggest any changes in the course to make it compatible to the needs of engineering students. Teachers’ questionnaire consisted of just three open-ended items about the WCS course, its content and methodology. Teachers were asked about their views on the present English course: if they were satisfied that the course was meeting the needs of undergraduate engineering students, and if they would like to see any changes implemented. The present study, thus, explored the extent to which the Writing and Communication skills (WCS) course taught by ELC teachers met the academic literacy and learning needs of undergraduate students of QUEST.

Findings of the study

3.1. Student-participants’ views about the WCS course

Students’ views on course contents and instructional approaches

Table 1: Items on students’ assessment of the WCS course

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item No</th>
<th>Assessment of WCS course</th>
<th>Responses to the First Two Levels of value (A and SA) (n=60)</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>The WCS course was helpful for my engineering studies</td>
<td></td>
<td>13</td>
<td>21.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>The Writing and Communication Skills (WCS) course at the ELC should focus mainly on improving general academic skills (not just skills that are related to engineering).</td>
<td></td>
<td>19</td>
<td>31.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>The WCS course helped me to improve my knowledge of English in the field of engineering.</td>
<td></td>
<td>15</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>The Writing and Communication Skills (WCS) course at the ELC should focus mainly on language and skills related to engineering studies.</td>
<td></td>
<td>57</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>I prefer WCS teachers to just give us knowledge about English through formal lectures</td>
<td></td>
<td>9</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>I prefer participating actively in group and pair tasks in English classes.</td>
<td></td>
<td>53</td>
<td>88.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Two Levels of value are “Agree” (A) and “Strongly Agree” (SA)
Table 1 show that most students were dissatisfied with both the content and instructional approaches of the WCS course. The majority of student-participants disagreed that the course helped them in their engineering studies; however, regarding course content, the students wanted their course to have focused on language skills specific to engineering; however, the course was more focused on general academic literacy skills. A large number of participants (57/95%) expected from WCS course to have contained topics on language related skills that could have helped them in their engineering studies. Regarding the instructional approaches, students saw little value in traditional approaches course followed in teaching language skills. On the other hand, a large number of participants (53/88.3%) showed a great desire for participating in group or pair tasks: a fundamental feature of the communicative approach to language teaching, which is the optimum approach for an ESP course.

Three open-ended items gave students opportunity to make more detailed answers. They commented about course content and instructional approaches of the WCS course. In item 1 students were asked to point out the parts of the course helped them in meeting their academic literacy and learning needs as engineers. Fifty-three (88.3%) of the students regarded the contents and methodology for the listening and speaking skills part of the course as the most helpful parts for them in their engineering studies, while reading and writing were seen as less helpful in terms of their content and instructional approach. In their comments on which parts (contents and methodology) students considered helpful in listening and speaking skills, one student wrote that:

“…..listening for gist and detail comprehension was of great help……I liked listening to audio tapes in audio lab of ELC, practicing through listening to the conversations of native speakers helped me develop listening for my classes……for speaking skills we used to watch videos on VCR and CD players from the native English context … I liked the videos on presentation skills, and interviews……”

Many students liked the role-plays used by the teachers to practice interviewing and presentation skills. However, some thought that practicing interviewing skills in their first year of studies was not appropriate. One of the students was of the view that:

“…..although it was quite hard for many students to come before audience and present, I enjoyed the part of lecture when teacher used to ask us to come forward for role-plays to practice interview and presentation skills…mock interview was quite helpful….but I think it was too early to learn interview skills in firs year… for me it is important to know more about the interviews now as I am about to finish my studies after this semester..I have forgotten everything what we learnt in first year about interview…”
The small number of participants, who liked the reading and writing components of the course, commented favourably on the list of topics for both reading and writing. However, these students seem less happy about the instructional approaches used on the course. One student commented that:

“I liked the list of topics in syllabus on reading and writing for example on reading for details, skimming, scanning, surveying the text…on writing we had cv writing, letter writing, minutes of meeting..these were good for learning as professional engineers, but these were not taught the way they should be…for example I know the definition of skimming but I cannot skim the text…so it was all theory based not practical….”

The second item on the questionnaire asked the student-participants to comment on the parts of the WCS course they considered were not helpful in meeting their literacy and professional learning needs. At least 43(66.6%) of the students described aspects of the content of the course, and 49(81.6%) students commented on instructional approaches. Regarding the content of the WCS course, a majority of students commented negatively about the distribution of topics of the course. They point out that the course was more focused on future professional needs of undergraduate needs rather than meeting their immediate literacy needs in the first year studies. One student mentioned:

“I think the course included the topics that I need now in my final year not in my first year …to learn language skills to help me in future job hunting needs such as interviewing, cv writing, job application writing….as we don’t have another course in English so we may face lot of difficulties in future for these skills…”

Many students criticized the course methodology. Forty nine (81%) students were of the opinion that handouts for reading and writing skills were neither helpful nor interesting. They were critical of the lack of any textbook for the course. Many of students were not happy with having a traditional paper-based exam, which they believed did not truly assess their abilities in language skills. Regarding the class activities, the majority of students showed a great deal of dissatisfaction with the instructor’s formal lectures, and stated that they would have preferred to have group discussions. In his comments one student wrote:

“….I don’t feel happy about handouts given to us, these used to be either borrowed from other universities or downloaded from internet,…also in handouts there were no examples only theory was given which did not help me in understanding many topics… I think we needed a textbook which includes lot of topics in it…I believe for university students a three hour paper base exam is waste of time and energies of students in cramming the topics covered throughout the semester..I prefer MCQs instead of lengthy paper…I don’t like at all teacher formally delivering a lecture for one hour and students
get less chance to participate in discussion….I like a class where students have maximum chance to participate in groups or pairs its good for learning I think…."

All in all, the great majority of students disagreed that the WCS course that they took in their first year helped them in their engineering studies or prepared them to get jobs after graduation.

The third and last open-ended item on the questionnaire asked students to suggest improvements they would like to see implemented in the WCS course. A large number of students 56 (93.3%) suggested improvements to both the content and instructional approach of the WCS course. For example, students suggested increasing the instruction time for the English language course, or dividing the current course into two language courses by equally distributing its contents for academic literacy and professional learning skills. They also recommended for adopting a reputable textbook. They would have preferred their instructors to teach interactively, rather than through traditional lecture-based approaches.

With regard to the assessment criteria of the WCS course, students recommended a new approach which could truly assess their language skills rather than using traditional paper-based exam. Regarding the classroom activities, students suggested providing more authentic examples to illustrate theories to make language learning more efficient and durable. One student was of the view that:

“…I think one course in English in four years of study is not sufficient for an engineer, I therefore suggest for more English courses or at least one English course may be included in the final year of our study with one at first year, so that final year student can get refreshing ideas about communication skills which are required after completion of degree…."

Another student suggested an alternative to loose handouts and changes in the assessment criteria:

“I believe if handouts are replaced with text book containing all the topics for the course, it will help students and also teachers…..my next suggestion is to kindly change the exam pattern, for me a three hour theory exam was very stressful…I like multiple option based exam…”

Another student suggested on instructional approach in these words:

“for me it is difficult to understand a topic which is told in theory only, I understand the concept better if I am given some examples which can explain me what the topic is really about…I therefore would suggest to my English lecturers to kindly use more examples and less theory in teaching the difficult concepts of communication skills”
Overall, a large number of student-participants suggested some very helpful suggestions for the improvement of the currently taught WCS course from the point of view of its contents and instructional approach it used.

**Students’ self-assessment of their current level of English**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item No</th>
<th>Students’ self assessment of their level of English</th>
<th>Responses to the First Two Levels of value (A and SA) (n=60)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Looking at my achievement in engineering studies at QUEST, I think I have very good English language knowledge and skills.</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>English language skills are <strong>not</strong> very important for success in engineering studies at QUEST.</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>English is very important for getting a job as an engineer.</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>If my English was better, I would find my engineering studies easier.</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Two Levels of value are “Agree” (A) and “Strongly Agree” (SA)

The results show that a large number of students were not satisfied with their current level of English, and that they regarded English as essential for success in engineering studies at QUEST and for getting a job in the future. They believed that if their skills in English had been better, they would have been more successful in their engineering studies.

### 3.2. **Teacher-participants views about the WCS course**

The second source of data for answering the second research question on WCS course evaluation was the views of teachers collected through open-ended questionnaire items. The responses to teacher were analysed qualitatively due to the small number of respondents.

Item No 4 on their questionnaire asked teacher-participants to respond to what extent they believed the WCS course offered through ELC was meeting the academic literacy and learning needs of their students. In their comments, all four teachers pointed out that the staffing allocation for the WCS course was inadequate. It was perhaps the reason these teacher believed that too many topics on professional learning skills had been included in the communication
skills course and not enough on academic literacy skills, based on the assumption that students already had good background knowledge of language structures. Insaf was of opinion that:

“Keeping in view the varying needs of these undergraduate engineering students it is difficult to predict that WCS course is meeting their needs…As it is the only English course in four year program that these students are offered, we therefore focus more on the future needs than the current needs, it is the reason the topics included in the course are more inclined towards the future professional needs rather than their current needs…we expect from our students to have sufficient knowledge about English language…our target is to enable these students to have sufficient skills to get jobs in future.”

Item 5 asked respondents to comment on the instructional approaches they used in teaching the WCS course, including the resources, materials, activities and tasks. In their responses, teachers pointed out that although the format of teaching they used was predominately lecture-based, they made their lectures communicative by using role-plays, mock meetings, and other similar types of tasks. Inayat responded to the question in these words:

“Although the objective of the course is to make the students communicatively competent both in oral and written forms, the course is more focused on theoretical rather than practical aspect of language. The teachers here, however, make utmost efforts to make the course as much interactive as possible. For instance, the teachers conduct dummy meetings where students are asked to take minutes; they are made to visit another department and asked to come up with a report based on personal observations, mock interviews are conducted to practice interviews etc.”

Regarding resources and materials Tariq wrote:

“No specific textbook is used for teaching the students. Instead, we normally use supplementary material and design our own material, with help from multifarious resources like internet, newspapers, different books on language, etc. These materials are used as handouts and lectures are delivered via multimedia”

The sixth and last item on questionnaire asked respondents to give their suggestions improvements in the WCS course. Three teachers suggested increasing the number of English courses from one to at least two, in order to create a balance in topics between literacy and learning skills. However, one teacher was of the view that before any significant changes were proposed, a comprehensive needs analysis needed to be carried out in all nine engineering departments, involving all fourth year students and their instructors. With regard to the instructional approach including resources and activities/tasks, all four teachers suggested that
the course WCS would be more effectively taught if the theoretical lectures were made as more interactive by using a communicative language teaching approach. Mansoor was of the view that the WCS course could be improved if it followed a communicative/ESP approach and if course content took account of the needs of the industries:

“Being predominantly theoretical, the course needs to be made a little practical. For example, in addition to teaching students about the components of a report or kinds of letters, they should be made to actually write such reports and letters to give them practical expertise. Moreover, students should be introduced with current and contemporary types of communication through letters / reports. There should be liaison between course designers and Industry so that courses can be updated as per needs of the Engineering Industry”.

In his suggestions, Inayat pointed out that the assessment criteria for WCS course also needed to be changed as they are not an appropriate way to assess the skills of engineering students on 3-hour paper based exam. In his words:

“Although, the course needs a lot of changes keeping view the needs and requirements of the students and their varying needs my first suggestion would be for the improving on the paper based exam which is the cause of de-motivation among students”

4. Discussions

Regarding the content of the WCS course, student-participants stated that they would have preferred their course to have focused on language skills specific to engineering; however, the course was more focused on general academic literacy skills such as teaching of grammar and tenses through traditional methods. They expected the WCS course to have included topics on language related skills that could have helped them in their engineering studies. However, the course was more focused on the professional learning needs in the beginning year of studies when it had to have focused on literacy skills because of students’ limited academic literacy skills to facilitate them in their studies. Teachers agreed with the students concern that the WCS course should emphasise professional learning needs more. They went on to state that as it was the only academic literacy course in the four year engineering programme they wanted students to have more knowledge of professional skills, which could facilitate them in their future endeavours as professionals. Student participants reported a series of problems with the course contents and organisation that were similar to the ones reported in the study by Artemeva et al (1999). In both courses apparently poor organisation, lack of any clear focus, and an absence of a coordinated structure for the ongoing development of professional students were reported.
Regarding the instructional approaches, students saw little value in a traditional course that taught language skills in a traditional way. A large number of participants showed a great desire for participating in group or pair tasks which is the fundamental feature of the communicative approach to language teaching, a proposed approach for ESP course (Strevens, 1977). Teachers too in their responses agreed with students on instructional approaches to language learning, and were of the opinion that this was because a suitable textbook was not being used. However, the teachers believed that they had tried their best in applying a communicative approach through role-plays, group discussion, mock interviews, and by using the overhead projector, audio-visual aids and by extracting handouts from different sources such as internet, newspapers, and magazines to make the learning more interactive. The findings of the present study to an extent show similarity with the earlier studies on applicability of CLT in the context of Pakistan and elsewhere by (Hawkey, 2006; Karim, 2004; Mangubai et al., 1998; Pham, 2007). These studies all suggest that, in general, EFL teachers look favourably at the use of communicative approach in teaching a second language.

Another significant aspect of WCS course methodology which was criticized by student and teacher-participants was the assessment criteria used on the WCS. They were of the opinion that the criteria used to assess students’ performance on a three-hour paper-based exam were not true a representative strategy for assessing students’ language abilities. They believed it was demotivating for students, as they had to memorise the whole syllabus used on WCS course, which was tedious and frustrating. According to Hughes (1989) if the content and technique of a test are at variance with the objectives of the course, this has a negative effect or backwash. This is an important consideration in contexts where examinations play a dominant role (Prodromou, 1995). Both student and teacher-participants in the present study suggested alternatives that included as multiple choice exams and exams which could apply analytical strategies in assessing skills. ESP tests, according to Basturkmen & Elder (2004), should serve a more homogeneous population (e.g., a group of students, doctors, engineers or business managers), more often than not performance-based, in the sense that they involve test-takers in actively using the language to achieve particular communicative functions rather than simply displaying their linguistic knowledge. They tend also to be more narrowly focused with tasks designed to simulate the demands of particular real-world situations (ibid). Findings of the present study with regard to assessment criteria echo the study by Khan (2007) in the Needs Analysis context of Pakistan where he calls for examination reforms so that they measuring students’ language skills rather than cause frustration for them.

Students were asked to self-evaluate their proficiency level in English against the WCS course they took in their first year; to identify at what extent the course met their literacy and learning needs. The results revealed that students strongly agreed on the necessity of the English course for success in their engineering studies and professional lives. These participants also believed that the content of the vocational English course and its course material should reflect
the content of the core courses in their engineering studies. The overall picture of participants’ perceptions of the WCS course made the researcher sure of the course’s value for the participants. In addition, there is a general tendency of the participants to believe that the course should reflect the content-courses from engineering. Further, students needed English for their studies and professional purposes. This aspect of the study findings at large shows similarity with the study in engineering context by (Hulst & Jensen, 2002), which found that type of study activities, instruction and examination characteristics all affected the progress of engineering students. This implies that institutes in higher education in engineering may improve their student’s progress to some extent by means of efficient curriculum organisation (ibid).

5. Conclusion and Recommendations

Keeping in view the suggestion of Hutchison and Waters (1987) that it is important to consider professional/occupational needs of learners while designing a specific course, it is suggested that results of this study should be utilized for guiding inclusion of such material in the curricula which may help learners meet both their learning (academic, current) and target (occupational, future) needs.

Regarding the equal distribution of content of the WCS course on academic literacy and professional learning skills, the WCS course, which focuses predominantly on professional learning skills and is taught in the first-year of four-year undergraduate programme, could be divided into two separate course: one in the first year of the study based on academic literacy skills and the other on the professional learning needs of students in the final-year of students’ engineering programme. Kaewpet (2009) in the context of Thai civil engineering is also of the view that it is crucial to add more professional English courses to engineering programmes and to conduct further research to predict learners’ needs as specifically as possible. Those needs can then be more efficiently satisfied in the ESP courses (ibid).

A further implication relates to one aspect of the methodology used on the WCS course vis-à-vis assessment criteria (i.e. the way the exam is assessed – the marking guide, tasks used for assessment). Current assessment criteria at QUEST for assessing the language skills of the students do not resemble those used for ESP tests recommended in the ESP literature, and both students and their teachers expressed their concern over the current theoretical exam based on a three-hour paper. Therefore, changing the assessment criteria used on the WCS course keeping in view the suggested principles of ESP tests mentioned in the (section 2.1 in chapter II) of this study is necessary in order to bring the relevance and specificity needed for an ESP course.

The WCS course should also use the teaching materials, resources and instructional approaches according to the prescribed features for a standard ESP course in literature.
According to the general view on language teaching and learning, the content of a syllabus deals with the subject matter to be taught in a course. Markee (1984) defines ESP as an approach to organizing English language programmes in such a way that the content of the courses offered is relevant to the specific needs of specific groups of learners. In this sense, teaching materials have to portray the students' specific subject-matter and their needs. This will help them with defined eventualities in the future. The materials intended for a particular group of learners has to be demanding and challenging to sustain and maintain motivation and interest among the learners.

References


ROLE OF NEWSPAPER IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

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Abstract: Over the last three decades, major changes have taken place in the English language teaching methods, especially in second and foreign language learning scenario. This paper aims at analyzing the importance of usage of newspaper and magazines in the classroom and finding the ways on how to use print media. The classroom becomes a multidimensional environment. It is difficult for the teachers to manage this multidimensional environment. It is essential for them to make the students able to use the newspaper and at the same time deal with other activities such as researching for information from books and magazines. The following issues are open for discussion: the importance of media in general and education in particular; media are persuasive and pervasive, example newspapers and magazines. The possibilities of interactive or 'student-centered' approaches to teach writing skills in English through newspaper and I review basic procedures common in English Language Teaching to design tasks for literary study will be discussed. Such tasks I suggest, newspapers can definitely supplement the traditional lectures.

Keywords: Teaching English, use of print media, newspapers, language acquisition.

Introduction:

Newspapers in the classroom:

Newspapers is considered as a great source of learning language and it also provides industry materials for variety of people especially for students i.e., sports column, education column, cultural activities column, historical and geographical columns as well. The language used in newspaper is day to day language with all idiomatic expressions of that culture. We have various language styles which are not found in textbooks we can analyze the newspapers in the various ways – for academic writing, as the text for semantics and the stylistics. The real life events arouse student’s curiosity and they not only provide knowledge, but give a practical way of indulging students in learning language.
Newspapers can be designed in such a way to develop reading comprehension, grammatical skills & Vocabulary skills, writing skills and critical analysis. Newspapers can be organized based on the skills that is needed to impart in the classroom. The length of the article, the time allotted, and student’s capability to understand the density of the material should be considered before choosing the text. Most of the people generally read regional newspapers as they are easy to understand and the comprehension papers like Deccan Chronicle, The Hindu and various English Magazines and papers etc., provides literary and non-literate material. Through internet various newspapers can be browsed. Certain things that we have to keep in mind are:

- If the article is lengthy it may take more time through which the pupil may lose interest.
- If the students like the topic they get motivated and it would be easy to teach them.
- The task should be devised in a systematic way to make it even more interesting.
- Weather forecast, advertisements, headlines can be glanced quickly and students will not be self conscious.
- Some time photographs and illustrations published in newspapers can also be useful to conduct activities among the students especially, group discussions, describing object and situations with the help of that particular image.

If not the whole time at least a part of a time are as activity for communication skill newspapers can serve as cheapest material available for reading. It mainly develops reading skills and also the other skills like writing, speaking and listening skills which may be grasped at the same time.

Certain pre-activity tasks can foster the learning of the students, when we especially give the material for them in hand as a means of home work to pick up the skills next day, especially vocabulary task. Then as the class begins the next day students can arrive at the meaning and brain storming method can be used effectively for this purpose. Students can expect the meaning based on the context can and suggest the alternative titles that can be used and when questions are asked. They can quickly have a glance to arrive at the meaning and thus the newspaper activities are multi-dimensional. Students can learn the new vocabulary from the photo stories, movie pictures, famous faces, literary columns, classifying acts, jobs interviews, T.V. guidelines, horoscopes, weather predictions gives various sites in which language can be used effectively for various purposes across the world.

Vocabulary can be taught in the class room with the help of newspapers. Reading newspapers make the students to be updated with the currents events at the same time academically they can develop command on the vocabulary. All the vocabulary needed may not be found in the newspapers but the related words around a particular word should be taken and pair work should be given to predict the meaning using dictionary and asked them to find out the antonym and synonym for that particular word. Various forms of that particular word as adjective, verb, noun
forms can be looked into. Students should attempt to make their own sentences of the particular word chosen.

The lexical text and the grammar exponents as reported speech, sentence style can be examined. We should also test if the text is suitable for

1. Role play
2. Discussion and
3. Pair work

- At the first reading students should simply be advised to read the text at the stretch quickly to grasp the gist of the text.
- In the second reading they should understand the main argument or main focus of the article and it should be read in detail to understand the article. Transformation of the information is also possible in the deep understanding. For example, if a table is given it can be written in the running matter.
- Follow up is necessary and a role play can be design to discuss the topic and debate on it, comparison activities and critical analysis improves the thinking power of the student. The first task necessary to it is:

  a. The appropriate topic
  b. The text material suitable for the age
  c. The length that suits to the time of class allotted

The following is the exercise for practice made to illustrate for better understanding:

**Activity - I: Exercise given to the student for practice:**

1. **Read the following paragraph and identify 3 new vocabulary words and write its meaning.**
2. **Identify antonyms and synonyms of any 3 words from the following paragraph.**

   “There are advantages in early rising. It gives good start for work and a lot of work can be done well. The early riser can have time to do morning exercise, which gives energy to last until the evening. He can do the work leisurely and will have time to rest. Early rising is conducive to health. Some great thinkers feel that good work can be turned out only after midnight. But working late hours leads to ill-health. The damage done to health in the long run has a bad effect on the quality work done”.
Activity – II: Response from the Students:
Vocabulary:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>New Words</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.Conducive</td>
<td>Making it easy, possible.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.Leisurely</td>
<td>With no particular activity or free time.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.Exercise</td>
<td>Physical or mental activity that you do to stay healthy or become strong.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Antonyms & Synonyms:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vocabulary</th>
<th>Antonym</th>
<th>Synonym</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Early</td>
<td>First</td>
<td>Late</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Good</td>
<td>Fair</td>
<td>Bad</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Advantage</td>
<td>Benefit</td>
<td>Disadvantage</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Activity –III:

✓ Feedback has to be given by the teacher to the students based on their performance.

Conclusion:
Students get motivated and they feel confident to deal with day to day life, as the newspapers connect their lives with their surroundings, and this is the more practical method and the change can prove more effective, especially in developing the vocabulary, synonyms, antonyms, guessing the meaning based on the context, homonyms, homophones and homographs for effective language speaking and writing.

Reference:

Translatability of Pun Words in Hafiz’s Poetry

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Abstract: Authentic literary language is distinguished mainly by its rich use of literary devices. Literary devices as integral parts of literary language not only convey meaning but also function as aesthetic elements. Translatability of literary devices is an issue of contention. Addressing the problem of translatability of pun words as a major literary device, the writer investigates the translatability of Hafiz’s puns in the two well-known translations of Hafiz’s poems by Wilberforce Clarke (1891) and Bicknell (1875). As far as translations of Hafiz’s poems are concerned, they are not as eloquent as they should be. Avery and Heath-Stubbs (1952) maintain that the form of Hafiz’s poems and the subtleties that they enjoy in Persian have changed a lot in the translated version, to the effect that translated poems “don’t make Hafiz his own poet”. In this study, the strategies the two translators have used in translating Hafiz’s pun words into English are analyzed. Based on the findings of the study, the writer suggests the best strategy for translating pun words. The results demonstrate that to translate denotative as well as connotative meaning can serve the intended author’s meaning and this is best done through translating poetry in to prose.

Key words: Pun; Pun and translation; poem; Hafiz; translation strategies

1. Introduction

This article intends to identify the most accurate translations of the pun words and multiplicity of meanings in Hafiz’s poems and to determine the successful translators to render the puns he employed. Hafiz became famous in the west through the translations of his poems, so it is important to consider the subtle aesthetic features which are closely tied to the meaning in his poems. Here we choose two well-known translations of Hafiz, the first one is by Wilberforce Clark (1891) and the other is by Bicknell (1875). The interpretations and meaning of couplets and words based on which we assess pun translations are derived from the book "Interpretation of One Hundred Ghazals of Hafiz" by Mohammadali Zibaee (1988).
1.1 Statement of the problem

English readers became familiar to hafiz poems a little late, since the first translations of Hafiz into English were published in eighteen century. Two centuries later, translators like William Jones, Ghon Nutt, Herman BickNell, Wilberforce Clarke, Gertrude Lowthian Bell, Walter Leaf, and Arthur J. Arberry, translated Hafiz’s poems into English. Herawi (1997) believes that although lots of interpretations of Hafiz is presented, his poems are full of mystery. He uses lots of literary devices such as: simile, metaphor, apostrophe and pun which make his poems somehow untranslatable. For translator there are some problems facing these devices: the first problem is how to understand and interpret his mystical poems with divine message and extralinguistic elements, for example whether the love motif he applies is of earthly love or divine love or both, this is a matter of interpretation. The second problem is how to translate wordplays, that is to say, words with multiple meanings. G signifies gloss translation. For example:

بیوی نافه ای کا خر صبا زان طره پگشائید
ز تاب جعد مشکینش چه خون افتاد در دلها

In the above couplet, "جعد" or "tress" means curly hair and can take three different meanings: First one, its denotative meaning, is the perfumed curly hair of the beloved; the second, denotative, meaning is dark curly hair of the beloved and the third, connotative, meaning is the twisted and difficult path of reaching divine beloved or God.

So, the ambiguities and multiple layers of meaning make the understanding of puns difficult. The translator should have a complete mastery over these devices and be an expert in the target and source language to transfer them accurately.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Hafiz and pun translation

Persian poetry cultivation began in the late eighteenth century in England (Yohannan, 1977). Everyone agrees on Hafiz to be the greatest poet of all times. “Of the poetical production of Persian literature, none have a wider circulation or greater celebrity than the lyrical poems of Hafiz. His popularity is spread far beyond the bounds of his own country” (Robinson, 1976, p. 385). Despite Hafiz’s fame, his translated poems are not as qualified as they should be. Avery and Heath-Stubbs (1952, p. 15) believe that the form of Hafiz’s poem and it’s subtleties has changed a lot in the translated version and that translated poems that “don’t make Hafiz his own poet”. Wilberforce Clarke (1891), one of the greatest translators of Hafiz who for the first time translated Hafiz into English prose, claims about Hafiz style:
The style is effulgent, dazzling, finished, concise; the loss of a word is the loss of beauty. It is clear, unaffected, harmonious, displaying great learning, matured knowledge, an intimate acquaintance with the nature (outward and inward) of things, and a certain fascination of expression unequalled by any….In music and eloquence, the strains of Hafiz are without equal in Persian literature (p. xxv).

So, this eloquent style, as stated by Wilberforce Clarke, should be part of his translated poems, which is a rather impossible task for the translator. It is not possible to reproduce the effects of Persian meters (Avery & Heath-Stubbs, 1952). Therefore, keeping meter and rhyme, style and structure and meaning and semantic features all together is very difficult.

In addition to these problems, As Alaiee (1973) mentions Hafiz's poems are very difficult to understand even for Persian speaking people. His mystical poems are all full of imagery, allusion, alliteration, pun and other literary devices. Rendering all of its divine themes and mysticism and its poetic subtleties which are partly culture-bound or related to his religion, Islam, or transferring the complex concept of Sufism in another language is a painstaking process. Translators have tried hard to somehow compensate for such an enormous cultural and religious gap in different ways; but none of them were completely successful. Jones (2000,2002) lists some problems for poetry translation which include transferring form, communicating a text which target readers may not be familiar with, finding publishers and so on.

There have been plenty of his poems especially his ghazels, a short lyrical poem, into other languages in prose or verse and literary or free forms. Wilberforce Clarke, whose translations of Hafiz are in prose, declares that: “To render Hafiz in verse, one should be a poet at least equal in power to the author. Even then it would be well nigh impossible to clothe Persian verse with such an English dress as would truly convey its beauties” (1983, p. viii); however, he adds that giving a perfect literal translation of Hafiz is not possible too. This literalness is achieved by not explicating meaning for the reader. As Boase-Beier (2006) states poetry should allow inferences for the reader.

To motivate reader’s inferences a poet should use some devices. One of the frequently used devices by poets in this respect is pun. Pun is intentionally using a word with more than one meaning, all of which are applicable or inferred from that specific context. Hafiz, as a great poet uses this device too. The crucial issue for the translators here is how to convey these multilayered words in another language without spoiling its beauty by explicating. For instance according to Zanganeh, as he stated in the foreword of Poems of Hafiz (Ordoubadian, 2006) the repeated and central theme of love through Hafiz’s Divan has two layers of meaning: one is divine and spiritual love and the other is worldly and mundane love. So, the reader of the poem
interprets the poem according to his own knowledge and infers one or both meanings. Every translator transfers these pun words in his own way; this is also true about Hafiz’s translations. This deliberate ambiguity should be preserved in translation if it’s contextually motivated and it’s practical through the use of formal equivalence (Hatim & Munday, 2004).

3. **Poetry translation especially Hafiz translation**

There has been a bulk of study on the issue of poetry translation and specifically translation of Hafiz’s mystical poems and rendering its different literary poetic devices in another language; yet the pun translation in Hafiz poems is almost an intact area for research and few investigations has been done in this topic.

According to Ghaderi (2003) some experts like Jakobson believe that poetry is untranslatable; yet others like I.A.Richards or Ogden reject this idea. He adds that the latter group claim that it is the nonlinguistic and content of the poem which is transferred in poetry translation not the form, so translating poem is possible. Poetry is the most vulnerable type in literary translation (Dad, 1973, p. 31). Dad asserts that the spirit and color of the poem disappears if we render the virtual and non-linguistic language of the poem to a simple one and explicate it, and uses the analogy of a solved riddle for an explicated poem.

Jafari Parsa (1973) believes that it’s impossible to translate a poem with all of its crucial and interlinked elements which include: rhythm and rhyme, imagery, the poet’s cognition, poetry’s area and other elements like social environment, historical era and local dialect of the poem. He adds that a literary translator should be very creative. Creativity in poetry and literary translation has always been emphasized by many experts.

For Newmark (2004) translation of poetry is “creation of a new independent poem” and he believes there are many divergences in a good poetry translation. He then suggests literal translation as a possible solution. If the translator isn’t creative in using language, the poetic effect, especially the form, is lost and the intended reader can’t enjoy the aesthetic elements embedded in the source text. This creativity, depending on the target text reader or the source text purpose or translator’s preferences, involves applying some shifts or changes or even maintaining the source text form.

Jafari Parsa (1973) suggest four essential elements of poetry proposed by I.A.Richards should be transferred in translation which include: 1) sense 2) feeling 3) tone 4) Intention. He describes Ezra Pound’s approach to poetry translation as being adaptation. So, the translator should feel free to apply any changes for desired effect.
In this respect, in poetry translation, scholars have used different stand points in the cline between literal and free translation. This decision making, to make your way clear, is part of translator’s profession. Ghaderi (2003) states that some translators use compensation technique especially in dealing with words with multiple layers of meaning. This characteristic of a word which has more than one meaning other than its literal meaning is called “pun” in literature and is very challenging for translators mostly because it’s specific to each language.

These double-meaning words exist in all languages and have been tackled in varying ways by different translators in the course of history. Some only transfer the semantic meaning of the word; while others consider all its possible contextual meanings. In poetry there are more limitations for the translator such as form, rhyme and sense together with the lack of enough space which oblige them to use some techniques such as footnotes for mentioning other layers of meaning of a word. This technique has been used by some translators; while in recent years they’ve tried not to use footnotes as far as possible.

As Ekhtiar claims, “semantics is the major problem in applying a scientific method to literature” (1971, p. 3). He then adds that the relation between lexicology and semantics is a branch of poetics and that a word can have one meaning or different words can have the same meaning. These layers of meanings exist in all languages. For example the pronoun “she” in English has at least 2 levels of meanings: the first is third person singular and the second is its gender which is female. The Farsi equivalent pronoun for both “she” and “he” is “oo” which is not gender-specific. This poses some problems for the translator especially in translation from Farsi to English. In these cases Yohannan (1977) proposes to rely on “external evidence” for identifying gender and he brings the example of "Shiraz's Turk", a character, in Hafiz Divan whose gender is not justified for feminine but some translations used "she" for this character. Some other languages are also gender-specific such as French, in which most of the words are attributed a gender.

Meaning and form are interlinked in poetry. One should consider both to grasp the actual meaning of a poem. In this respect Nida (1964) in his Towards a Science of Translating emphasizes the form and content relation in poetry:

In Poetry there is obviously a greater focus of attention upon formal elements than one normally finds in prose. Not that content is necessarily sacrificed in the translation of a poem, but the content is necessarily constricted into certain formal moulds. Only rarely can one reproduce both content and form in a translation, and hence in general the form is usually sacrificed for the sake of the content. On the other hand, a lyric poem translated as prose is not an adequate equivalent of the original. Though it may reproduce the conceptual content, it falls far short of reproducing the emotional intensity
and flavor. However, the translating of some types of poetry by prose may be dictated by important cultural considerations (Cited in Hatim & Munday, 2004, p. 165).

This form versus content debate especially in poetry translation has a long history. Newmark asserts that in poetry two major points should be taken into consideration: the first one is that in poetry form and content contribute to each other and the second point is that the cultural gap between Source language and target language readers should be accounted (2004). He adds that: “The translator has to decide whether the expressive or the aesthetic function of language in a poem or in one place in a poem is more important” (Newmark, 2004, p. 166). This is part of translator’s decision making process.

Pun bears two meanings, a closed meaning and a far-fetched one and most often, if not always, the author intends to communicate the second meaning. The translator should be aware of all layers of meaning for example in the following line from Hafiz:

"Rah" literally means "Path" but connotatively means "the path of love" or "the path which the beloved passes from".

So the translator should have a complete mastery over both languages specially the subtleties of meaning in Persian poetry and he himself should be a poet to perceive aesthetic and conceptual meanings and then transfer it in the most appropriate way.

This can be done by clarifying the meaning of these words.

3. Case studies:

For the purpose of eliciting strategies of the two mentioned translators concerning pun words, first I investigated all possible pun words in Hafiz ghazals and then I compared the translations in terms of denotative and connotative meanings conveyed. In this part, I examine 4 selected couplets of Hafiz ghazals in which there are examples of pun words and the translations of these words is considered carefully in order to find out the successful employed strategies. Wilberforce Clark's translation is literal and prose-like but Bicknell translation is rather free and it is in the form of poetry.

Therefore, first I mention a couplet and its denotative and connotative meanings in that specific couplet, and then I mention both translations with the emphasis on translation of pun words, which we compare to see which one is more successful in the sense that it can convey all its meanings.

First case:
"Booy" or "perfume" is a pun word which has two meanings.

A) Charming perfume of the beloved (denotative meaning) and

B) Hope and wish (connotative meaning)

First we consider Wilberforce Clark translation of this couplet:

"By reason of the perfume (hope) of the musk-pod, that, at the end (of night), the breeze displayeth from that (knotted) fore-lock,

From the twist of its musky (dark, fragrant) curl, what blood (of grief) befell the hearts (of the lovers of God)"(1983)

And Bicknell's translation:

"With yearning for the pod's aroma, which by the East that loch shall spread,

From that crisp curl of musky odor, how plenteously our hearts have bled!"(1965)

As we see Wilberforce Clark's translation is literal and contains both intended meanings, also it explains in the footnote all other possible meanings.

On the other hand Bicknell's translation is not prose; it keeps rhyme and melody of the original but it doesn't transfer both meanings of the intended pun word.

So, Wilberforce Clark's translation is more successful in rendering all associated meanings of this word.

Second case:

"Dorost" in this couplet is another pun, it's got two meanings:

A) Valuable money (denotative meaning)

B) Unbroken heart (connotative meaning)

Now we examine both translations to have a fair judgment:

Wilberforce Clark's translation:

"Strike the bargain; purchase this shattered heart,
That, despite this shattered state, is worth many an unshattered (heart)’(1983)

Bicknell’s translation:

"Come, deal with me, and strike thy bargain: I have a broken heart to sell,
Which in its ailing state outvalues a hundred thousand which are well’(1965)

In both of these translations just the connotative meaning is transferred. However, explicates the state of being Unshattered to heart but in the second translation it does not. So, here, we can’t exactly say which one is more successful, because both of them have some flaws.

Third case:

شکر فروش که عمرش دراز باد چرا

şkar foroş or sugar seller, is a pun word and has got following meanings:

a) A person who sells sugar (denotative meaning)

b) The beloved (for the sake of sweet kiss) (connotative meaning)

c) Divine knowledge

Wilberforce Clark translation:

"The sugar-seller (the murshid, seller of the sugar of divine knowledge)-whose life be long!-why
Maketh he no inquiry of the welfare of the parrot (Hafiz, the disciple) sugar of divine knowledge devouring?"(1983)

Bicknell’s translation:

"That sugar-vender (yet, I pray, to live in joy for many a day)
Should ask- what cause prevents?—How speed this parrot who on sugar feeds?"(1965)

As we see Wilberforce Clark could precisely convey almost all layers of meaning, but Bicknell just got the denotative meaning which is less important, so again

Wilberforce Clark's translation is more successful considering pun translations.

Fourth case:
"Mastan" has got three layers of meaning:

a) Lovers of God (connotative meaning)

b) Eyes of beloved (connotative meaning)

c) Drunken with wine (denotative meaning)

First we examine Wilberforce Clark’s translation:
"By the revolution of Thy eye, - none obtained a portion of enjoyment:
Best, that they sell the veil of chastity to the intoxicated ones of Thine." (1983)

Then Bicknell’s translation:
"Aught of good accrues to no one witched by thy narcissus eye:
Ne’er let braggarts vaunt their virtue; if thy drunken orbs are nigh." (1965)

Wilberforce Clark uses the "intoxicated eyes" which is the divine meaning and Bicknell uses" drunken orbs" which is literal meaning. Although both translations fail to convey all meanings, Wilberforce Clark was more successful in transferring the more important connotative meaning.

5. Conclusion

The aesthetic use of wordplays and pun words in poetry especially Hafiz poems is functionally motivated. There is something more beyond the denotative meaning of some words; a mystical, divine meaning which is derived from the wordplays. Translator must have the ability to overcome two important problems which are: understanding the interpretation of these words in the first place and then transferring all these layers of meaning to the target language appropriately. This article investigated how this difficult task can be done successfully and for this purpose I examined two translations of Hafiz ghazals: Wilberforce Clark (1891) and Bicknell (1875) in order to come up with a successful strategy in translating pun words. Wilberforce Clark almost could transfer both the denotative and connotative meanings, by connotative meaning in Hafiz poem; I mean the mystical and divine meaning that is expressed in the form of earthly love. On the other hand, Bicknell's translation almost transferred the denotative meaning and just in some cases the connotative and mystical meaning; the reason inferred by researcher is that he translated in poetic form and he tried to keep the rhythm but he lost the meaning which is important as well.
References


Imparting Human Values through Communication:
An Emphasis on Role Play

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Abstract: Today majority of places have adopted a holistic approach towards education. Attention is towards experiential learning and the significance that it places on relationships and primary human values within learning environment. The tenet ‘I hear and I forget I see and I remember, I do and I understand’ is very applicable here.

Human values are abstract. No doubts these values are inextricably woven into our language but it is difficult to impart such values.

The process of communication is very important. It includes verbal and non-verbal communication. Therefore human values can be imparted through communication. The aim of this paper is twofold. Firstly, the paper exposes some human values that are instrumental in creating a holistic personality and the second part of the paper moves towards the importance of role play as a medium to communicate human values. Whenever we project into the future in a kind of ‘what if ’scenario, we indulge in a role play which can effectively communicate human values verbally and non-verbally.

Role play is of great pedagogical value. It can be given a proper direction as well as a purpose by performing it in the form of a one act play. The second part further includes the study of a one act play, “The Refund” by Fritz Karinthy as an illustration of a role play with a purpose.

Introduction:

Education is a process that moulds the personality of a person.

Consolidating the views of the eminent scholars, we may characterise ‘total education’ as- ‘the system of teaching, learning and initiation of knowledge which leads to complete self-reliance, excellent development of personality and continuous evolution of virtuous tendencies.’(Sharma, Acharya, 255)

To give a holistic approach towards education emphasis is being laid on incorporating human values in order to have complete self-reliance.
These values are abstract and there are no set rules or principles to impart them. If we try to teach such values and morals to people by simply giving lectures on it, it is always taken as a moral preaching, which very few can value. On the other hand, if we adopt an indirect method i.e. learning through mistakes, it can surely leave some impact because once a person commits a mistake, then he can very well visualize what the right way to check this mistake is. As substantiated in the following lines:

In studying the great characters the world has produced, I dare say, in the vast majority of cases it would be found that it was misery that taught more than happiness, it was poverty that taught more than wealth, it was blows that brought out the inner fire more than praise. (Karma Yoga, p-2).

In the same context a person learns from mistakes. Therefore mistakes can act as a learning experience too.

The major concern comes when one has to find out ways as to how to actually provide a platform where people can visualize or observe some mistakes or some wrong doings. To accomplish such a task, the process of communication is taken into consideration as-

We may see that sound symbols play a prominent part in the drama of human life. I am talking to you, I am not touching you, the pulsations of the air caused by my speaking go into your ear, they touch your nerves and produce effects in your mind. (Karma Yoga, p-69).

Therefore verbal communication is very effective but at the same time non-verbal aspect of communication cannot be also ignored as it accounts to.....% of total communication.

This paper has taken into consideration “Role Play” as a medium of communication to impart human values. “Role Play is a highly verbalized procedure”. (Morry Van Ments, p-19). Role play includes both verbal and non-verbal communication.

The incentive to take part in a role play is high and by taking part, one is using language and other ways of communicating so that learning is an integral part of the task. (Morey Van Ments, p-19).

And in order to follow the strategy of “learning through mistakes”, it has taken a one act play- “The Refund” by Fritz Karinthy in which the protagonist is an object of wrong doings and he commits all sorts of mistakes and finally has to give up in the hands of the principal and the professors. His mistakes act like a learning ground for the viewers and even the role players.

For the beginner it gives a logical sequence which ensures that each point is considered before too many assumptions are made. (Morey Van Ments, p-29).
Abode to Human Values:

Human values are of the highest consciousness state which are inextricably woven into our language. These values are ingrained in a human being from the very childhood. Basically values are there in a person but there are various factors that mould them into good or bad virtues. It’s only the human mind which is real abode of such values. As substantiated in the words of Karma Yoga:

The external world is simply the suggestion, the occasion, which sets you to study your own mind, but the object of your study is always your own mind. The falling of an apple gave the suggestion to Newton and studied his own mind. He rearranged all the previous links of thought in his mind and discovered a new link among them…. All knowledge therefore, secular or spiritual is in the human mind. (P-2, 3).

If human mind is the abode then no matter whatever values are contained in a soul, it is certain that outside world can surely leave some impact into our minds and influence or modify our values.

By this continuous reflex of good thought good impressions moving over the surface of the mind, the tendency for doing good becomes strong and as a result we feel able to control the Indriayas (the sense organs, the nerve centres.) (Karma Yoga, p-40).

Some Human Values:

Human values are ideals that define or give meaning to our lives. Education is incomplete if we ignore the part played by such values. We read in the Bhagwat Gita again and again that we must all work incessantly.

All work is by nature composed of good and evil…. Good action will entail upon us good effect, bad action, bad. (Karma Yoga, p-38).

There is a chain of such values which are more or less connected. Love, truth and unselfishness, when we compare these values with hatred, lie and selfishness, then only one will get the real essence of these values.

Love, truth and selfishness are not merely moral figures of speech, but they form our highest ideals, because in them lies such a manifestation of power. (Karma Yoga, p-9).

Honesty is another value which is of utmost importance otherwise nobody can rely on you or trust you. “Honesty is a clear conscious, before myself and before my fellow human beings.” (Karma Yoga, p-16).

Honesty can further make a person pure and thus give birth to another value that is purity.
Meet a truly pure soul and they can walk right through you leaving no mark at all only a sense of light and optimism. (Inner Beauty, p-38).

Honesty and purity walk hand in hand as an honest person is always pure at heart and vice versa. Further when a person is pure and honest, then he always shows respect to others. As substantiated:

Respect is never catching anyone out, never pulling at their short comings so that they become a target for laughter. (Inner Beauty, p-61).

Now respect for others can only be there in a person if he has values of tolerance and contentment in him. A person who cannot sustain endurance can never be satisfied and so:

A tolerant person is like a tree with an abundance of fruits. (Living Values, p-45).

The value of tolerance and contentment teaches patience. “Sometimes patience makes you persist, to go on with, something you’d rather see finished.” (Inner Beauty, p-54). And this value of patience will definitely lead to self control. “This self control will tend to produce a mighty will or character which makes a Christ or a Bhuddha”. (Karma Yoga, p-10).

All these values form a courageous being.

They say less and do more and they never make promises for the courage in them knows that together with a high aim there has to be an intelligent mind that is able to move quietly one step at a time. (Inner Beauty, p-23).

If a person is courageous, he has abundance of self-confidence.

“Even areas of weakness don’t shake the mind because they are already under demolition”. (Inner Beauty, p-65). With confidence at its best, a person will surely have the virtue of accuracy which implies sharpness in everything. As Substantiated:

As accuracy is being in the right place at the right time, in moving from a position of quiet to a position of speech at the right time, moving from participation to withdrawal. (Inner Beauty, p-9).

And if a person is accurate, he knows it very well that he needs to co-operate with others, therefore the virtue of co-operation inevitably grows in a person. This accuracy also teaches him to be obedient as well as wise.
Communication of values:

If we examine our daily life, we will become aware that everything we do is an act of communication. We are sending messages, or, receiving them all day long. (www.love_in_human_nature.org)

Communication is a two way process which implies that the message sent from the sender to the receiver will be incomplete, unless or until it has not received any active feedback. Therefore when it comes to communication of human values, communication here too will be incomplete if the person has not actually felt the values. In other words human values that are communicated should be effective enough that they find some place within the human mind.

How can this be done?

Role Play as a medium of communication is the best reply to it.

Provided that the role play is well organized and operated, the participants invariably enjoy it, become involved in it and remember it long after they have forgotten much of the learning which they obtained in other ways. (Morry Van Ments, p-15).

Nowadays, most of the learning is being done with the help of activity based method. Teaching of morals directly are taken as moral lectures only and so Role Play is an activity where various aspects of the behaviours such as developing human values can be taken care of.

The major advantage of role play is the one it shares with all stimulating and gaming activities in that it is highly motivating and gives students simple, direct and rapid feedback on the effects of their actions. (Morry Van ments, p-15).

To impart such values one needs set direction or a sequence so that one role enacted leads to the other and then to the next fixed role so that audiences or the role players are not left on to their own selves to draw conclusions. In this way the negative thoughts will not approach.

Advantages of one act play:

1. Role playing can become ineffective if people are unclear about what they are supposed to do. Any muddy thinking will have consequences. Be clear about the purpose. If you are assessing skills in a certain situation then the brief must reflect this. Now when it comes to other activities and situation where there are lots of technical details it provides a bolt hole for people who are skilled and pre-occupied in technicalities, when they should be focusing on structure, or process or behaviour. The exercise will keep its point and value if it avoids technical distractions.

2. If our purpose is to teach human values, our purpose is defined. Now it is a pre-requisite in a role play activity to assign enough information so that the entire communication
process leads to a believable and relevant conversation. If the information is too little-there won’t be enough to sustain a conversation and too much will surely make people swamped with information, most of which they either won’t need or won’t remember. Therefore one act play will suit best for the situation where our purpose is defined i.e. teaching human values.

3. It’s also observed that when people are given role play activities to perform individually, the candidates generally indulge into his or her personal thoughts which at times can produce harmful effects but if we take the help of one act play, here we have chain of events and there is no link to one particular thing, and there is not a general anger at everything. If role players are given open licence to just be angry or wicket, there needs to be a reason for it. Personal anger might create some personal attachment to such anger but when one act play takes place this anger is defined and linked with the chain of events. A well written brief will help to keep the role play focused and on the track.

4. When one’s peer group is involved in the role play activity, it becomes more like a shared, facilitative exercise and rather than a battle- which in turn will also defuse fears and tension. One act play has an advantage of confinement of time and therefore it is easier for everyone to know the play easily and then share feelings.

5. Generally forced teaching is taken as a moral lecture but when we have to impart human values, one act play can serve as highly beneficial learning activity where not only the participants but also the observers give their comments afterwards.

6. It is also observed that a role play activity should not contain subjective judgements or comments based on personal knowledge or assumptions. Feedback should be meaningful and specific- something that the role player can act on. One act play also satisfies this principle.

7. At times it is observed that individual role playing act had caused negative impact on the minds of the youth especially when they were assigned the roles of Vampire or a Magician as they find pleasures in the same. One act play has very successfully overcome this problem. Role play feedback isn’t helpful if it suggests that the role player should get a new personality or be nicer. We have a theme and the story line which is linked up with the series of event and so people act and involve oneself in the learning process.

Some illustrations from The Refund a one act play by Fritz Karinthy:

The Refund comprises only a few characters i.e. the principal, the mathematics, physics, history and geography masters and the protagonist, Wasserkopf. In order to communicate human values in this role play activity of one act play Wasserkopf mistakes act as a learning ground.
Mistake 1:
“The Principal- He’s waiting outside. He wants to be re-examined. He says he learned nothing. He says a re-examination will prove it.” (Agarwal, 352)

Wasserkopf has a negative value i.e. determination but in doing wrong things. He is ready to do anything just to prove that his school has taught him nothing and his knowledge is negligible.

Mistake 2:
“Wasserkopf: Who the hell are you? Sit down, you loafers!” (Agarwal, 353)

The protagonist’s address to his masters shows to the role players and the viewers that how important the values of respect and accuracy are. No doubts viewers especially students will laugh on such utterance but ultimately as the play advances further, this behaviour is mere mockery over the pupils who are always ready to blame others and the system. The mistake committed thus is linked up with the chain of events which finally leads to a moral teaching.

Mistake 3:
“Wasserkopf: You’d better brush up your wits if you think you’re going to put one over on me.” (Agarwal, 353)

Here the protagonist considers himself to be very wise. But in reality it is his mistake. True wisdom is shown in the form of the masters. They are insulted at the hands of this pupil as he addresses them as ‘old stick-in-the-mud, cannibal. Hypocrite, nitwit, ass etc but they show patience and self control in teaching him a lesson.

Mistake four:
Wasserkopf: How long did the thirty years war last? Was that the question?
The History Master: Yes, yes
Wasserkopf: [grinning] I know exactly seven meters……
The History Master: Seven meters?Right! Your answer is excellent …!” (Agarwal, 353)

The accuracy of masters is shown in accepting all the wrong answers as the correct ones. It’s just to teach this ex-pupil a lesson that if can lie and tell the wrong answers and thus outsmart them, and then the masters also have brain.

Mistake 5:
“Wasserkopf- I was never serious in my life. Treat me wrong here and I’ll go straight to the ministry of education and complain about you! You took my money and you taught me nothing. Now I’m no good for anything, and I can’t do the things I should have learned at school!” (Agarwal, 353)
These words will straight away leave an impact on the minds of the viewers that it is very easy to blame others. Wasserkopf never worked hard and he is fired from his job because of the same reason i.e. his inability to work hard.

Mistake 6:
“Wasserkopf- Grand total: 6,450 crowns 50 hellers. Knock off
The heller and call it crowns” (Agarwal, 353)

Well in the end of the play it is ultimately proved that no doubts this ex-pupil tried to prove that his school taught him nothing, but it’s only his education which made him capable enough to calculate the correct sum in a systematic way. Therefore Wasserkopf had to suffer due to his lies and corrupt values.

Conclusion

This paper has taken into consideration “Role Play” as a medium of communication to impart human values. “Role Play is a highly verbalized procedure”. (Ments, 19). Role play includes both verbal and non-verbal communication.

The incentive to take part in a role play is high and by taking part, one is using language and other ways of communicating so that learning is an integral part of the task. (Ments, 19).

And in order to follow the strategy of “learning through mistakes”, it has taken a one act play- “The Refund” by Fritz Karinthy in which the protagonist is an object of wrong doings and he commits all sorts of mistakes and finally has to give up in the hands of the principal and the professors. His mistakes act like a learning ground for the viewers and even the role players. It’s just like if one will do or act like this, one will surely suffer.

For the beginner it gives a logical sequence which ensures that each point is considered before too many assumptions are made. (Ments, 29).

References

Communicative Language Teaching: Recommended Approach for ‘Remedial English’ classes at University of Sindh, Pakistan

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Abstract: In this paper, it is proposed that Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) should be adopted as a method/approach for English language teaching at University of Sindh, Pakistan (USJP). In the beginning, English language teaching situation at USJP are given in which it is argued that our students study English language but can hardly communicate effectively. The paper further discusses literature review explaining what CLT is, how to apply CLT, misconceptions about CLT, criticism against and defence of CLT. Then, the paper presents analysis and implications of CLT application at University of Sindh. Finally, it concludes with optimism that CLT will equip our learners with communicative competence if adopted properly in USJP.

1. ELT situation at University of Sindh

This section describes the ELT situation and need to adopt CLT at University of Sindh. English is mandatory subject for all graduates studying at University of Sindh. University of Sindh is the second oldest university of Pakistan. Approximately 12,000 students study at University of Sindh. Every year more than 6,000 students are enrolled in different disciplines for bachelor and master degree programme at University of Sindh. English is taught for two years in B.A./B.Sc programme and for one year in M.A./M.Sc programme. Hafeez (2004) describes importance of English language proficiency. He explains that knowledge of English is essential for getting good jobs, getting through examination for civil services and armed forces.

The subject title for B.A./B.sc and M.A./M.Sc is Remedial English. Remedial English as a subject was introduced in the year 2002. Before that English Compulsory was taught to all graduates. The prescribed book for English grammar was ‘English Grammar and Composition’ by Wren and Martin. This book was written in first half the twentieth century. This book is purely based on grammar-translation syllabus. It contains explanation of grammar rules followed by examples sentences, text for comprehension and translation, and techniques for writing...
Now this book has been replaced by two new books: ‘Oxford Practice Grammar’ and ‘English for Undergraduates’. The adoption of these two books was a part of university policy to introduce modern language learning techniques/methods at University of Sindh. English continues to be taught at University of Sindh. However, English language teaching at University of Sindh hardly helps learners in acquiring communicative competence. The prevalence of old methods and techniques is still matter of everyday practice. Our learners study English language grammar and vocabulary items, remember them, but do not develop proper communicative skills. Sadly, only few students are quite good at writing and speaking English. This paper analyses how learners can be provided with genuine opportunity of English language learning. The paper proposes that teachers at university of Sindh adopt Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) in their classes for successful language teaching/learning.

2. Literature Review
2.1. Definition of CLT

Wikipedia Encyclopaedia defines CLT as an extension of notional-functional syllabus. CLT emphasizes using target language in different contexts and learning language functions. CLT aims at creating and comprehending meaning, rather than mastering grammatical structures. Successful language learning is measured in terms of communicative competence. Following (Nunan : 1991) are considered as essential features of CLT:

1. An emphasis on learning to communicative through interaction in the target language.
2. The introduction of authentic texts into the learning situations.
3. The provision of opportunities for learners to focus, not only language but also on the learning process itself.
4. An enhancement of the learner’s own personal experiences as important contributing elements to classroom learning.
5. An attempt to link classroom language learning with language activities outside the classroom.

‘In the classroom CLT often takes the form of pair and group work requiring negotiation and cooperation between learners, fluency-based activities that encourage learners to develop their confidence, role-plays in which students practice and develop language functions, as well as judicious use of grammar and pronunciation focused activities.’ (Wikipedia Encyclopaedia)

CLT is different from grammatical approach, which is based on the principle that language learning comprises mastering a set of rules and these rules have to be learnt.
one by one in additive fashion (Nunan: 1988). In grammatical syllabus language parts are dealt with one by one until complete knowledge of language is acquired. Nunan (1988) maintains that language learning does not take place in linear-additive fashion. CLT aims at communicative competence and targets language learning as a whole as opposed to learning set of rules in linear-additive fashion. Wilkins (1972) categorized two types of meanings to negotiate sense in language learning: notional and functional. Notional approach focused on language parts such as time, location etc. while functional approach included items such as requests, denials etc. These notions and functions were considered as important ingredients of CLT. Critics argue that list of notions and functions are no different from a list of grammatical rules and lexical items (Nunan: 1988).

In further development of language teaching Krashen (1982) discounted the importance of explicit grammar teaching. He argues that language acquisition takes place naturally in a subconscious process rather than by conscious explicit instruction. Krashen’s approach is criticized on the grounds that it fails to take account of social aspect of language learning and is only based on learner’s individual thinking and behaviour (Nunan: 1988).

In contrast to Krashen’s approach, Nunan (1989) emphasizes the importance of classroom interaction through various ‘tasks’. Long and Crookes (1992) suggested an analytic syllabus following task based language teaching (TBLT). They maintained that tasks give learners opportunity to communicate and negotiate meaning using relevant target language situations. Nunan (1989) endorses the language learning through these tasks. He maintains these tasks are modelled on real life tasks that learner encounter in actual life. These ideas highlight the importance of language learning through tasks. Long (1991) gave ‘interactional hypothesis’. He argues that interaction is paramount for negotiating meaning. He adds that through interaction learner identifies and corrects his mistake and interaction makes learner understand relationship between form and function.

2.2. Application of CLT

The proper application of CLT is very essential for bringing about required results. The following discussion will help understand possible problems to implement CLT.

Littlewood (2006) mentions some important reasons because of which teachers find CLT difficult to implement in the class. According to Littlewood (ibid) classroom management is one major reason because of which teachers are not able to successfully implement CLT. He says many teachers think that when students are engaged in task related activities, they fail to control the class. Avoidance of English, according to Littlewood, by students is another reason many teachers think that CLT does not work in their case. He maintains that teachers often complain that students are not motivated to use English in the classroom. Littlewood (ibid) elaborates that in many instances teachers themselves are not confident to communicate in English. Littlewood
(ibid) mentions ‘minimal demands on language competence’ is another difficulty faced by teachers to carry out CLT in classroom. He explains that sometimes students focus only on completion of task and engage in minimum interaction to negotiate meaning. A common occurrence in these situations is that interaction is confined to one or two students and majority does not benefit from these activities. Littlewood (ibid) enumerates another important concern which makes it difficult for teachers to implement CLT. He says many teachers find implementation of CLT incompatible with parent’s expectations. He says many parents think that CLT is not examination oriented learning which is very crucial for their children’s future. Littlewood (ibid) says many Chinese teachers think that CLT is in conflict with their traditional values of education. In Chinese culture ‘education is conceived more as a process of knowledge accumulation than as a process of using knowledge for immediate purposes’. Littlewood (2006) informs teachers about challenges before implementing CLT in the classroom.

Littlewood (2005) suggests five-category framework for effective implementation of CLT:

(i) At the most form-focused end of the continuum is NON-COMMUNICATIVE LEARNING, which includes, for example, grammar exercises, substitution drills, and pronunciation drills.

(ii) We then move to PRE-COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE PRACTICE, in which the focus is still primarily on language but also oriented towards meaning. An example of this is the familiar ‘question-and-answer’ practice, in which the teacher asks questions to which everyone knows the answer.

(iii) With the third category, COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE PRACTICE, we come to activities in which learners still work with a predictable range of language but use it to convey information. These include, for example, activities in which learners use recently taught language as a basis for information exchange or to conduct a survey amongst their classmates.

(iv) In the fourth category, STRUCTURED COMMUNICATION, the main focus moves to communication of meanings, but the teacher structures the situation to ensure that learners can cope with it with their existing language resources, including perhaps what they have recently used in more form-focused work. This category includes more complex information-exchange activities or structured role-playing tasks.

(v) Finally, at the most meaning-oriented end of the continuum, AUTHENTIC COMMUNICATION comprises activities in which there is the strongest focus on the communication of messages and the language
forms are correspondingly unpredictable. Examples are discussion, problem-solving, content-based tasks and larger scale projects. Nunan (1987) points out that classroom-based research shows that activities conducted in the name communication are rather pseudo-communicative. Nunan (ibid) provides transcript of a communicative classroom, it clearly indicates that students are hardly engaged in independent interaction. Students are repeating what teacher wants them to say. Nunan (ibid) believes that proper application of CLT can ensure successful teaching/learning opportunities. He suggests, keeping reasons for pseudo-communication in mind, teacher should use ‘referential questions’ (whose answer teacher does not know) instead of just ‘display questions’ which more often induce repetition. Nunan (ibid) also suggest that stimulating students’ schematic knowledge (knowledge which students have already got) can be a good way of engaging them in successful communication.

2.3. Misconceptions about CLT

Thompson (1996) argues that despite CLT being most widely used approach in ELT, many teachers still have certain misconceptions about CLT. He says following are the common misconceptions about CLT:

(i) CLT means no teaching of grammar
(ii) CLT means teaching speaking only
(iii) CLT means pair work, which means role play
(iv) CLT means expecting too much from teacher

Thompson (1996) writes one basic misconception is that CLT means no explicit teaching of grammar. He refers to Krashen (1988) that language acquisition can not take place just by remembering rules of grammar, but language learning takes place unconsciously by exposure to it. Thomson (ibid) suggests without reverting to traditional way of grammar teaching, an appropriate time of class should be given to grammar teaching. He suggests a ‘retrospective way’ to grammar teaching. He says learners first be exposed to a simple understandable language context, it helps learner understand function and meaning of that language context. Once the context is understandable, grammatical forms are introduced afterwards. Thompson makes it clear CLT does not mean exclusion of grammar teaching completely.

Thompson (ibid) says it is widely held misconception that CLT means teaching speaking only. He explains that communication between two people is not only oral but written as well. He elaborates that CLT focuses on all language skills. He even suggest that a communicative class should not only increase student talking time (STT) from teacher talking time (TTT), but communicative class should embrace the concept of student communicating time, in which student can enjoy reading text silently or even engrossed in quite thinking. Thompson (ibid)
Thompson (ibid) concedes that it is not completely untrue that CLT demands a great deal from teacher. In a communicative class teacher need to have better communicative and management skills. Thompson raises here an often repeated charge that CLT is designed for native speaker teachers, and for non-native teachers it is not quite difficult to conduct communicative activities and manage the class at the same time. Thompson argues that teachers need to improve their teaching skills and accept challenges. He maintains that successful implementation of CLT is a challenge for all alike.

2.4. Criticism against CLT

In recent times perhaps the strongest criticism against CLT comes from Bax (2003).

Bax argues that CLT has always overlooked one important aspect of language teaching: the context in which it takes place. Bax (ibid) points out that many CLT practicing teacher hold this view that any one not using CLT is ‘backward’. He elaborates that these teachers believe that CLT is the ‘complete solution to language learning and no other method is good. He calls this ‘CLT attitude’. Bax (ibid) argues that CLT relies heavily on methodology and consequently ignores ‘context’ in which language takes place. Bax (ibid) explains that in ‘Context Approach’ method is significant but it is only one of the factors for successful language teaching. Bax (ibid) says in ‘Context Approach’ students’ attitude and cultural expectation have to be taken in account. Bax (ibid) laments that ‘CLT attitude’ is also widespread in material production. It is believed that course books and methodology books are universally good without considering the context in which they are used. Bax (ibid) acknowledges that his insistence on context is not something novel to language teaching. He maintains that good teachers do not only rely on methodology but think about students’ individual and cultural context in mind.

Bax (2003) lays down the strategy for successful implementation ‘Context Approach’:

‘The first priority is the learning context, and the first step is to identify key aspects of that context before deciding what and how to teach in any given class. This will include an understanding of individual students and their learning needs, wants, styles, and strategies-I treat these as key aspects of the context-as well as the coursebook, local conditions, the classroom culture, school culture, national culture, and so on, as far as possible at the time of teaching.’
2.5. Defence of CLT

Harmer (2003) contends that methodology is ‘fundamental’ in language learning and not the context as suggested by Bax (2003). Harmer (2003) argues that methodology used by teacher rests actually upon his beliefs and understanding, without which a teacher 'becomes client-satisfier only'. Harmer (ibid) says consigning method to secondary position is to question what a teacher believes in and does as a teacher. Harmer claims that there is nothing wrong with the methodology but how it is applied and modified to suit the particular needs of students. Harmer does not question the importance context, but to him methodology is essential to language teaching. Harmer does not advocate blind pursuance of method and endorses the integration of method with context. Harmer (2003) says:

‘I believe, on the contrary, that is the teacher’s knowledge, experience, and training (together with their personality, interpersonal skills and interest in the students) that he or she brings in triumph to the classroom. What the students bring are their hopes and fears, and their pre-conceptions and sociocultural reality. Somewhere, in discussion between them, methodology and context, as equals, should meet in the way that is most appropriate for all concerned.’

Many researchers share Harmers views that language teaching must adopt a pedagogy that encompasses cultural context without scrap ing methodology altogether. Widdowson (1994) advocates a ‘pedagogy of appropriate’ rather than ‘pedagogy of authentic’. In continuation of Widdowson’ views (1994), Kramsch and Sullivan (1996) point out that pedagogy of authentic seeks to impose native-speaker style to different contexts, whereas appropriate pedagogy adapts native-speaker style to cater for both global and local expectations. Freeman() rightly suggests that methodologies follow values and may not suit all cultural contexts. He explains in language we do not deal with entire culture but with ‘individuals within a culture’. Freeman (ibid) believes a method can be adapted to suit a particular context.

Thompson (1996) acknowledges that CLT is surely not the absolute remedy and change in language teaching is already underway. He advises that we need to build upon what we have got. Any change in language teaching will emerge out of CLT. Holliday (1994) writes: ‘The communicative approach has been a development from previous methodologies; and further improvement can only be achieved by further development, not by going back.’ Liao (2004) shares his views about implementation of CLT in China. He believes that introduction of CLT has provided Chinese teachers knowledge about latest teaching methodologies; otherwise they would have reverted to teaching just grammar rules and vocabulary. Yoon (?) writes about the implementation of CLT in South Korea. He maintains that CLT is the most successful method ESL/EFL contexts.
Analysis and Implications of CLT application at University of Sindh

It is explained that English language teaching at University of Sindh needs to do more to ensure that learners acquire communicative competence. English language teaching classes are conducted by dedicated teachers. Despite that genuine learning has yet to be achieved. One major reason is many teachers are not familiar with modern teaching methodologies. And perhaps many teachers are not trained to conduct CLT. Liao (2004) acknowledges that introduction of CLT in China keeps teachers informed about latest developments in ELT. Introduction of CLT at University of Sindh will familiarize teachers with new innovation in ELT. The introduction of CLT should be coupled with teachers training: all teachers should be informed about the aims and objectives of CLT. All teachers need to know what are the essential tools and techniques of CLT, and how to implement them in the class. Hafeez (2004) suggests that communicative syllabus fits the requirements of Pakistani learners and should be adopted for ELT.

Bax (2003) speaks of context being more important and relegating method to second position. We have to take into account this consideration before introducing CLT at University of Sindh. Does CLT suit our context? Harmer (2003) is pertinent here. He argues that a method is what teacher believes in. Widdowson (1998) advocates the pedagogy of appropriate. Teachers at University of Sindh need to know about all these ideas. They need to keep their context in mind before implementing CLT. It will fruitful that CLT is followed as pedagogy of appropriate. We can learn from the experience of other countries. Liao (2004) describes how CLT has been successful in China. Liao (2004) argues that to develop a methodology which suits a particular context is not possible in China where teachers are not completely free in their choice and not properly trained. Liao’s argument is relevant to Pakistani situation as well. Many teachers are not familiar with teaching methodologies, how can they design their own methods. We need to believe in ourselves (Harmer: 2003). We can make CLT work in our context.

The implementation of CLT can cause certain problems (Littlewood: 2006). Teachers need to be cautious of the common difficulties they face in implementing CLT in the class. Teachers may be less motivated to implement CLT if they have certain misconceptions (Thompson: 1996). Teachers should dispel all doubts before implementing CLT in the class. We ought to make our teachers ready to encounter any possible problems in the implementation of CLT. Gupta (2004) shares her experience of CLT in India. She contends that CLT does not suit teaching context in India. She counts reasons for failure of CLT in India:

i) It was implemented without planning and in a hurry.
ii) Most teachers did not know how to implement CLT.
iii) Exposure of students to English was limited to classroom only.
iv) Examination system was not ready to change.
It is quite obvious that reasons which Gupta (2004) have given hardly raise doubts about the efficacy of CLT as a teaching methods. Problem does not lie with the method but how it is implemented. CLT is working in many parts of the world; it can work in Pakistan too, provided it is implemented in right earnest. We can learn from the Indian experience (Gupta: 2004). Teachers at University Sindh should be fully trained to adopt CLT. All aspects of the implementation must be discussed and resolved. Students and teachers be provided will all possible facilities to carry out CLT in a conducive environment. One major hurdle, in the implementation in CLT, is the number of students in the class. Approximately 80 to 100 students are present in a Remedial English at University of Sindh. This surely is well beyond ideal number for a communicative class. But this problem can be overcome by inducting more teachers (Liao: 2004).

CLT is the suitable approach for ELT at University of Sindh. Hafeez (2004) counts the benefits of communicative syllabus for Pakistani students:

i) Acquisition of four language skills
ii) Use of target language in class will help learners outside classroom
iii) Learning language forms and functions through activities develop better understanding of language
iv) Learner is free in learning, role of teacher is that of a guide and facilitator
v) Language learning based on the genuine need of learners

Hafeez (2004) quite appropriately describes the benefits of communicative syllabus for Pakistani students. We agree with him that our learners need to be communicatively competent to compete in the global market. The introduction of CLT at University of Sindh will bring multiple benefits for teachers and learners alike.

3. Conclusion

This paper advocates the adoption of CLT for ELT at University of Sindh when doubts are raised (Bax: 2003) whether CLT is really an effective approach. In this paper we have given definition of CLT, how CLT is implemented in the class, misconceptions about CLT, and criticism and defence of CLT. In this paper, the authors have referred to various ideas from different researchers in the field of English language teaching. The goals and objectives of CLT suit ELT situation in Pakistan. It has been mentioned that a huge number of young learners study at University of Sindh. English is taught to all bachelor and master students. This has been observed that despite teaching, learning does not occur among the learners. At the end of English language course, students know about English, but they can not communicate in English. Lack of proficiency in English deprives our graduates from prospective jobs. English language teaching at University of Sindh is a huge exercise, but it has yet to deliver. This paper has discussed different aspects of CLT. These aspects will help in proper implementation of CLT at University
of Sindh. CLT may not be an absolute method (Thompson: 1996) but it can work if implemented keeping learners need and local context in mind. The paper has discussed implementation of CLT in China, India, South Korea. Learning from these experiences, and following the essential techniques of CLT, we can make a difference. CLT at University of Sindh will equip our learners with genuine communicative competence. CLT is working in other parts of the world; it can work in our case too. We need to have this belief (Harmer, 2003).

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Developing Materials for Teaching Legal English Vocabularies with the Internet Use

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Abstract: The advance of technology has made the emergence of the Internet become more and more important in language teaching and learning. For this reason, this paper addresses its discussion on the importance of Legal English (LE) vocabularies and the Internet use in English language teaching. On the basis of these two focuses, this current study aims at describing how the materials of LE vocabularies can be developed and taught with the Internet use. For this purpose, this paper tries to explore the importance of LE vocabulary mastery for the learners of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) and the reasons of using the Internet for teaching LE vocabularies. In addition, this paper highlights some Internet sites providing LE vocabularies for teaching and learning. This paper finally presents a sample of developing materials for teaching LE vocabularies with the Internet use.

Key words: Legal English, LE Vocabulary, Internet

Introduction

Legal English (LE), like other forms of English for Specific Purposes (ESP), has its own specific vocabularies. For example, the words like attorney, defendant, judge, prosecutor, witness, etc, are found in the courtroom. As well as in this legal arena, those legal vocabularies are also frequently mentioned in such legal documents as opening statements, verdicts, legal proceedings, and legal opinions. Such LE vocabularies are certainly new for the learners of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) of law students at Jember University (UNEJ) because they have never learnt them before in their junior and senior high schools. As a result, without having enough mastery of such Legal English vocabularies, it can be difficult for them to use their English for reading, writing, listening, and speaking in the legal contexts. The need for the mastery of LE vocabularies by UNEJ law students certainly leads the teacher of English at Law Faculty of UNEJ to think of how to develop materials for teaching those LE vocabularies interestingly and interactively.

In order to meet an interesting and interactive way of teaching English, in today’s globalised era of communication due to the advance of technology, the emergence of the Internet cannot be denied. It has become more and more useful for the teachers of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) to develop materials for teaching. In relation to the need of the Internet use for teaching English, many scholars have devoted their attention to the importance of the Internet on English Language Teaching (ELT). In an excellent resource book entitled Internet for English
Teaching, for example, Warschauer et al (2000) address the different aspects of the use of the Internet for English language teaching. In addition they describe that the Internet can be successfully employed to facilitate the learner’s English ability improvement. In addition, Hill et al (2005), Lewis (1999), and Macdonald et al (2001) argue that the Internet provides value for the second language teaching and learning.

Paying the better attention to the need for the mastery of Legal English vocabularies by EFL learners of law students of UNEJ and the importance of the Internet on the teaching of English language, it leads to perform a further study on developing materials for teaching Legal English vocabularies with the use of Internet. At this point, this current study aims at describing how the materials of LE vocabularies can be developed and taught with the use of Internet. For this study, this paper addresses its discussion on such focuses as mentioned in the following sections.

The Reason to Master Legal English Vocabularies

English, like other languages, has a large number of vocabularies that make the EFL learners of UNEJ law students need to acquire. Without having enough vocabulary, it is of course difficult for them to use their English for reading, writing, listening, and speaking. Regarding the mastery of vocabulary, Wilkins (1972: 111) argues that without vocabulary, nothing can be conveyed. Similarly, it is noted by Milton (2009: 3) that words are the building blocks of language and without them there is no language. For these reasons, this fact of the importance of vocabulary acquisition for the EFL learners to develop their English skills may become “the most fundamental issue for second language acquisition” (Spiri, 2010). As a consequence, a growing number of researchers and teachers are turning to be concerned with the intentional study on developing vocabulary acquisition.

In the era of globalisation like today due to the advance of technology, English has increasingly become a global lingua franca. For this fact, English is considered as “global language” (Crystal, 2003). As the global language, English is then the most common language spoken over the world and used in many aspects of life such as in the global business relationships. In order UNEJ law student can communication in that global business relationships, it is therefore necessary for them to have English ability through the mastery of vocabularies.

However, to have the ability of English for general purpose is not enough for UNEJ law students because English is not only used for this purpose called General English (GE), but it is also used for specific purpose called English for Specific Purpose (ESP). In relation to ESP, Liuolienė and Metiūnienė (2012) argue that traditional English language training may not be sufficient to meet lawyers’ English language requirements. As a consequence, the law students of UNEJ must have the mastery of ESP called Legal English (LE).
LE, as a form of ESPs, has certainly its specific vocabularies which make it different from GE as well as such other forms of ESPs presented in Widodo & Pusporini (2010) as English for Business Purposes (EBP), English for Science and Technology (EST), English for Academic Purposes (EAP), English for Occupational Purposes (EOP), English for Educational Purposes (EEP), English for Vocational Purposes (EVP), English for Medical Purposes (EMP), English for Hospitality Purposes (EHP), English for Economics, English for Engineering, English for Tourism, English for Tour and Travel, English for Banking, English for Nursing, and many others. On the one hand, such specific vocabularies of legal English as attorney, defendant, judge, prosecutor, witness, verdict, etc can lead the EFL learners of UNEJ law students to new vocabularies because they have never learnt them before at their junior and senior high schools. On the other hand, some words (vocabularies) such as case, sentence, trial, to break which are also found in GE, can make the EFL learners of UNEJ law students difficult or confused to choose the meanings of those words appropriately from the dictionary because those words have different meanings (Supardi, 2010). To overcome these constraints faced by the EFL learners of UNEJ law students, it is therefore necessary for the EFL teachers of Law Faculty of UNEJ to take account of an interesting and interactive way for his or her teaching of LE vocabularies. With such a way of teaching, it is hopefully that the students can acquire LE vocabularies easily.

Regarding the interesting and interactive way for teaching LE vocabularies, the importance of the Internet use for teaching English introduced by some scholars is overviewed in this current study. With this way of teaching English, the EFL teachers are hopefully able to develop and teach the teaching materials of the LE vocabulary acquisition for the EFL learners of UNEJ law students.

The Reasons to Use the Internet for Teaching Legal English Vocabularies

In the era of globalisation, like today, due to the advance of technology, the emergence of Internet cannot be denied and ignored in English language teaching. In other words, the Internet has become very important in English language classroom. Estman (1996:34) describes it that the web with its ease of use and accessibility will continue to grow in the importance of English language teaching. According to him, the two reasons of it constitute the rapidness of becoming a gateway to other Internet resources and the development from a set of static resources to something more interactive and dynamic. Different from Eastman, Lin (1997) illustrates the importance of the Internet on the English language teaching as mentioned in the following picture.
In addition, Warschauer et al (2000) present the list of five reasons to use the Internet for teaching as mentioned in the followings:

(a) it provides authentic language materials;
(b) it enhances the student's level of literacy in conducting online communication;
(c) it enables the student to interact with native and nonnative speakers for 24 hours on end;
(d) it makes the learning process lively, dynamic, and interesting;
(e) it gives both the student and the teacher the power to work efficiently.

Because of the important use of Internet for language teaching, Warschauer (1995a; 1995b; 1996a; 1996b) then showed his investigation that dozens of teachers around the world have used Internet in language teaching.

**Some Internet Sites Providing Legal English Vocabularies**

As well as many websites providing the useful web-based resources for General English (GE), the Internet also provides those for Legal English (LE). Concerning the websites providing resources for teaching LE vocabularies, some Internet sites are highlighted in this section.

1. *Courtprep (Prepare for court)* Prepcour (jeunes qui vont à un ... (www.courtprep.ca)

Courtprep (Court prep) is the site which provides information on the Canadian legal system and prepares victims and witnesses to give evidence through an interactive virtual courtroom.
2. **Legal English Online by Translegal** ([www.translegal.com/](http://www.translegal.com/))  
   
   *This site is the world's biggest website for learning LE. In term of LE vocabularies, it provides for teaching over 4,000 legal terms through over 5,000 legal documents, 8,000 audio and video recordings and 10,000 exercises and questions.*

   
   English Club Online helps you **learn English** or **teach English**. You'll find everything from lessons for learners to jobs for teachers, including fun pages like games, videos, quizzes and chat. All the materials in this site are free.

4. **ESL Law and Court Quiz**  
   [www.englishmedialab.com/Quizzes/business/law%20courts.htm](http://www.englishmedialab.com/Quizzes/business/law%20courts.htm)  
   
   *This site provides quiz that will test English student’s knowledge of vocabulary related to law and legal issues. The test is in the form of matching quiz.*

5. **English Vocabulary for ESL: Legal Vocabulary - Court Cases**.  
   
   *This is the vocabulary video in the form of YouTube. In this site you can learn the basic vocabulary of law and court cases.*

6. **English Vocabulary Exercises - Crime & the Law - Exercise 1-3**  
   
   *This site provides the English Vocabulary Exercises focused on Crime and the Law. In this site you are asked to complete the exercise by matching the items on the right to the items on the left.*

**Developing Materials for Teaching Legal English vocabularies with the Internet Use and the Implementation in the Classroom**

Before the sufficiency of computer (laptop), viewer, and Internet network at UNEJ Law Faculty where I am working for teaching LE, I often experienced difficulty at performing my duty as a teacher of English, especially in searching and developing the teaching materials. In addition, the students felt bored of the materials presented. However, after the facilities for the Internet access have been available at UNEJ Law Faculty, the Internet cannot be separated from my duty to teach English for law students. With the availability of computer (laptop) and the Internet network, it becomes easier for me to search and develop the materials for teaching and even teach with the use of the Internet.
To develop materials for teaching LE vocabularies focused on identifying the people in the courtroom, for example, I can perform it easily with the use of http://www.courtprep.ca/ as in the following steps.

Firstly, I only type or write on the one of the Internet search engines. For example, I type courtprep on the google search engine as in the following display.

After that, I click the google search or push the button enter. From this step, the display will appear as in the following.
In this display, it appears the information *Courtprep (Prepare for court) | Prepcour (jeunes qui vont à un ...* at the top. The next step, I click it and the display appears as follows.

In this display, there are two choices ENGLISH and FRANÇAIS to be clicked in order to get the next display. For this, I click ENGLISH to have the information in English and the display appears as follows.

From this display, I can open the courthouse building in two ways by clicking the door of the courthouse in the middle (light brown colour) of the building or the word COURTROOM at the bottom on the right. After clicking one of them, the display appears as follows.
With this display, I click the arrow sign (►►) on the Proceed to Courtroom at the bottom on the right corner. After that, the next display appears as follows.
The next step is opening the door of the courtroom. In this step I click the left doorleaf and the next display appears as follows.

In this display I have to close the information in the box in the middle of the display by clicking **CLOSE** on the right corner at the bottom of the box in order to have the complete information about the people in the courtroom in Canada. After that the display appears as follows.
In this display, it is the time for me to start teaching. At this time I can start with brainstorming activity (pre-teaching) by having the students think of the people on display to answer the questions mentioned below.

- Where are the people in the picture?
- How do you know that they are in that place?

At this session, I give them 10 minutes to work in group of 4 or 5 students to think of the answer of the questions. After ten minutes, I ask each group to present their answers. From this session, I can recognise the students’ prior knowledge of the courtroom. Indirectly, they practise a little bit of speaking.

In order UNEJ law students know more about the people in the courtroom mentioned in the display, based on this display I have developed materials for the next step of teaching as the main activity (whilst teaching). I developed it by copying the picture on the display and designing it into the following worksheet of task-based material.

Using the worksheet I have developed above, firstly I ask the students to complete Task 1 in groups of 4 or 5 students for 30 minutes. After that I have them check their answers with the answers I have to show on the display. In this activity, I click one by one of the persons on the
picture of the courtroom. In order to find the answer of the man in label C, for example, I only click it and the result shows as in the following display.

In this display the students can have a look at the answer that the man in label C is **Defence Counsel/Attorney**. In addition, with this display they can understand who the Defense Counsel/Attorney is by reading the information of it on the right side. In order the students can get the complete information of Defence Counsel/Attorney, I have to click the sign “Next Page” at the bottom on the right corner.

In order to get the other answers of the people in the courtroom on the worksheet, I have to close the display of answer C by clicking “Close File” at the bottom on the right corner. After that, I have to performed the same things like what I have performed before.

The next activity is post-teaching. In this activity, I ask the students to finish Task 2 individually on the separate paper for 10 minutes. After that, I have them submit their answers.

**Conclusion**

Because of the technology advance, the emergence of the Internet cannot be denied. It has become more and more useful in language teaching and learning. In term of English Language Teaching (ELT), for example, the Internet has provided many sites as the resources for the teachers of English to develop materials for teaching. In terms of teaching Legal English vocabularies focused on identifying the people in the courtroom, the sample of material development presented in this paper is hopefully able to give contribution and consideration to those teachers of English, who are interested in developing materials for teaching.
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Understanding the Impact of Using Visual Arts as Writing Prompts in Narrative Writing

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ABSTRACT: Our contemporary educational task is to build a solid foundation for lifelong learning inclusive of visual arts known for its potentials and benefits to empower the hearts and minds of young children. This case study focused on how integrating visual art in the writing process enhances the quality of fifteen fifth-grade children's narrative writing. This research also highlights the significance of visual arts in active learning or visual learning. The qualitative inquiry used three writing conditions that include a short film, photographs, and 3D artwork model as writing prompts to stimulate children to write productively. The data collection process also included children’s Individual Learning Plan and classroom observations. The results revealed that most of the children responded positively to the writing prompts and there was a significant improvement in the grades achieved in at least one of the writing conditions with prompts.

Keywords: visual arts, writing prompts & narrative writing

Introduction

Visual art is an artistic language with an amalgamative culmination of insight, skill and thoughts which are very similar to the developing process in effective writing (Maurin et al., 2003). Many educators have agreed that visual art has its own symbolic way as a universal language to spark creativity and construct meaning in the journey of discovery (Jensen, 2001). Some evidence suggests that the benefits are greater when the visual arts are started earlier, suggesting a developmental role in the process (Bezruckzo and Schroeder, 1996 as cited in Jensen, 2001:53).

Olshansky (2006) had made an effort in establishing a writing curriculum focused on art making called Picturing-Writing and Image-Making. This process broadly involves elementary level students to draw and/or paint what is on their mind and then write a story about what is going on in and through the picture. Another effort was also done by Randle (2010) where he successfully applied visual thinking strategies as outlined by researchers Housen and Yenawine (2001) in her qualitative research inquiry in three different writing conditions among twenty-seven fourth grade students.
Nevertheless, this meaning-making strategy of introducing and integrating visual arts in core subjects has not been consistently acclimatized in many schools as an effort to further promote creative and critical thinking among students especially in the context of literacy. Thus, the lack of inclusion of visual arts across the academic curriculum has propelled the researchers to investigate its true impact on children’s learning by applying visual arts as writing prompts.

Literature has shown that visual arts quicken the pace of learning and teaching in numerous aspects. As such the scope of this research is to investigate the effects of using visual arts as writing prompts in narrative writing among young children to discover how creativity aids and inspires them in their writing. This study will address two major research questions. Firstly, to investigate whether prompts help students narrate better and secondly, to identify the type of visual arts which is deemed to be more engaging in providing a platform of inspiration for narrative writing.

**Literature Review**

In the present day, visual art is principally needed by young children as a platform for safe expression, exploration, communication, imagination, and cultural and historical understanding (NACCCE report, 1999). The integration of visual art into the curriculum offers extensive opportunities for children to be fully engaged in their learning whereby they are completely involved as a whole person physically, emotionally, intellectually and spiritually. On top of that, Korn-Burstztyn (2012:74) stated that one reason that the visual arts are critical for children at all stages of learning, but particularly in early childhood, is that they provide an entry point to engage different kinds of learners. Thus, visual art is definitely a powerful tool to bring forth active, differentiated and inquiry learning in schools. Not only that, the federal ‘No Child Left Behind’ (NCLB) Act of 2001 also emphasized heavily on the equal billing of arts with mathematics, reading, science and other disciplines as core academic subjects which has the potential to maximize children’s learning outcomes.

It can be stated that young children acquire a greater sense of self-confidence and develop many essential skills through visual art. According to Ruppert, one promising line of inquiry focuses on how to measure the full range of benefits associated with arts learning and she asserts that this includes ‘efforts to develop a reliable means to assess some of the subtler effects of arts learning that standardized tests fail to capture, such as the motivation to achieve or the ability to think critically (2006:8).

The incorporation of visual art creates a strong connection to a wide continuum of academic and social benefits. In an integrated curriculum, education through visual arts opens the doors for children to learn how to analyze, evaluate, and articulate conclusions from what they see and hear. Korn-Burstztyn (2012:55) also affirmed that ‘it provides a means for children to reflect on their experience, as through a kaleidoscope.’ Additionally, the Southeast Center for Education in
the Arts (SCEA) of University of Tennessee at Chattanooga (2008:2) stated that ‘knowledge and experience in the arts provide children the capacity to expand their reasoning ability, to make connections, and to think creatively.’ Hence, the use of visual art with core subjects establishes an extraordinary learning process for children in order to ensure a perpetuating momentum in developing both head and experiential knowledge and skills needed.

Olshansky (2003) developed an approach to writing that combines two dynamic elements of art and literature whereby her two main methods namely picturing-writing and image-making have demonstrated its effectiveness through colourful, tantalizing and unconventional pathway into writing. The implementation of visual art in core academic subjects especially in the context of literacy generates imaginative and expressive learning environments for children to engage and explore. Children and young people achieve learning gains through participating with others in “art-full” exploration, beginning with seeing (learning to look, to sustain visual focus), and doing (enacting, role-playing as in created or performing arts) accompanied by saying (inner speech, verbalizing, narrating), reading and writing (Grant, et al., 2008:59 as cited in Heath & Wollach, 2008:6).

To add on, ‘art experiences enhance observation, listening, questioning, and describing skills, which are important for language development and writing’ (Libby, 2000:3). Such experiences capture the hearts of young children to pay attention and participate in any arts-based instructions classroom. Introducing visual art as writing prompts or in the literacy context is something that is familiar to many educators but is not actively instigated in many schools (NCCA report, 2005). Children will always remember what is meaningful and enlivening for them – what touches a chord of their lives that links up to their preceding experiences. The more it is connected with their feelings and former encounters, the stronger the impact is (Gullat, 2008:17 as cited in Grieff, 2010:8) stated that ‘the arts link thought and feeling, thus they foster more effective communication and significantly impact the development of language and literacy skills.’ Additionally, Libby (2000:2) also described that ‘a painting is a triple experience: visual, emotional and intellectual.’ Subsequently, children will grow to identify and position themselves in this artistic process of learning which will eventually help to improve in their literacy skills and knowledge.

Randle (2010) has successfully conducted a research study in implementing the visual thinking strategies, an effort of introducing visual arts into literacy, through three different writing conditions among twenty-seven fourth grade students. The goal of her research study was to distinguish if the gap between creative speech and creative writing quality would be closed by offering students alternate methods as story starters, including both textual forms and visual art forms. However, her research point can be further explored on how visual art can be used as a tool to direct and instruct a differentiated classroom of learners with diverse learning needs and accelerate their academic and social attainment. On top of that, Obama (2009) also boldly mentioned that in addition to giving our children the science and math skills they need to
compete in the new global context, we should also encourage the ability to think creatively that comes from a meaningful arts education. Moreover, Eisner, et al. (1977) commented that educators want their children to have basic skills. But they (children) will also need sophisticated cognition, and they (children) can learn that through the visual arts. Generally, visual arts are handiwork that we can observe such as painting, drawing, sculpture, film, photography, crafts and printmaking.

According to Gelineau (2011:4), arts play a vital part in the problem-solving process in the classroom by strengthening the right or intuitive side of the brain to aid in finding alternative solutions and more creative thinking. Williams says that ‘children come with a two sided mind. We must encourage them to use it, to develop both types of thinking so that they have access to the fullest possible range of mental abilities.’ (2011:4). Apart from that, integrating visual arts in lessons of other subjects have the capability to serve dissimilar learning needs of young children. Thus, the significance of the visual arts’ ability to unite children in schools should not be understated.

Methodology

As explained throughout the preceding review of literature, there is evidence in the implementation of visual arts as narrative writing prompts to lay forward various academic and social skills especially creative and critical thinking. The main objectives of this research are to explore the impact of visual arts in the context of literacy specifically in writing through the use of artistic writing prompts among young children and to investigate how creativity stirs up their imagination and galvanize them to make connections in their writings.

This case study was purposefully done among fifteen targeted PYP 5 students in an international school consisting of eight male students and seven female students. All of them have completed a personal Individual Learning Plan (ILP) that facilitated in the identification of their dissimilar learning intelligences. All fifteen students who participated had good attendance record and this enabled the researcher to maintain the consistency and reliability of the research outcomes. However, one male student was absent for the third writing condition but the research sample was kept in a group of fifteen participants to ensure the consistency of the data collection. An equal amount of time of 45 minutes (after a short introduction of the writing prompts) was allocated to every writing condition for all fifteen participants to ensure the validity of the writing conditions. All writing conditions were conducted by their own classroom teacher. The differences in their performance with and without visual arts as their writing prompts were observed. Teacher A first conducted one narrative writing lesson without any visual arts prompts as per her teaching style but with a writing template. The purpose the template was given to students was to aid them in organising their ideas. This first narrative writing condition was the control of the case study. The question that Teacher A selected for the participants was “If I Could Only See One Colour.” Students were asked to write a narration based on this.
Three different types of visual arts namely short films, photographs, and students’ artwork were used in three different narrative writing situations. The chosen writing situations were as follows:

1. Most of us have a favourite book. Imagine that one day the book pulled you into the story.
2. Imagine that you woke up the next morning after your 10th birthday as a grown-up adult.
3. Assume that you were given only one chance to go to the place you would love to live in.

Thus, there was a total of four narrative essay questions altogether. For every lesson, a brief extra ten minutes was utilized for the introduction of the visual arts writing prompts. In the second narrative writing condition, a short film from the movie of ‘The Chronicles of Narnia: The Voyage of the Dawn Trader’ was shown. The video clip took up roughly about eight minutes of the starter activity. Few photographs were screened on the whiteboard as writing prompts for the third writing condition. These photographs depicted young adorable children and grown-up adults. For the fourth writing condition, all participants were brought out for a short gallery walk outside their classroom to see their own 3D model artworks that they had done previously about a place where they wished to live in.

Data was collectively obtained and analysed. All their writings were evaluated by three different teachers with the use of the same grading rubrics to ensure reliability and validity. Other important controls throughout the research were a fixed minimum number of words of 50 for every writing condition and unchanged grading rubrics for all lessons.

Findings

The purpose of the current case study was to elucidate the impact of employing visual arts as an effective tool to promote creative and critical thinking to improve children’s writing skills within the context of one fifth-grade classroom. Previous research explored throughout the review of literature suggests a positive link between visual arts and children’s creative thinking and critical thinking skills. ‘The rationale proposed by some is that experience in the arts develops initiative and creativity, stimulates the imagination, fosters pride in craft, develops planning skills, and in some arts fields helps the young learn how to work together.

In order to discern what forms a meaningful and thus valuable creative experience, children participated in a series of four writing activities for this research. Each activity presented required more creative input from them to be reflected in their final writings. The final writing in each of the four target activities was a narrative story. Three different writing prompts as explained above were used as to indicate three different types of visual arts. This was done to identify which type of visual art was deemed to be more engaging for students in providing a platform of inspiration for narrative writing.
The findings revealed that 53.33% of the participants were significantly motivated with the use of visual arts as their writing prompts. They showed a big improvement in their writing skill as they were guided with creativity and imaginative ideas as compared to when they were not given any visual arts as their writing prompts. This was supported by the observation of the classes where the students showed more interests when the visual arts prompts were used. Thus visual arts were seen to be catalysts to unlock and inspire creative output amidst the students. The findings are shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Students’ Writing Grades

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student/Writing Condition</th>
<th>Average Mark</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>18.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>16.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>16.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>15.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>15.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>20.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>19.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>22.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J</td>
<td>19.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K</td>
<td>20.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L</td>
<td>20.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M</td>
<td>18.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>18.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O</td>
<td>20.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In Table 1, I represents the results of the students where no visual prompt was used while 2, 3 and 4 are the results when prompts were used (2 is where a short film was used as prompt, 3 is where photographs were used as prompts and finally 4 is when the 3D model was used). The results in Table 1 shows there is a significant increase of approximately about 4.6 – 7.0 marks in average for almost all the students in the 2nd, 3rd and 4th writing condition as compared to the initial marks they obtained in the first writing. This is consistent with Grieff’s (2010:6 as cited in Grant, et al., 2008:70) claim that ‘playful activity (through visual arts) sets in motion learner strategies for attending and connecting, predicting and confirming, integrating and completing, that together make possible full engagement in reading and writing’. The major increase in the participants’ performance in narrative writing is very much affected by the strong nature of visual arts as a dispenser of creativity. A line graph was also used to illustrate the final outcomes of their narrative writings clearly (see Figure 1).

Figure 1: Students’ Average Mark Difference for All Writing Conditions

Despite the significant increase in students’ results when visual prompts were used, it must be noted that there was some inconsistency in the findings as shown by the results of Students I, K, L, M and N. The reasons for these discrepancies were explained to a certain extent through the analysis of the Individual Learning Plan (ILP) that they had completed in the course of the research study. Student I wrote that he was more comfortable with the habitual, guided writing approach taught by his teacher. He also mentioned that he would require some time to adapt to new changes but he personally thinks the implementation of visual arts as writing prompts to be very interesting. This explains the reason why he scored the same average mark in the first writing condition and the second writing condition where photographs were used as writing prompts. Students K, M and N wrote that they only made some progress and there is room for improvement in their literacy skills. It can be concluded that these students may need a longer time to adapt to this new approach of inclusion of visual arts in writing lessons as they may have
different strong learning intelligences. ‘Creativity in learning is about fostering “flexibility, openness for the new, the ability to adapt or to see new ways of doings things and the courage to face the unexpected’ (European Commission, 2009:7). Their ability to adapt to these new changes and have courage to try something new is developing as they did perform better in writing condition 2 where photographs were used.

According to the students’ ILP, there was consensus that they benefited to a great extent with the help of visual arts as their writing prompts. This is in line with Kouster’s (2011:6) claim that ‘it is through the creative exploration…that child artists begin to develop visual, auditory, kinaesthetic, and graphic symbols with which to represent their thoughts. Their language abilities are enhanced through listening, communicating, vocabulary, and symbolically.’ Having mentioned that visual arts are creative catalysts, it truly gives a deep impact to promote learning development in the context of literacy and other academic gains. Furthermore, they also stated that they would love to have visual arts as narrative writing prompts to promote their literacy skills. This is shown in the excerpts shown in Table 2 which is taken from the students’ answer in response to the question “Would you like to have visual arts as writing prompts in your English lessons? Please give your reason(s)”.

### Table 2: Answer to Q 3 in ILP

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student B</th>
<th>Yes, it would make it easier to compose and create a story.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Student D</td>
<td>Yes. It’s fun and we can get new ideas with lots of fun.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student F</td>
<td>Yes, because it helps me with my writing and creativity.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 2 distinguishes which type of visual arts is deemed to be the best platform of inspiration for students to write. As can be seen in the pie chart, 93.33% of the participants showed positive response to the three writing conditions where visual arts were used as their writing prompts. It is proven that photographs is the type of visual arts, which has the greater ability to spark imaginative ideas among these fifteen students as compared to the other types. All fifteen participants responded well to the writing prompts and reflected creativity and improved writing skills in at least one writing condition with the use of visual arts. Thus, art can be applied as an approach to accentuate learning in a particular subject or topic area. Offering an unconventional experience for young children through the introduction or creation of an artwork can provide supplementary contextual knowledge and standpoint into a subject.
It must be noted that a few of the students (Students C, D and E) in the study are learning English as an Additional Language (EAL). Every school’s curriculum across all subject areas should provide relevant, inclusive and challenging opportunities to all children with different learning needs. Through visual arts, students with special learning needs are able to construct a sense of self-confidence to engage in a creative cycle of experimentation, action and reflection in their literacy skills.

The findings proved that the EAL students obtained better marks in the writing conditions where visual arts prompts were used as compared to when no visual arts was used. For instance, student E, a Korean female student, showed an increase in her marks of 5.0 to 7.0 in average in the three writing conditions with visual arts as prompts. Therefore, it is undoubtedly true that ‘arts-based teaching capitalizes on these parallel processes by providing visual, kinaesthetic and/or auditory opportunities for connecting with and processing new information in addition to reinforcing prior learning’ to cater students with special learning needs (Grieff, 2010:6 as cited in Cornett, 2006).

**Conclusion**

This case study conclusively demonstrates the competence to construct and transform learning environments that foster student originality and creativity in the context of literacy specifically narrative writing via visual arts as writing prompts. Exhaustive research studies have proven the tremendous strength of visual arts in hosting creative and critical inquiry learning which
eventually leads to the initiation of many educational approaches and concepts as discussed in the literature review section.

According to Alter (2010), the multilayered and multi-disciplinary visual arts curriculum would be able to address key educational principles quite effectively because the value of art lies in its multi-connectedness. As such extending visual education beyond the parameters and boundaries of visual arts education would allow integrated teaching of subject content. Some degree of interdisciplinary is needed because the realm of the visual arts overlaps with many school subjects and this invariably will challenge old curriculum constructs’ (Freedman, 2003 as cited in Alter, 2010:8).

Unquestionably, the research results from this case study have confirmed that the overlapping and integration of visual arts into various subject or topic areas are beneficial and engaging. This has been proven among fifteen participants through the use of video/short film, photographs and 3D artwork models in various treatment groups of this research. This realm of creativity provides the best entry point to active inquiry learning and awakens positive attitudes towards learning. All participants that were involved in the case study reflected their enthusiasm in their narrative writings when they were given a mixture of writing prompts to direct their imaginative thoughts and feelings thoroughly. ‘The imaginative, exploratory, active learning inherent in the arts enhances cognition, engages attention, motivates learners, and connects them to content emotionally, physically, and personally. Learning in and through the arts produces of creating excitement, joy and surprise’ (Manitoba Education, Citizenship and Youth, 2003:6 as cited in Robinson, 2008:9).

The emergence of visual arts to be implemented in diverse areas of learning is still growing in schools all over the world. Many educationalists have moved from the perspectives of having visual arts as one separate subject in schools. Instead, many experience remarkable changes in their students’ learning as a whole by blending visual arts into the desired academic areas. Young children construct meaning through such creative learning as it feeds inventiveness into their mind, body and soul compatible to their distinctive multiple intelligences.

What is more breath-taking is that differentiated arts-based instructions also impel learning that takes place in the classrooms in such a way that it is able to reach out to unreached multiple learning intelligences effectively. It creates manifold pathways so that children of diverse abilities undergo equally suitable ways to grasp, exploit, enlarge and present learning concepts through these instructions. Integrated lessons that blend the concepts of more than one subject, reflect how people naturally think, engage student interest, and tap higher-order thinking (Sikes, 2007:15). It is also vital in reaching students who otherwise do not subscribe to traditional educational methods. A number of participants of this case study self-reviewed after going through four different writing conditions and found that they have achieved something new in their learning beyond their intended learning outcomes. Thus, the insertion of arts into the
curriculum is succeeding, sustainable and capable of meeting the requirements of a growing population of children.

Undoubtedly, this creative zone of learning offers a place for young children to think critically rather than just getting the answers right and to better learn in other areas too leading them to progressively multiply their personal, social and academic development. As they are continuously exposed to the quality in this creative learning, they will be able to possess a better self-expression, an appreciation of arts, a wide range of necessary skills and an enriched personal confidence and satisfaction with their achievements.

Visual arts provide experiences that cannot be duplicated by other means for young children as they grow independently successful. Moreover, ‘collaborative research that provides connections between the arts, sciences, and education would provide a powerful platform for instituting radical reforms that may change the culture of schools so that they establish the conditions for creative growth’ (Robinson, 2008:11). Johnson (2012) also quoted that children don’t dream of being insignificant. So, it is time for us to prepare the fields for them to come and enjoy learning creatively and passionately.

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A Stylistic Analysis of “I Have a Dream”

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ABSTRACT: “All the fun is in how you say a thing.” Robert Frost’s words give us a perfect explanation about why style is important in a research. According to Alan Warner, style is a way of writing, a manner of expressing one’s thoughts and feelings in words. A same meaning can have different effects on its readers by being put in different ways. This paper is to take the famous speech of Martin Luther King as an example to analyze and discuss its stylistic characteristics. It is not only the spirit of equality and liberty advocated in the speech but also its impressive style that contribute to its great success.

In fact, the present study is divided into three sections: the first section deals with introduction to stylistics; Stylistics and other linguistic principles. The second section concerns itself with style—author; and clean English: the arrangement; the figure of speech; contrast & metaphor; and parallelism. Whereas the third section deals with conclusion. This researcher is going to pay an attention to notions developed by linguists like Leech (1969), (1970) and Jakobson (1960), (1966), (1967), and (1968) since their notions are relevant to the aim of the present study.

Keywords- Introduction, Style—Author, Clean English: The Arrangement, The Figure of Speech, Contrast & Metaphor, and Parallelism.

SECTION ONE

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Language is the distinctive quality unique to man. It is what enables man to express him/herself and communicate with his/her fellow man, and it is acquired naturally. According to Fromkin et al (2007) “…language is the source of human life and power” (p.3). They also state that “we use language to convey information to others…, ask questions…, give command…, and express wishes” (p.173). There are two specific media of using language: oral – which is by words of mouth; and written – which is a graphic representation of words on paper.

It is in the use of language that style comes in. Style shows the difference between one piece of writing and the other. According to Adejare (1992) “style is an ambiguous term…” (p.1). He further states that the term style means different things to different professions. Some examples are: to a psychologist, style is a form of behaviour, to the critic, style is individuality and to the linguist, it is the formal structures in function (p.1).
Stylistics is the study of oral and written texts. It is the description of the linguistic characteristics (which means features of linguistics) of all situationally restricted uses of language. Linguistics is the scientific study of language or of a particular language. Linguistics is scientific because it applies the method of objective observation, collection, classification and application of facts to the study of language.

Stylistics focuses on texts and gives much attention to the devices, parts of speech and figures of speech. It goes further to look into the effects of the use of the devices on the reader.

Talking about the scope of stylistics, Onwukwe Ekwutosi gave four distinctive types of stylistics and they are:

1. General stylistics
2. Literary stylistics
3. Stylo-stylistics
4. Phono-stylistics

General stylistics deals with the non-dialectical varieties found within a language. In other words, it deals with situational or contextual use of language, that is, variation according to use. It also includes variation of language according to field of discourse, variation according to mode of discourse and finally, variation according to style of discourse.

Literary stylistics deals with language use in literature, that is, variations, characteristics of individual writer that made mark in literature. Often, we hear people talk about the style of Shakespeare, Milton, Achebe or Soyinka.

And also, stylo-stylistics deals with the qualification of stylistic pattern. It studies the statistical structure of literary texts often using computers. Finally, phono-stylistics is the study of expression of aesthetic function of sound.

Stylistic features can be described as features that produce style. They include linguistic features such as diction(writer’s choice of words, such as clichés, archaism, polysyllabic, monosyllabic), sentence structure such as loose and period sentences, parallelism, parenthetical expressions and passive expressions. Other features are cohesion, coherence, use of punctuation marks and figures of speech such as metaphor, simile, hyperbole, metonymy and personification, slang, colloquialism and connotation.

**Diction:** By diction, the reader looks at the simplicity or the difficulty of words chosen by the writer to express himself.
Sentence: It is made up of words that express a complete thought. It is the basic unit of thought in any communication. Both oral and written languages are made up of sentences. There are two main kind of sentences; loose and periodic sentences.

Loose sentence: It is the kind of sentence that states the main point at the beginning. Even when the statement is grammatically complete, one or more explanatory clauses or phrases come after it.

Periodic sentence: This kind of sentence keeps the main point for the end. The sentence is not grammatically complete until the end of the sentence.

Parallelism: It is the use of pattern repetition in a literary text for a particular stylistic effect.

Parenthetical expression: It is used to give more information and also as an after thought in a statement.

Passive expression: This is the use of words in the past tense to show the time of action.

Cohesion: It is a linguistic phenomenon which explains the way discourse is structured or organized with regard to message. It is a binding force that ties together stretches of utterances.

Coherence: This is the arrangement of sentence in a logical order.

Punctuation marks: Are signs in writing to divide sentences and phrases and to make meanings clear.

Figure of speech: A figure of speech is an expression used figuratively rather than literary. It gives a deeper meaning to word. Some examples are:

Metaphor: Is a comparison between two dissimilar things which have something in common.

Simile: It is a clear comparison between two dissimilar things. These two unlike items however share something in common. It is this common characteristic that is emphasized by the use of like or as ...as.

Hyperbole: It is an overstatement where the speaker exaggerates what he is saying out of proportion.

Metonymy: This is using a word for something to refer to another with which it has become closely associated.

Personification: It is giving human quality to an inanimate object.
**Slang:** Very informal words and expressions that are more common in spoken language, especially used by a particular group of people.

**Colloquialism:** A word or phrase that is used in conversation but not in formal speech in writing.

**Connotation:** It is the additional meaning the word gains because of the different environment in which a word has been used in the past.

**Archaism:** This is the use of old and middle English words which are no longer in general usage today. Some examples are, “thereto”, “thou”.

**Clichés:** They are phrases or ideas that have been used so often that it no longer has much meaning and is not interesting.

A way of stylistic analysis is taking a text and analyzing it at the various levels of linguistic organization – phonological, morphological, syntactic, and semantic levels. It is the identification of patterns of usage in speech and writing. It is usually made for the purpose of commenting on quality and meaning in a text.

**SECTION TWO**

**2.1 STYLE—AUTHOR**

Brooks and Warren (1952) in an excellent book, *Fundamental of Good Writing*, have compared style to the grain in wood. “The style of a work is not a sort of veneer glued over the outside. On the contrary, it is like the pattern of the grain in a piece of wood.” It is a pattern that goes all the way through: a manifestation of the growth and development of the stricture of the tree itself. As a man thinks and feels, so will he write. If his thoughts are muddled, his style will be muddled. If his thoughts are clear and sharp, his writing will be clear and sharp. “A man’s style,” wrote Emerson, “is his mind’s voice.” And he added: “Wooden minds, wooden voices.” Since style is something ingrained in writing and not stuck on top like a veneer, it follows that a man’s way of wring will be an expression of his personality and his way of looking at life.

Martin Luther King, the follower of the nonviolent principles of Mahatma Grandhi, conveyed his belief to the audience through the whole speech. All he said about the poor living conditions of Negro and the discrimination against the black people was nothing but fact. That is, he didn’t say anything exaggerative or sensational to turn the listeners into riot. On the contrary, he stated clearly that they should “struggle on the high plane of dignity and discipline” instead of “degenerating into physical violence.” In addition, the author was also a supporter of eliminating the racial discrimination in society. In the speech, he formed a beautiful blue print of white and black people living equally and happily together.
I’d like to use the sentence given by Buffon, a French writer and naturalist of 18th century to sum up my idea: “Le style, c’est l’homme meme.” (Style, it is the man himself.)

2.2 CLEAN ENGLISH

In another sense, the word “style” is often used to mean good, clean English. Raymond Chapman (1998), the author of A Short Way to Better English, states: “Bad writing is caused not so much by mistakes in grammar as by weakness in style.” Weakness in style here means clumsiness of expression, lack of precision and accuracy, obscurity and ambiguity, and anything that hinders the writer from conveying his meaning clearly and vividly to the reader. In my opinion, the best way of describing English that is clear and vigorous, free from verbiage and affectations, and doing its job of conveying meaning cleanly to the readers. The following paragraphs will discuss the point of “clean English” from 4 aspects.

2.2.1 THE ARRANGEMENT

This speech aims to call the attention of the whole society to the poor condition the blacks and the Negro were still in and highlight the urgent need to change it. The author didn’t state it immediately at the beginning of his speech. Instead, he started by mentioning the history. In this way, the author convinced his listeners that they had the right and obligation to make equality come true in the society because it was handed down from their ancestors. The author then brought out the discrimination and segregation black people were suffering in reality and further demonstrated the black people’s firm determination to overthrow the present world. If the author had kept on in this direction, the audience, especially those who had been long oppressed, would have raised a riot since the speech was emotion-stirring and to-the-bottom-of-the-heart. At this very moment, the author shifted from “sensitivity” to “sense”. He made it very clear that nonviolent resistance was the best and only means for them to achieve their aim. They should “forever conduct the struggle on the high plan of dignity and discipline.” In the last part, he formed the blueprint of a peaceful happy world in which life and opportunity are equal to every person. He then again called for the audience to fight for the wonderful bright future life.

The arrangement of the whole speech is full of logical thinking. The author led the audience into his mind step by step. He finally succeeded in persuading them to be on his side and march ahead with him hand in hand.

2.2.2 THE FIGURE OF SPEECH

One of the main rhetoric means in the speech is metaphor. It is the author’s appropriate use of metaphor that makes abstract things concrete and sharps the audience’s mind. In short, it just hits the nail on the head.
Example 1: the black people: creditor

: the government: debtor

The author compared the relationship between black people and the government to that of a creditor and a debtor. In this way, the author dramatized the fact that the black people had contributed a lot to the construction and prosperity of the society and it was time for them to be paid and get what they deserved because the black people had provided their service in advance. What’s more, the government had promised to improve the living conditions and eliminate discrimination in the society where colored people were concerned. It was their obligation to bring out equality in the true sense of the word.

Example 2: the urgent need for freedom: thirst for water

As is known to all that any being will surely die without water. In the author’s mind, freedom and justice was as important as water to him. Life would be meaningless and also impossible without them. The black people’s act of fighting for a better life and freedom was driven by their instincts. Freedom and justice are fundamental to a person’s life.

Except for the above, the author also described the persecution and police brutality as storms and winds, implying that though they seemed powerful, they would surely pass by and be replaced by a sunny day; the injustice which the Negro slaves were treated with as flames, reminding the audience of the unimaginable, horrible sufferings the Negro slaves went through; segregation and discrimination as manacles and chains, highlighting the fact that the black were crippled both physically and mentally.

2.2.3 CONTRAST & METAPHOR

Example 1: The rest of the American society is “a vast ocean of material prosperity” while “the Negro live on a lonely island.” I like this sentence very much because it gives us the sense that the Negro, the blacks were completely isolated. Island and ocean are two quite different things. The space of the ocean is much larger than that of the island. People on the oceans can “swim” freely and enjoy abundant resources while the island’s inhabitants are restricted within it, a solid earth. It can be inferred from here that the whites lived a much better life than the blacks and they all enjoyed the social welfare while the blacks were totally neglected.

Example 2: the quicksand of racial injustice V.S the solid rock of brotherhood

This use of contrast and metaphor conveys the meaning that racial injustice was just like quicksand----it was weak and bound to vanish. The brotherhood was like the solid rock----it would stand firmly and last forever.
2.2.4 PARALLELISM

It’s a common practice to use the method of parallelism in speeches on the grounds that it can easily catch the attention of the listeners, arouse their awareness, and make them join hand in hand with the speech. This speech is no exception.

Example: “Now is the time to make real the promises of Democracy.

Now is the time to rise from the dark and desolate valley of segregation to the sunlit path of racial justice. Now is the time to open the doors of opportunity to all of God’s children. Now is the time to lift our nation from the quicksand of racial injustice to the solid rock of brotherhood.”

The four sentences together start with the same phrase “Now is the time…” to make the listeners realize the urgent need to change the reality. The listeners have the sense of being driven to the edge by a kind of growing power----they must take action at once!

SECTION THREE

3.1 CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the stylistic characteristics of an research can reveal to readers some information about the author. What’s more, a research can impress its readers by its good, clean English. Since “style” is the way of using language to express one’s thoughts and feelings, the most suitable pre-modifier to it is “appropriate” or “inappropriate” rather than “good”, “bad”, “strong” or “weak”.

In some sense, style is a person, or everyone has his style. There is no person who has no style in the world. That is why our study of one’s style starts with the choice of words, namely lexical level, and then turns to the choice of sentence structure, namely syntactic level, before discussing the use of figure of speech, namely semantic level. Besides, what is most likely to be neglected is the use of sound patterns, namely phonological level.

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The Arabic Origins of "Celestial and Terrestrial" Terms in English, German, and French: A Lexical Root Theory Approach

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Abstract: This paper examines the Arabic origins or cognates of celestial (sky) and terrestrial (earth) terms in English, German, French, Latin, and Greek, using a lexical root theory approach. The data consists of about 60 celestial and 120 terrestrial words. The results show that all such words in Arabic and English, for example, are true cognates with the same or similar forms and meanings, which means they belong not only to the same family but also to the same language, contrary to traditional comparative historical linguistics method claims. The different forms amongst such words are shown to be due to natural and plausible causes of phonetic, morphological and semantic change. For example, Latin and Greek terra, French terre, English earth, and German Erde, and Arabic arD (also thara) 'earth (dust)' are identical cognates via reversal and turning /D or th/ into /t or d/. Similarly, English acme, summit 'top' come from Arabic qimma(t) 'top' where /q/ became /k (s)/. Owing to their huge lexical variety and multiplicity besides phonetic complexity, Arabic words are the original source from which they emanated. This proves the adequacy of the lexical root theory according to which Arabic, English, German, French, Latin, and Greek are dialects of the same language with the first being the origin.

Keywords: Celestial, terrestrial terms, Arabic, English, German, French, Latin, Greek, historical linguistics, lexical root theory

1. Introduction

Investigating the genetic relationship between Arabic, English, German, French, Latin, Greek and Sanskrit has been conducted and firmly established in Jassem (2012a-f, 2013a-e). In his first study, Jassem (2012a) showed that numeral words from one to trillion in Arabic, English, German, French, Latin, Greek and Sanskrit share the same or similar forms and meanings in general, forming true cognates with Arabic as their end origin. For example, three (third, thirty, trio, tri, tertiary, trinity, Trinitarian) derives from a 'reduced' Arabic thalaath (talaat in Damascus Arabic (Jassem 1993, 1994a-b)) 'three' through the change of /th & l/ to /t & r/ each. This led to the rejection of the claims of the comparative 'historical linguistics' method which classifies Arabic and English, German, French, and so on as members of different
language families (Bergs and Brinton 2012; Algeo 2010; Crystal 2010: 302; Campbell 2006: 190-191; Crowley 1997: 22-25, 110-111; Pyles and Algeo 1993: 61-94). Therefore, he proposed the lexical root theory to account for the genetic relationships between Arabic and English, in particular, and all (Indo-)European languages in general for three main reasons: namely, (a) geographical continuity and/or proximity between their homelands, (b) persistent cultural interaction and similarity between their peoples over the ages, and, above all, (c) linguistic similarity between Arabic and such languages (see Jassem 2013b for further detail).

His subsequent research gave a decisive and clear-cut linguistic evidence. Jassem (2012b) traced the Arabic origins of common contextualized biblical or religious terms such as Hallelujah, Christianity, Judaism, worship, bead, and so on. For instance, hallelujah resulted from a reversal and reduction of the Arabic phrase la ila ha illa Allah 'There's no god but Allah (God)'. That is, Halle is Allah in reverse, lu and la (pronounced lo also) are the same, jah is a shortening of both ila ha 'god' and illa 'except' which sound almost the same. Jassem (2012c) found that personal pronouns in Arabic, English, German, French, Latin and Greek form true cognates, which descend from Arabic directly. For example, you (ge in Old English; Sie in German) all come from Arabic iaka 'you' where /k/ changed to /g (& s)/ and then to /y/; Old English thine derives from Arabic anta 'you' via reversal and the change of /t/ to /th/ whereas thou and thee, French tu, and German du come from the affixed form of the same Arabic pronoun -ta 'you'. Jassem (2012d) examined determiners such as the, this, an, both, all in English, German, French, and Latin which were all found to have identical Arabic cognates. For instance, the/this derive from Arabic tha/thih 'this' where /h/ became /s/. Jassem (2012e) established the Arabic origins of verb to be forms in all such languages. For example, is/was (Old English wesan 'be'; German sein; French etre, es, suis) descend from Arabic ka na ka 'be' where /k/ became /s/. Jassem (2012f) showed that inflectional 'plural and gender' markers as in o xen, girls, Paula, Charlotte formed true cognates in all. Similarly, Jassem (2013a) demonstrated the Arabic origins of English, German, and French derivational morphemes as in activity, activate, determine, whiten, whose identical Arabic cognates are ta (e.g., salaamati 'safety', takallam 'talk') and an (e.g., wardan 'bloom'). Jassem (2013b) dealt with the Arabic origins of negative particles and words like in-/no, -less, and -mal in English, French and so on. Jassem (2013c) outlined the English, German, and French cognates of Arabic back consonants such as /k/ in church, kirk, ecclesiastical, which all come from Arabic kanees( at) where /k & n/ became /ch & r (l)/ each. Jassem (2013d) described the Arabic cognates and origins of English, German, and French water and sea terms like water, hydro, aqua, sea, ocean, ship, navy, all of which derive from Arabic sources. Finally, Jassem (2013e) traced back the Arabic origins of air and fire terms in English and such languages.

In all the above studies, the lexical root theory was used as a theoretical framework, which is so called because of employing the lexical (consonantal) root in examining genetic relationships between words like the derivation of overwritten from write (or simply wrt). The
main reason for that is because the consonantal root carries and determines the basic meaning of the word regardless of its affixation such as overwrite, writing. Historically speaking, classical Arabic dictionaries (e.g., Ibn Manzoor 1974, 2013) used consonantal roots in listing lexical entries, a practice first founded by Alkhaleel bin Ahmad Alfaraheddi (Jassem 2012e).

Simple in structure, the lexical root theory comprises a theoretical construct, hypothesis or principle and five practical procedures of analysis. The principle states that Arabic and English as well as the so-called Indo-European languages are not only genetically related but also are directly descended from one language, which may be Arabic in the end. In fact, it claims in its strongest version that they are all dialects of the same language, whose differences are due to natural and plausible causes of linguistic change. The applied procedures of analysis are (i) methodological, (ii) lexicological, (iii) linguistic, (iv) relational, and (v) comparative/historical. As all have been reasonably described in the above studies (Jassem 2012a-f, 2013a-e), a brief summary will suffice here.

First, the methodological procedure concerns data collection, selection, and statistical analysis. Apart from loan words, all language words, affixes, and phonemes are amenable to investigation, and not only the core vocabulary as is the common practice in the field (Crystal 2010; Pyles and Algeo 1993: 76-77; Crowley 1997: 88-90, 175-178). However, data selection is practically inevitable for which the most appropriate way would be to use semantic fields such as the present and the above topics. Cumulative evidence from such findings will aid in formulating rules and laws of language change at a later stage (cf. Jassem 2012f, 2013a-e). The statistical analysis employs the percentage formula (see 2.2 below).

Secondly, the lexicological procedure is the initial step in the analysis. Words are analyzed by (i) deleting affixes (e.g., overwritten → write), (ii) using primarily consonantal roots (e.g., write → wrt), and (iii) search for correspondence in meaning on the basis of word etymologies and origins as a guide (e.g., Harper 2012), to be used with discretion, though.

Thirdly, the linguistic procedure handles the analysis of the phonetic, morphological, grammatical and semantic structure and differences between words. The phonetic analysis examines sound changes within and across categories. In particular, consonants may change their place and manner of articulation as well as voicing. At the level of place, bilabial consonants ↔ labio-dental ↔ dental ↔ alveolar ↔ palatal ↔ velar ↔ uvular ↔ pharyngeal ↔ glottal (where ↔ signals change in both directions); at the level of manner, stops ↔ fricatives ↔ affricates ↔ nasals ↔ laterals ↔ approximants; and at the level of voice, voiced consonants ↔ voiceless. Similarly, vowels may change as well. The three basic long Arabic vowels /aː (aa), iː (ee), & uː (oo)/ (and their short versions besides the two diphthongs /ai (ay)/ and /au (aw)/ which are a kind of /iː/ and /uː/ respectively), may change according to (i) tongue part (e.g., front ↔ centre ↔ back), (ii) tongue height (e.g., high ↔ mid ↔ low), (iii) length (e.g., long ↔ short), and (iv) lip shape (e.g., round ↔ unround). These have additional allophones or variants which do not
change meaning (see Jassem 2003: 98-113). Although English has a larger number of about 20 vowels, which vary from accent to accent (Roach 2009; Celce-Murcia et al 2010), they can still be treated within this framework. Furthermore, vowels are marginal in significance which may be totally ignored because the limited nature of the changes do not affect the final semantic result at all. In fact, the functions of vowels are phonetic like linking consonants to each other in speech and grammatical such as indicating tense, word class, and number (e.g., *sing*, *sang*, *sung*, *song*; *man/men*).

Sound changes result in processes like assimilation, dissimilation, deletion, merger, insertion, split, syllable loss, resyllabification, consonant cluster reduction or creation and so on. In addition, sound change may operate in a multi-directional, cyclic, and lexically-diffuse or irregular manner (see 4. below). The criterion in all the changes is naturalness and plausibility; for example, the change from /k/ (e.g., *kirk*, *ecclesiastic*), a voiceless velar stop, to /ch/ (e.g., *church*), a voiceless palatal affricate, is more natural than that to /s/, a voiceless alveolar fricative, as the first two are closer by place and manner (Jassem 2012b); the last is plausible, though (Jassem 2013c).

Some overlap exists between the morphological and grammatical analyses. The former examines the inflectional and derivational aspects of words in general (Jassem 2012f, 2013a-b); the latter handles grammatical classes, categories, and functions like pronouns, nouns, verbs, and case (Jassem 2012c-d). Since their influence on the basic meaning of the lexical root is marginal, they may be ignored altogether.

As for the semantic analysis, it looks at meaning relationships between words, including lexical stability, multiplicity, convergence, divergence, shift, split, change, and variability. Stability means that word meanings have remained constant. Multiplicity denotes that words might have two or more meanings. Convergence means two or more formally and semantically similar Arabic words might have yielded the same cognate in English. Divergence signals that words became opposites or antonyms of one another. Shift indicates that words switched their sense within the same field. Lexical split means a word led to two different cognates. Change means a new meaning developed. Variability signals the presence of two or more variants for the same word.

Fourthly, the relational procedure accounts for the relationship between form and meaning from three perspectives: formal and semantic similarity (e.g., *three*, *third*, *tertiary* and Arabic *thalath* ‘three’ (Damascus Arabic *talaat* (see Jassem 2012a)), formal similarity and semantic difference (e.g., *ship* and *sheep* (see Jassem 2012b), and formal difference and semantic similarity (e.g., *quarter*, *quadrant*, *cadre* and Arabic *qeeraaT* ‘1/4’ (Jassem 2012a)).

Finally, the comparative historical analysis compares every word in English in particular and German, French, Greek, and Latin in general with its Arabic counterpart phonetically,
morphologically, and semantically on the basis of its history and development in English (e.g., Harper 2012; Pyles and Algeo 1993) and Arabic (e.g., Ibn Manzour 2013; Altha3aalibi 2011; Ibn Seedah 1996) besides the author's knowledge of both Arabic as a first language and English as a second language.

In this paper, the lexical root theory will be used in the investigation of the Arabic genetic origins and descent of celestial and terrestrial words in English besides German, French, Latin, and Greek. It has five sections: an introduction, research methods, results, a discussion, and a conclusion.

2. Research Methods

2.1 The Data

The data consists of 60 celestial and 120 terrestrial words, selected on the basis of English thesauri and the author's knowledge of their frequency and use. They have been arranged alphabetically for quick reference together with brief linguistic notes in (3.) below. All etymological references to English below are for Harper (2012) and to Arabic for Altha3aalibi (2011: 313-27), Ibn Seedah (1996 (9): 2-125; (10): 70-140), and Ibn Manzoor (2013).

The data is transcribed by using normal spelling. For exotic Arabic sounds, however, certain symbols were used- viz., /2 & 3/ for the voiceless and voiced pharyngeal fricatives respectively, capital letters for the emphatic counterparts of plain consonants /t, d, th, & s/, /kh & gh/ for the voiceless and voiced velar fricatives each, and /'/ for the glottal stop (Jassem 2013c).

2.2 Data Analysis

The data will be analyzed theoretically and statistically. The above-surveyed lexical root theory is used as the theoretical framework. The statistical analysis employs the percentage formula, obtained by dividing the number of cognates over the total number of investigated words multiplied by a 100. For example, suppose the total number of investigated words is 100, of which 95 are true cognates. Calculating the percentage of cognates is obtained thus: 95/100 = 0.95  X 100 = 95%. Finally, the results are checked against Cowley's (1997: 173, 182) formula to determine whether such words belong to the same language or to languages of the same family (for a survey, see Jassem 2012a-b).

3. Results: 3.1 Sky Terms

Acme from Arabic qimmat(t) 'acme' via reordering and changing /q/ to /k/.

Altitude (elate, elite, elevated, aloof, loft) from Arabic 3aal(iat), 3uloo, 3alawat 'high, height' where /3 & w/ changed to /Ø & v/ each.
Ascent (ascend, ascension, descend, descent) from Arabic aS3ad, Su3ood ‘ascend’ in which /S & d/ turned into /s & t/ each while /3/ into /n/.

Atlas (Atlantic, Atlantis) 'hill, map' from a reordered Arabic tall(at/h) 'mount' where /t (h)/ became /s/, Tal3a(t) 'mount, slope' via reordering and the change of /3/ to /s/, or 3alaat 'height' via reordering and turning /3/ into /s/.

Atmosphere (Greek atmos ‘vapour, steam' and spharia 'ball, globe') from Arabic sadeem 'steam' through reordering and changing /d/ to /t/ and from Sabboor '(ball-shaped) heap’ where /b/ became /t/, sabr, asbaar (pl.) 'depth' where /b/ changed to /l/, Sabr 'highest point; white cloud' via lexical shift and turning /b/ into /l/, or safar 'place, distance, day light/white after sunset' via lexical shift.

Bottom from Arabic baTn, buToon (pl.) 'belly, bottom' in which /n/ became /m/.

Broad (breadth, abroad) from Arabic ba3eed, ab3ad 'far' where /3/ became /r/.

Celestial 'heavenly' via Latin caelum 'sky' and French ciel 'sky' from Arabic ka2la(t) 'sky' via /2/-loss, qulla(t) 'top, highest part' where /q/ changed to /k or s/, or sama, samawat (pl.) 'sky' where /m/ became /l/.

Comet from Arabic najmat 'star' via reordering and turning /j/ into /k/ and merging /n/ into /m/.

Cosmos (cosmic, cosmology, cosmetic) 'order, prepare, universe in Greek' from Arabic kawn 'universe, putting together' where /k/ split into /k & s/ and /n/ became /l/, shams, shumoos (pl.) 'sun, planet' via lexical shift, reordering, and the split of /sh/ into /s & k/, or samaa', samawat (pl.) 'skies' via reordering, and the split of /s/ into /k & s/.

Crescent from Arabic qurS, quraiSinat (dim.) 'circle' where /q/ turned into /k/.

Decline (decentration, declension) from Arabic nazal, tanzeel (n) 'go down' via reordering and the change of /z/ to /k/ or 2ana, ta2ni 'decline, bend' via turning /2/ into /k/ and /l/-insertion.

Down (under) from Arabic doon, adna 'below'.

East (eastern, Easter) from Arabic sharq, mashriq 'east' where /sh & q/ merged into /sl/.

Ease (it eased up) from a reversed Arabic Sa2oo 'stoppage of rain' where /2/ merged into /sl/.

Eclipse (ecliptic) from Arabic qalab, qalba(t/h) (n) 'turn over, collapse' where /q & t/ became /k & s/, ghaab, ghaib(at/h) (n) 'disappear' where /gh & t/ became /k & s/ while /l/ was inserted, khafas 'go down' via changing /kh & t/ to /k & p/ besides /l/-insertion.

Ecology from Arabic jaw 'sky, atmosphere' where /j/ became /k/.
Enigma (enigmatic) from Arabic najma(t) 'star' through turning /j/ into /g/.

Fall from Arabic afal 'of stars, to fall', za(wa)al 'fall, disappear' (cf. flee and leave from Arabic falla 'leave' and fell from Arabic fal3 'cut' via /3/-loss).

Galaxy ('Milky Way' via Greek gala 'milk' and kyklos 'cycle') from Arabic falak 'sky, galaxy' in which /f & k/ merged into /g/; khalqa(t) 'sky, creation' where /kh & q/ became /g & k/ each, or sukaak(at) 'sky' where /s & k/ merged besides /l/-insertion.

Heaven 'home of God' from Arabic janna(t/h), jinaan (pl.) 'heaven' through reordering and the change of /j & h/ turned into /h & v/, najm 'star' via reordering and changing /j & m/ into /h & v/ each, or kawn 'sky, universe' where /k & w/ became /h & v/ each (cf. ra2m/na2eem '(most) merciful' where /r & n/ merged while /2 & m/ became /h & v/ each and na3eem 'happiness, wealth' to which reordering and changing /3 & m/ to /h & v/ each was applied).

Helen (helium, Eileen, Ellen) from Arabic hilal 'moon, a proper name' in which /l/ turned into /n/, haala(t) 'sun circle' or ilaaha 'sun, sun god' via reordering and splitting /nl/ from /ll/.

High (height) from Arabic shaahiq 'high' via the merger of /sh & h/ into /h/ and the change of /q/ to /g/.

Horizon (horizontal) from Arabic 3arD(aani) 'width' through the change of /3/ to /h/ and the split of /D/ into /z & n/.

Inferior (infra, inferiority) from Arabic nazeer 'small' where /z/ became /f/, asfal, sulfa, insafal '(be)low' in which /s & f/ merged into /f/ while /l/ became /l/; Sagheer 'small' where /S/ changed to /f/ while /gh & r/ merged.

Latitude from Arabic 3arD, 3areeD(at) 'wide' via /3/-deletion and the substitution of /r/ for /l/.

Levant via Latin lever 'to rise, raise' from Arabic rafa3 'to raise' through turning /h/ into /l/ and /3/-loss.

Low via Old English hlow 'hill, mound' from Arabic 3uloo, 3alwa(t) 'height, hill' where /3/ became /h/ and via German läge '(lie) low, flat' from Arabic laqa2a 'to place low' where /q/ changed to /g/ besides /2/-loss (cf. saafil 'low' through reversal and /s & f/- merger into /w/ or waaT(i) 'low' via reversal and turning /T/ into /l/).

Luna (lunar, lunatic) from Arabic lail 'night' via lexical shift and changing /l/ to /n/ or hilal '(small) moon' via /l/-deletion and turning /l/ into /n/ (cf. Helen above).

Meteor (meteorite, meteoroid, meteorology) 'rock falling to earth' from a reversed Arabic rujm/jamr 'stones' where /j/ became /l/ or maTar 'rain, object falling from above'.
Moon from Arabic noor, muneer 'light, lighting' via /n & r/-merger into /nl/, qamar (amar in Damascus Arabic (Jassem 1993, 1994a-b) 'moon' via /q/-deletion and changing /r/ to /nl/, or najm, nujoom (pl.) 'star' via reversal, /j/-loss, and lexical shift (cf. Kuwaiti Arabic nayem).

Narrow 'become smaller, limited, severe' from Arabic nazeer 'small, little' where /z & r/ merged or murr 'bitter, severe' where /m/ became /nl/ (cf. near below).

Near (next, nigh) comparative of Old English neah, neh, nigh 'near' from Arabic na2wa, naa2iat 'toward, near' via /2/-deletion, change to /h/, or split into /ks/.

Next superlative of neah, neh 'near' above.

Nigh via Old English neah, neh 'near' above from Arabic na2wa 'toward, near' via turning /2/ into /g/.

North (northern) from Arabic shamaal 'north' via reordering and the change of /sh, m, & l/ into /th, n & r/ in that order.

Orbit from Arabic 3arab(at) 'run, move' through /3/-loss.

Occident (occidental) via Latin occidere 'fall/go down' from Arabic suqooT, masqiT 'fall, set' via reordering and the change of /m & q/ into /n & d/ each.

Orient (oriental, orientation) via Latin orien's 'sunrise, east' and oriri 'to rise' from Arabic mashriq 'east' via reordering and the change of /m & q/ into /n & d/, 3ala/3uloo 'rise' via /3/-loss and turning /l/ into /r/, or noor(at) 'light' via reordering.

Planet from Arabic badr, budraan (pl.) 'star' via reordering, /l/-insertion and the change of /d & r/ to /t & n/ each, binaa', binayat 'building, sky' where /l/ split from /n/ (cf. plant, plantation from Arabic nabaat 'plant, grass' and binayat 'building' via reordering and /l/-insertion.)

Sky from Arabic jaw 'sky' where /j/ split into /s & k/ or Saq3, aSqaa3 (pl.) 'region' through /3/-deletion and lexical shift.

Space (spatial) from Arabic sabsab 'land type, space', sahb, suhoob (pl.) 'spacious land' via reordering and turning /h/ into /sl/, sabkha(t) 'land type' where /kh/ changed to /sl/, or baa2a(t) 'area' via reordering and merging /2 & t/ into /sl/.

Spot from Arabic buq3at 'area' via reordering, changing /q/ to /sl/, and /3/-loss (cf. spit, spout (Jassem 2013d).
Star (astrology, astronomy, asterisk, Astra) from Arabic thuraya 'star' in which /th/ split into /s & t/ (cf. stellar below).

Stellar (constellation, stella) from Arabic thuraya 'star' in which /th/ split into /s & t/ while /r/ became /l/.

South (southern) from Arabic junoob 'south' where /j/ became /s/ while /n & b/ merged into /th/ via /l/ perhaps.

Summit from Arabic qimmat 'acme' via the passage of /q/ into /s/ or sama(wat) 'sky'.

Sun (solar) from Arabic shams 'sun' through the merger of /sh & s/ into /s/ and the change of /m/ to /l/ or from sana 'light' (cf. son from Arabic Dana 'children' where /D/ became /s/.)

Sundial from Arabic daa’ir(at), dawwar 'circle' through changing /r/ to /l/.

Sunrise from Arabic shurooq 'rise' through reversal and the merger of /sh & q/ into /s/ or Dhuhoor 'rise' via reversal and the merger of /Dh & h/ into /l/.

Sunset from Arabic suqoot 'fall' through merger of /q/ into /s/ and turning /s/ into /t/.

Super (supra, superiority, superb) from Arabic Sabr, asbaar (pl.) 'highest part; white cloud' where /S/ became /s/ or kabeer, kubra 'big' where /k/ changed to /s/ besides lexical shift (Jassem 2012b, 2013c).

Tall from Arabic Taal, Taweel 'tall' where /T/ became /t/ (cf. tail from Arabic thail 'tail' via changing /th/ to /t/, tell/tale from Arabic qaal 'say' where /q/ became /t/ (Jassem 2013c), tool from a reordered aalat 'tool', and tile from Teen 'mud' where /n/ became /l/ (see below)).

Top from Arabic qubbat 'top' where /q & t/ merged into /t/ or tabb(at) 'top'.

Up (upper) from Arabic 3ubaab 'heights' via /3/-loss.

Vast from Arabic fasees2a(t), wasees3(at) 'wide' via /f & w/-merger into /v/ and /2 & 3/-loss or merger into /s/.

Vertical from Arabic Tool, Taweel 'length' through reordering, the change of /w & l/ to /v & t/ each, and lexical shift (cf. tall above).

Void from Arabic faDaa' 'void' in which /f & D/ became /v & d/ each (cf. wide below).

West (western) from Arabic wasaT 'middle' via lexical shift, masqiT 'sun' set' via changing /m/ to /w/ and merging /q/ into /s/ (cf. waist from Arabic wasaT 'middle, waist' and waste from Arabic wasakh 'dirt' where /kh/ became /t/).
Wide (width) from Arabic faDee, faDaawat (n) 'wide' where /f & D/ turned into /w & d/ each (cf. void above).

Zodiac (zoo, zoology) via Greek zodiakos 'circle of little animals' of zoion 'animal' and –diakos from Arabic 2aiwan 'animal' where /2/ became /z/ and Tauq 'circle' where /q/ became /k/ or 2aush 'zoo' where /2 & sh/ turned into /k & s/.

3.2 Earth Terms

America from Arabic maariqa(t) 'far (land), Alidreesi's designation thereof' where /q/ became /k/.

Arctic 'of the north' from Arabic sharq 'east' via reordering, turning /sh & q/ into /k & t/, and lexical shift (cf. Pole below).

Area from Arabic 3araa' 'open land' through /3/-loss.

Arena from Arabic 3areen 'protected area' via /3/-loss.

At from Arabic 2atta 'to, until' via /2/-loss (cf. to below).

Berg from Arabic jabal 'mountain' via reordering and turning /j & l/ into /g & r/ respectively.

Borough (burgh, Canterbury) from Arabic burj, burooj 'tower' where /j/ became /g (y)/.

Block (blockade) from Arabic Salhab 'strong stone' via reversal and merging /s & h/ into /k/, jabal, jablat(t) 'mountain, block' via reordering and turning /j/ into /k/, kabbal 'block, fetter' or kabtool 'small rounded heap' via reordering and merging /t/ into /k/.

Boulder from Arabic barTeel 'stone' via reordering and turning /T/ into /d/.

Brick (break) from a reordered Arabic biSr, baSra(t) 'soft rock' where /S/ became /k/.

Cave (cavity) from Arabic kahf 'cave' via /h & f/-merger into /v/.

Cement 'cut down, slay' from a reordered Arabic qaTam 'cut' in which /q/ became /s/ while /m/ split into /m & n/, jamad(aanat) 'frozen, solidified' where /j & d/ turned into /s & t/, or a reordered maaken(at) 'of stones, strong and fixed' where /k/ became /s/.

City (citizen, civil, civilization) 'river bank' from Arabic jidda(t/h) 'river bank, a KSA city' where /j & d/ turned into /s & t/ or shaT, shuT'aan (pl.) 'coast' where /sh/ became /s/.

Calcium (calcification) from Arabic kils 'calcium'.
Clay from Arabic Sall, SalSaal 'clay' in which /S/ changed to /k/.

Cliff from a reordered Arabic likhaaf 'thin rock' where /kh/ became /k/ or quff 'big stone' via /l/-insertion.

Concrete 'thick, stiff' from Arabic ghaleedh 'thick' where /gh, l, & Dh/ became /k, r, & t/ or qarT(at), qiraaTa(t) 'cut, small things' in which /q/ changed to /k/.

Dune from Arabic dahnaa' 'dunes' via /h/-loss or nafoodh 'desert' in reverse where /f & dh/ merged into /d/.

Continent via Latin continere 'hold together' from Arabic manTiqat(a) 'area' via reordering and turning /m & q/ into /n & t/ each, qaTana 'place (name), residence, area' where /q/ changed to /k/ while /T & n/ split into two each, or qiT3at, qiT3aan 'piece(s)' in which /q/ passed into /k/.

Corner from Arabic qurna(t) 'corner' where /q & t/ became /k & r/ each.

Country from Arabic quTr 'country' via changing /q/ to /k/ and /n/-insertion.

County from Arabic qaDa'a' 'county, district' where /q & D/ passed into /k/ and /t/ each along with /n/-insertion.

Crag from Arabic 2ajar 'stone' via reordering and changing /j & / into /k & g/ each or Sakhr 'rock' where /S & kh/ became /k & g/ each coupled with reordering.

Degree from Arabic qadr 'amount' via reordering and turning /q/ into /g/ (cf. grade below).

Desert from Arabic daashirat 'unused land' in which /sh/ became /s/ or jurd 'plantless land' via splitting /j/ into /d & s/ and changing /d/ to /t/.

Destination (destine, destiny) via Latin destination 'purpose, design' from Arabic qaSda(aan), maqSad 'aim, direction' where /q & S/ merged into /s/ while /d/ split into /d & t/, waTan, tawTeen 'home' where /T/ split into /s, t, & d/, or taSnee3 'designing, making' in which /t, S & 3/ turned into /d, s, & Ø/.

Direction from Arabic Tareeq(at) 'way, direction' in which /T & q/ became /d & k/ each.

District 'hinder, detain' from Arabic qaSar, qaSrat 'to shorten, restrain' where /q/ split into /s & k/ or 2aSeer(at) 'restriction' in which /2 & S/ changed to /s & k/ besides reordering.

Domain (dominion) from Arabic dunia 'world, domain' where /n/ split into /m & n/ (cf. domination (Jassem 2012b)) or a reordered maidaan 'field'.

Dust from Arabic Tais 'dust' where /T/ split into /s & t/.
Earth from Arabic arD 'earth' through turning /D/ into /th/ (cf. terra below).

Environ (environment) 'around in French' from Arabic 2awla 'around' where /2/ became /vl/ while /l/ split into /r/ & /n/ (cf. involve, revolve, evolve (Jassem 2012b)).

Europe from Arabic gharb 'west' where /gh & r/ merged.

Fault (seismic fault) from Arabic falq 'division' where /q/ became /l/ and zilzaal 'quake' where /z & l/ changed to /s & m/ each (see below).

Fief (fiefdom) from Arabic feef, fayafi (pl.) 'land, area'

Field from Arabic falaat '(grazing) land' where /l/ became /d/.

Firmament (firm) from Arabic Saarim 'firm, strict' where /S/ changed to /f/ or sama, samawaat (pl) 'sky' via /t/-insertion and changing /s/ to /f/.

Flat from Arabic balaaT 'rock, tile, flat land' in which /b & T/ became /f & t/ each (cf. plateau below) or falTa2 'uneven' via reordering, /2/-loss, and lexical shift.

Fro (to and fro) from Arabic wara 'back' where /w/ became /f/.

From from Arabic min 'from' via changing /m/ to /f/ and splitting /n/ into /r/ & /f/.

Gap from Arabic jaib 'gap' or shi3b 'gap' in which /sh & 3/ merged into /g/.

Geology from Arabic 2aSa, 2aSoo 'pebbles, stones' via /2 & S/-merger into /j/.

Globe from Arabic qilaab 'land' in which /q/ turned into /g/.

Grad 'village' from Arabic qaryat 'village' where /q & t/ turned into /g & d/ respectively.

Grade (gradual, graduation) from Arabic daraja(t) 'grade, step' via reversal and turning /j/ into /g/ (cf. degree above).

Grits from Arabic qiraaTa(t) 'cut, small things' in which /q/ changed to /g/.

Ground from Arabic jurd 'bare land' in which /j/ turned into /g/ while /n/ split from /t/ or qardad 'high land' where /q & d/ became /g & n/ each (cf. qaraT, inqaraT 'grind' via changing /q & T/ to /g & d/ each besides /n/-insertion).

Hard from a reordered Arabic 3atr 'hard' where /3 & t/ became /h & d/ each.

Hill from Arabic 3aal, 3ula (pl.) 'high, heights' in which /3/ passed into /h/ or tall 'hill' via changing /t/ to /h/ (cf. atlas above).
Island, Isle from Arabic jazeera(t), juzur (pl.) 'island' where /j & z/ merged into /s/ while /t/ turned into /l/.

Land from a reordered Arabic laTa(at) 'land, earth, stick (lie low) to earth' where /T & t/ became /n & d/, jalad 'flat hard land' via reordering, merging /j/ into /d/ and /n/-split from /l/, nad2 'vast land' via /2/-loss and /l/-split from /n/, najd/najwa(t) 'high land' via /j & d/-merger and /l/-split from /n/, miTlaa 'flat, soft land' or milaaT 'type of mud' via reordering and turning /n & T/ into /n & d/, a reordered muTilla(t) 'mount, hill' where /m/ passed into /n/, a reordered balad, buldaan (pl.) 'region, country, village' in which /b/ passed into /n/, or a reversed dunya 'world' where /n/ split into /l & n/.

Limestone from Arabic raml 'sand' via reordering and /r & l/-merger or mil2 'salt' via /2/-loss; (for stone, see below).

Locus (location, local) from Arabic makaan(at) 'place' where /m & n/ merged into /l/, or 2aal, 2ill 'situation, place' via reversal and turning /2/ into /k/.

Meadow from Arabic mada 'space, extent', madd 'extension', maidaan 'field' via /m & n/-merger, or maTkh 'farming field' in which /T & kh/ passed into /d & w/ respectively.

Milieu from Arabic 3aalam 'world' via /3/-loss and reversal or ma2la(t) 'land' via /2/-loss.

Moor from Arabic boor 'uncultivated land' where /b/ became /m/, ameeri 'government-owned (land)', mar3a 'grazing land' through /3/-deletion (cf. Jassem 2013d).

Mound (mount, mountain, surmount) from a reordered Arabic matn, mutoon (pl.) 'hill, high land' or maTia(t) 'mount, animal' where /n/ split from /ml/ (cf. mount a horse from Arabic maTa, imtaTa, maTiya(t) 'ride, animal to ride' and faras 'horse' where /f/ became /h/).

Mud from Arabic Tami 'river mud' or Teen 'mud' via reversal and the change of /T & n/ to /d & m/ each.

Mundane via French monde from Arabic mudun, madani (adj.) 'cities, urban' via reordering or dunia 'world' through reordering and /m/-split from /l/.

Pasture (pastoral) via Latin pastus, pastura 'grass, grazing' from Arabic baSSa(t) 'grass-covered area' where /S/ turned into /s/ or bisaaT 'flat (land), rug' via /T/-split into /t & v/.

Path from Arabic sabeel 'path' or saab 'go, pass' via reversal, /l/-loss, and turning /s/ into /th/ or baT2a 'flat land' via /2/-loss and changing /T/ to /th/.

Pebble from Arabic labab 'sand type' via reversal or nabala(t), nibaal (pl.) 'small pebble' through /n/-merger into /b/.
Perth from Arabic *barth* 'soft land, earth'.

Petrol (*Peter, Petra, oil*) 'rock oil' from a reordered Arabic *balTa, balaaT* (pl.) 'flat stone' where /l/ changed to /t/, *barTeel* 'long rock' where /l/ merged into /t/, *Dhirb* 'firm stone' where /Dh/ became /t/, or a reversed and lexically shifted *turaab* 'dust'; for *oil*, see Jassem 2013d).

Place (*emplace, replace*) via Latin/Greek *platea* 'courtyard, broad way, open space' from Arabic *balaaT* 'stones' where /T/ became /s/ (cf. *Polis* below).

Plateau from Arabic *balaaT(a)* 'rock, tile, flat land' in which /T/ became /s/.

Plains from Arabic *lubn/labin* 'mud, earth' via reordering and sense shift (cf. *plain, explain, complain* from Arabic *bayen* 'clear' via /l/-insertion and *plane* from *nibal* 'arrows' via reordering sense shift).

Pole (*polar*) from Arabic *laabba(t)* 'end, side' via reversal.

Polis (*metropolis, cosmopolitan, Tripoli, police, politics, polity, place*) from Arabic *balad(at)* 'village, town' where /d/ turned into /s/.

Pottery (*potter, pot*) from Arabic *turaab* 'earth' via reordering.

Prairie from Arabic *barr, barriyat* 'the wild, prairie'.

Quarter(s) from Arabic *qariat* 'village' via /r/-insertion or *2aara(t)* 'area' where /2/ became /k/ (cf. Jassem 2012a).

Quarry from Arabic *qal3, maqla3* 'stone extraction' where /l & 3/ merged into /r/.

Realm from Arabic *3aalam* 'world' in which /3/ passed into /t/ (cf. *milieu* above).

Region from Arabic *arjaa'* 'regions' in which /n/ split from /r/.

River (see Jassem 2013c)

Road from Arabic *najd* 'way' via turning /n/ into /t/ and merging /j/ into /d/ or *Tareeq* 'road' in reverse where /r & q/ merged and /T/ became /d/.

Rock from Arabic *raaq* 'flat stone' where /q/ became /k/ (cf. *rajj, razz* 'rock, shake' where /j (z)/ became /k/), *Sakhr* 'rock' via reversal and merging /S & kh/ into /k/, or *2ajar* 'stone' via reversal, /2/-loss and turning /j/ into /k/ (cf. *sclerosis* below.)

Rome from Arabic *irma, aaraam* (pl.) 'marker stones'.

Room from Arabic *maraa2* 'animals' resting place' via reversal and /2/-loss.
Rural (rear) from Arabic ra3ee, ra3awi 'shepherd, rural, grazing' in which /3/ turned into /r/.

Rustic from Arabic ra3ia(t), ra3aat 'grazing, shepherds' where /3/ became /s/ or reef 'area close to water, rural' where /l/ split into /s & t/.

Salt (salary) from Arabic ajr, ujrat 'salary' via changing /l/ to /l/ and lexical shift (cf. sale, sell from Arabic shara 'sell, buy' where /sh & r/ became /s & l/ each.).

Sand from Arabic zalaT 'stone' in which /z, l & T/ turned into /s, n & d/ in that order or Sa3eed 'sand' via turning /3/ into /n/.

Sclerosis from Arabic Sakhr 'rock' where /kh/ passed into /k/ and /l/ split from /l/ (cf. rock above).

Secular via Latin saeculum 'age, generation' from Arabic jeel 'generation, age' where /j/ split into /s & k/ or khalq 'creation' via reordering and changing /kh & q/ to /s & k/ each.

Seismic (seismograph) from Arabic zilzaal 'quake' where /z & l/ became /s & m/ each (see fault above).

Shire (Oxfordshire) from Arabic jeera(t), deera(t) 'neighbourhood, area' via changing /j & d/ to /sh/, 2aara(t) where /2/ changed to /sh/, or Seera(t) 'walled-in structure' where /S/ became /sh/.

Site (situation, station) from Arabic saT2 'site, surface' through /2/-deletion or merger into /s/ or 2aTTa(t), ma2aTTa(t) 'place, station' where /2/ became /s/.

Slab from Arabic Solb 'sharpening stone' or Salhab 'strong stone' via /h/-loss.

Slope from Arabic jabal 'mountain' via lexical shift, reordering and changing /j/ to /s/ or sal2oob 'slope' via /2/-loss (cf. slip from Arabic sal2ab 'to move low and stealthily').

Soil from Arabic sah(at), suhool (pl.) 'earth, plain' via merging /h/ into /s/ or wa2l 'mud' via reordering and turning /2/ into /s/.

Solid (rock) from Arabic Sald 'hard' where /S/ became /s/.

Square from Arabic 2aSeer 'enclosed area' via reordering and the change of /2 & S/ to /s & k/ each, 2aara(t) 'area' where /2/ split into /s & k/, or jadhr '(mathematical) root' where /j & dh/ became /k & s/ each.

Stairs from a reordered Arabic Dhahar(at) 'back, rise, ascend' where /Dh & h/ turned into /s & t/, daraj 'stairs' via reversal and turning /d & j/ into /t & s/ (cf. degree above), or jidaar 'wall' via lexical shift.
Step from Arabic 3ataba(t) 'step' where /3/ became /s/.

Steppe from a reduced and reordered Arabic sabsab(at) 'stony land', 2aSbaa' 'stony earth' where /2 & S/ became /s & t/ each, a reversed ba2S(at), ba2Saas 'pebbles' in which /S/ became /s/, or a reordered Sabbat 'hard earth, cement'.

Stone from Arabic Safwaan 'stone' where /S & f/ became /s & t/ each, Suwaan(at) 'stone type' via /S/-split into /s & t/ or kittaan 'soft sand stone' where /k/ became /s/.

Street from Arabic Tareeq 'road' via splitting /T/ into /s & t/ and turning /q/ into /t/ (cf. road above) or Siraat 'street, path' in which /t/ is an insertion.

Talus via French talu 'slope' from Arabic Tuloo3 'uphill', turning /3/ into /s/ or /Ø/.

Terra (terrain, terrestrial, territory, subterranean, Mediterranean) from Arabic thara 'earth, dust' via changing /th/ to /t/ or arD, arDeen (pl.) in reverse where /D/ became /t/ (cf. earth above).

Tile (Tyler) via Latin tegere 'roof, cover' from a reversed Arabic ghTTa 'cover' where /gh & T/ became /g & t/ each, Teen, Taiyaan 'mud, mud builder' via changing /n/ to /l/, or aajurr 'brick, tile' where /j & r/ became /t & l/ each.

Threshold from Arabic darajat 'grade, step' via turning /d, j, & t/ into /th, sh, & d/ besides /l/-insertion (cf. degree above).

To from Arabic 2atta 'to, until' via /2/-loss or kai 'to, in order to' where /k/ became /t/ (cf. at above).

Town from Arabic madeenat, mudun (pl.) 'town' via reversal, turning /d/ into /l/ and merging /m & n/ into /n/, Teen, aTyaan (pl.) '(mud-built) village', or a reordered waTan 'home, country'.

Track (trek, truck) from Arabic Tareeq 'road' via turning /q/ into /k/ (cf. street above).

Universe (university, universal) from Arabic miSr, amSaar (pl.) 'country' through splitting /m/ into /n & v/ (cf. reverse, diverse, inverse, converse (Jassem 2013c).

Urban (urbanity, urbanize, conurbation) from Arabic bunyaan, abniat 'buildings, built area' through /l/-insertion or split from /n/ (cf. rural, rustic above).

Way (-ways, -wise) from Arabic wijha(t), wajh 'direction, way, face' via merging /j & h/ into /lh/ (cf. Kuwait Arabic waih).

Wild (wilderness) from Arabic falaat 'the wild' in which /f & t/ passed into /w & d/ each or baidaa', bawaadi (pl.) 'the wild' via /l/-insertion and turning /bl/ into /wl/.
World (German Welt) from Arabic waTan 'region, homeland' via reordering, turning /T/ into /d/ and /n/-split into /r & l/, diyaar/door, daar 'homes, world' through reversal and /l/-split from /rl/, or bilaad, buldaan 'lands, countries' via changing /b/ to /w/ along with /l/-insertion.

Vacuum (vacate) from Arabic faj, fijaaj (pl.) 'vast, open land, section' in which /j/ became /k/, fasee2 and wasee3 'wide, spacious' where /s & 2 (3)/ merged into /k/, or faraagh 'vacuum, emptiness' via /r & gh/-merger into /k/.

Valley (see Jassem 2013d)

Village from Arabic balad 'village' where /b & d/ turned into /v & j/ each (cf. ville below).

Ville (village) from Arabic 2ill(at), ma2al 'place to live in' through changing /l/ to /v/ (cf. village above).

Zone from Arabic kawn 'world' where /k/ turned into /z/ or makaan 'place' where /m & n/ merged and /k/ changed to /l/.

To sum up, the total number of sky (60) and earth (120) words amounted to 180 or so, all of which have direct Arabic cognates. In other words, the percentage of cognates is 100%.

4. Discussion

The discussion handles the relationship of the present study to the previous ones and the relevance of the lexical root theory to the data at hand. As to the former, the results show that celestial and terrestrial terms in Arabic and English are true cognates, whose differences are due to natural and plausible causes of linguistic (phonetic, morphological and semantic) change. Thus, the results agree with Jassem's (2012a) investigation of numeral words, common religious terms (Jassem 2012b), pronouns (Jassem 2012c), determiners (Jassem 2012d), verb to be forms (Jassem 2012e), inflectional 'gender and plurality' markers (2012f), derivational morphemes (2013a), negative particles (2013b), back consonants (2013c), water and sea words (2013d), and air and fire terms (Jassem 2012e) in English, German, French, Latin, Greek, and Arabic which were found to be not only genetically related but also rather dialects of the same language. The percentage of shared vocabulary or forms between Arabic and English, for instance, was 100% in all studies. According to Cowley's (1997: 172-173) classification, this ratio means that they belong to the same language (i.e., dialects).

In light of such results, the lexical root theory has been found adequate for the present analysis of as it was for all the previous ones. Therefore, the main principle which states that Arabic, English, and so on are not only genetically related but also are dialects of the same language is verifiably sound and empirically true. Tracing back all English sky and earth words to true Arabic cognates proves that clearly.
The applied procedures of the theory operated neatly and smoothly. The lexicological procedure showed that the lexical root is an adequate, analytic tool for relating sky and earth words in Arabic and English to each other by focusing on consonants and overlooking vowels because the former carry word meaning while the latter perform phonetic and morphological functions as described in section (1.) above (see Jassem 2012a-f, 2013a-e). For example, celestial and terrestrial are stripped down to their roots first as underlined.

The etymological or historical origin and meaning of lexical items cannot be underestimated. In fact, tracing the Latin, Greek, French, and German roots of English words facilitates the attainment of good results as to their Arabic origins. For example, English terrestrial and earth (German Erde) come from Latin and French terra/terre in reverse, whose Arabic cognate is arD ‘earth’ via turning /D/ into /th or t (d)/ or thara ‘earth, dust’ via turning /th/ into /t or d/ (see 3.2 above).

The linguistic analysis demonstrated how words can be genetically related to and derived from each other in four steps. To start with, the phonetic analysis was central in this regard due to the huge changes which affected Arabic consonants especially in English and other European languages as well as mainstream Arabic varieties themselves (e.g., Jassem 1993, 1994a, 1994b). These changes included deletion, reversal, reordering, merger, split, insertion, mutation, shift, assimilation, dissimilation, palatalization, spirantization (velar softening), duplication, syllable loss, resyllabification, consonant cluster reduction or creation and so on. The commonest changes were reversal, reordering, split, and merger, some of which may be due to Arabic script direction change from right to left at the hands of the Greeks. The results (3.1-2) are rife with such examples. Jassem (2013c) provides an outline of the major sound changes in this area.

The results clearly show that sound change proceeds in three different courses (Jassem 2012a-f, 2013a-e). First, it may be multi-directional where a particular sound may change in different directions in different languages at the same time. For example, Arabic thuraia ‘star’ led to star (astro-) and stellar (constellation) via the split of /th/ into /st/ and the change of /r/ to /l/ in English, French, Latin, Greek, and so on (3.1 above). Sun and solar is another example, both of which come from Arabic shams ‘sun’ through the merger of /sh & s/ into /s/ and the change of /m/ to /l/ in French and /n/ in English. Secondly, it may be cyclic where more than one process may be involved in any given case. The changes from Arabic raml ‘sand’ to English lime(stone), for example, included (i) reordering, (ii) merging /l/ into /l/, and (iii) vowel shift. Finally, it may be lexical where words may be affected by the change in different ways- i.e., lexical diffusion (see Phillips 2012: 1546-1557; Jassem 1993, 1994a, 1994b for a survey). That is, a particular sound change may operate in some words, may vary in others, and may not operate at all in some others. For example, the different forms earth (terra, terrain, terrestrial) in English is a case in point (3.1 above), which descend from Arabic arD or thara mentioned above. Such factors turn Arabic, English, German, and French to be mutually unintelligible despite the use of the same word roots (Jassem 2012a-b).
All the sound changes above exhibit naturalness and plausibility; for example, the split of /th/, a voiceless interdental fricative, in Arabic *thura‘iya* 'star' to /t (s)/, a voiceless alveolar stop (fricative) in *star*, is natural as both are closer by place and voice (cf. Jassem 2012b). Likewise, the change of /j/ in *janna(t/h)* 'heaven' to /l/ in *heaven* is plausible. (For further detail, see Jassem (2012a-f, 2013a-b).)

Morphologically and grammatically, Jassem (2012f, 2013a) described the main inflectional and derivational affixes, most of which recur here to which the curious reader can be referred. In fact, all such differences do not alter the meaning of the root itself and so they can be ignored altogether outright.

Finally, certain lexical patterns recurred on the semantic plane, all of which were reported in Jassem (2012a-f, 2013a-e). Almost all the words exhibited lexical stability such as *earth, terrain, terra, fault, rock, stone, sun, sky, moon, star, ecology*, the cognates of all of which still retain the same or similar forms and meanings in both Arabic and English. Others showed lexical shift like *America*, whose meaning shifted from Arabic *maariqa* 'far' to its current meaning in English; *Europe* 'west, sunset' has the same story which moved from Arabic *gharb* 'west, sunset' in which /gh & r/ merged to its current reference. Lexical split took place in words like *enigmatic* and *comet*, which came from Arabic *najma(t)* 'star' through different phonetic processes: in *enigma, enigmatic* /j/ became /g/ whereas in *comet* /n & m/ merged together with reordering (3.1 above). *Earth* and *terra* could have split from Arabic *arD* via reversal in the latter and turning /D/ into /th or d/. Lexical divergence was minimal as in *low* via Old English *hlaw* 'hill, mound' from Arabic *3uloo* 'height' where /3/ became /h/ and lost later. Lexical convergence was very common due to the existence of several formally and semantically similar words in Arabic. For example, *land* might derive from Arabic *laTaa(t)* 'land' through turning /T/ into /d/ and /l/-insertion, *najd* 'high land' via reordering and merging /j & d/ and splitting /l/ from /n/, or *lajad* (also *jalad*) 'land' via merging /j & d/ and /n/-split from /l/ (see 3. above); *terra* could have stemmed from Arabic *thara* where /th/ became /l/ or *arD* via reversal and turning /th/ into /l/. Lexical multiplicity occurred often in words like *ground* 'earth; smash' which derive from Arabic *jurj* 'ground' and *qaraT* 'grind, cut' where /j & q/ became /g/ besides /n/-insertion; *heaven, ease* are other examples. Like convergence, multiplicity is due to formal and semantic similarity between words. Finally, lexical variability was apparent in the presence of variant or alternative words for *earth* and *sky* in both Arabic and English, which are utilized in different ways. For example, English *earth, dust, terra, terrain, terrestrial, land, ground, moor* are a few such examples (see 3.1 above); Arabic *arD* 'earth' has tens and tens of such variants (Altha3alibi 2011: 313-327; Ibn Seedah 1996 (10: 70-146) whereas *sama* 'sky' has countless (Ibn Seedah 1996 (9: 2-125).

As to the relational procedure, many of the above lexical cognates are both formally and semantically similar, for example, *earth* and Arabic *arD* 'earth'; *terra* and Arabic *thara* 'dust' where /th/ became /l/. Some, however, are formally different but semantically similar such as
stellar and star, both of which derive from Arabic thuraiya 'star'. Others still are formally similar but semantically different such as boulder and builder in English, all of which derive from similar Arabic cognates: i.e., barTeel 'stone' and ballaT 'pave, build' via different sound changes (see 3.2 above). Thus Arabic cognates can be seen to account for the formal similarities and/or differences between English words themselves.

In summary, the foregoing sky and earth words in Arabic, English, German, French, Latin, and Greek are true cognates with similar forms and meanings. So it can be safely said that Arabic is their origin all for which Jassem (2012a-f, 2013a-b) offered some equally valid reasons such as lexical multiplicity and variety. English, German, French, and Latin do have lexical variety and multiplicity but not to the same extent as Arabic does. One has just to compare the number of sky and earth words in English dictionaries and thesauri and Arabic ones (e.g., Ibn Seedah 1975: (9) 2-125; (10) 70-146; Altha3alibi 2011: 313-27).

6. Conclusion and Recommendations

The main findings of this paper can be summed up as follows:

i) The 60 celestial (sky) and 120 terrestrial (earth) terms or so in English, German, French, Latin, Greek, and Arabic are true cognates for being similar in form and meaning.

ii) The different forms amongst such words across those languages stem from natural and plausible phonological, morphological and/or lexical factors (cf. Jassem 2012f, 2013a-e). Reversal, reordering, split, and merger were very common sound changes.

iii) The main recurrent lexical patterns were stability, convergence, multiplicity, shift, and variability; convergence and multiplicity were very common because of the formal and semantic similarities between Arabic words from which English words emanated.

iv) The huge lexical variety and multiplicity of Arabic sky and earth terms as well as their phonetic complexity compared to those in English and European tongues point to their Arabic origin in essence.

In conclusion, the lexical root theory has been applicable to and adequate for the analysis of the close genetic relationships between Arabic, English, German, French, Latin, and Greek sky and earth terms. To substantiate these findings, the current work agrees with Jassem's (2012a-f, 2013a-e) calls for further research into all language levels, especially vocabulary. Furthermore, the application of such findings to language teaching, lexicology and lexicography, translation, cultural (including anthropological and historical) awareness, understanding, and heritage is urgently needed for the dissemination and promotion of linguistic and cultural understanding, cooperation, acculturation, and peaceful coexistence.
Acknowledgements

I wish to thank everyone who contributed to this research in any way worldwide. For my supportive and inspiring wife, Amandy M. Ibrahim, I remain indebted as ever.

References


Communicative Language Teaching: A Japanese Perspective

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Abstract: It has been four years since the Revisions of the Courses of Study for Elementary and Secondary Schools was announced in 2008 by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (MEXT) and accordingly, the new English curriculum in high schools in Japan will be implemented this year, in 2013. The curriculum change emphasises the increase of communication through English in the English lessons and cultivating ‘Japanese with English abilities’ (MEXT 2003b). This change affects the current situation surrounding Teaching of English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) in many ways. The aim of this study is to report on the perception and practices of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) by Japanese Teachers of English (JTEs). In spite of theoretical developments in CLT, little is known about teachers’ attitudes towards CLT and how they implement CLT in English language classrooms in the Japanese context. Using the data collected by surveys, this study explored the complex relationship between JTEs’ beliefs and practice and indicated how JTEs actually dealt with CLT in their English teaching classrooms and to what extent JTEs were willing to change their current teaching to meet the new English curriculum in high schools.

Keywords: Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), TEFL in Japan

1 Introduction

1.1 Introduction

In Japan, English is categorised as a foreign language. This study explores the perceptions of Japanese Teachers of English (JTEs) with respect to their teaching of the English language and curriculum implementation. Since the new Courses of Study were announced in 2008, English teachers have been exposed to blame for Japanese lack of English ability. I decided to do the research on a three-way relationship between TEFL in Japan and CLT and the new English curriculum of Japanese high schools from teachers’ perspectives.
1.2 Importance of this Research

Asking teachers’ beliefs may help us find teachers’ premises, in other words, ‘an awareness of unwarranted assumptions’ (Brookfield, 1995, p.28). It will be of great importance to examine what JTEs are thinking about currently in their teaching, particularly with regard to the CLT approach, and what JTEs think about the new curriculum. The result will be relevant to future TEFL approaches and to the curriculum design and to my future action research because the new curriculum has not started yet. The research aim is to investigate teachers’ awareness of and attitudes to their current teaching styles and CLT in TEFL and the new English curriculum in Japanese high schools.

2 Literature Review

2.1. English as a Subject

English is one of the compulsory subjects in those junior and senior high schools. Until recently, most students began learning English in junior high school at approximately twelve years old and they complete six years of English education. However, English education in elementary school has just begun this year, 2011. The great majority will learn English from around ten years old to eighteen years old and there will be a full eight years of English education in the future. In addition, almost all universities or colleges set English as a compulsory subject for the first two years.

In every university institution, whether national, private or prefectural in Japan, have English entrance examinations which currently focus on reading, writing, grammar and oral-aural skills but an English speaking test is not involved. To get better scores on the test and pass the entrance examination is the main goal for most senior high school students. The entrance examinations have been a mechanism used to determine which students would be admitted to which universities. Since there is a uniform standard that distinguishes students’ proficiency levels and competence, students believe in working hard to obtain the highest possible scores on the tests. There are also high expectations to enter a better ranked university or college from their families, because entering a higher ranked university or college is considered to give a position of vantage in society. Students cram subject knowledge in order to pass the entrance examinations to a university not only for themselves but their families as well.

With this as background, we turn now to an account of approaches to CLT.

2.2 Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)

The explanations of ‘communicative’ vary widely in literature. Communication in social interaction is part of the pragmatic aspect of language and the pragmatic domain refers to the practical use of language in social interaction (Prutting & Kirchner, 1987, pp.105-17). What is
meaningful communication? It means knowing what to say and how to say it in any given situation. Significantly, practicing or drilling in the class does offer a precise focus on specific target forms but it sometimes encourages students to produce language unthinkingly (Willis, 1996, p.44). There is no real communicative language use in that case. CLT is one of the approaches which encourage students to learn the practical use of language through interaction in classrooms.

In recent years, language learning has been viewed from a very different perspective and various sources in academy or government policy started defining CLT. Brown (1994, p.245) suggested four elements of CLT as follows: (a) classroom goals are focused on all of the components of communicative competence; (b) language techniques are designed to engage learners in the pragmatic authentic, functional used of language for meaningful purposes; (c) fluency and accuracy are seen as complementary principles underlying communicative techniques; and (d) students ultimately have to use the language, productively and receptively.

Harmer (1991, p50) claimed that CLT has two main guiding principles. The first is that language is not just patterns of grammar with vocabulary items slotted in, but also involves language functions such as inviting, agreeing and disagreeing, suggesting etc., which students should learn how to perform using a variety of language exponents. The second principle of CLT is that if students get enough exposure to language, and opportunities for language use, then language learning will take care of itself. As a result, the focus of much CLT has been on students communicating real messages, and not just grammatically controlled language.

However, Okazaki and Okazaki (1993, p.7) have pointed out that CLT in Japanese language lessons entails potentially different interpretations depending on individual teachers as it is not a method but an approach. For instance, Thompson (1996, pp.9-15) proposed four misinterpretations that were common among his colleagues about CLT such as: (1) CLT is not teaching grammar; (2) CLT is teaching only speaking; (3) CLT is completing pair work (role-play and so on); and (4) CLT is expecting too much from teachers. His conclusion was that a large number of teachers showed erroneous reasoning. Would JTEs’ misconceptions be the same as his theory?

A basic principle underlying all communicative approaches is that learners must learn not only to make grammatically correct, propositional statements about the experiential world, but must also develop the ability to use language to get things done (Nunan, 1988, p.25). The situation, the topic of conversation and the conversational purpose are all important. Probably the most important of all is the relationship between interlocutors in an interaction. Teachers must encourage learners to interact with each other with the aim of achieving certain objectives.

Nunan (1988, p.26) states that different versions exist within the CLT approach. There are strong and weak versions. For example, in the strong version, language is recognised as being learnt
through engagement in interaction or communication in the target language. In recent years, however, the weak version seems to have gained swing because it seems to be able to synthesise ‘traditional’ and ‘communicative’ principles. The importance of the weak CLT is providing learners with opportunities to use their English for communicative purposes and it attempts to integrate such activities into a wider programme of language teaching. In the weak version CLT knowledge-based and productive principles are married. Namely, that is what balances productive and receptive approaches well.

2.3 New Japanese ‘Courses of Study’

The Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) determines the Courses of Study as broad standards for all schools, from kindergarten through upper secondary schools, to organize their programs in order to ensure a fixed standard of education throughout the country. A new curriculum of English education in high school will start in 2013 and there is a new set of subjects. The new ‘Course of Study’ emphasises ‘productive ability’ and the ‘content’ of English lessons. The characteristics of the new ‘Courses of Study’ in 2013 are: (1) English language education at elementary schools from 2011 (thirty-five hours in the fifth and sixth grade, a single forty-five minute lesson per week); (2) Increase in lesson hours (three hours per week to four hours) at the junior high level; (3) Integration of the four language skills (Reading, Listening, Writing, Speaking); (4) Communication-oriented organization of subjects at the senior high level; and English should be used as a main means of instruction during English lessons at senior high schools (MEXT, 2008, pp.110-16). However, only the phrase: ‘English should be used as a main means of instruction’ was taken up by a lot of mass media, the following misunderstanding: ‘English teachers should do their lessons solely through English’ exists. This has got out of control.

2.3.1 Japanese Teachers of English (JTEs)

The law of Education in Japan describes a teacher’s role as follows: The teacher at the school should deeply consider their own mission, always work hard at research and cultivation, and try to accomplish the responsibility (MEXT, 2006, Article 9th). As a teacher, cultivating teaching skills and a strong sense of responsibility for school education are required. Teaching in a Japanese senior high school involves providing a kind of lifestyle guidance for the students. A teacher concentrates not only on the cognitive development of children, but also on their social, and mental development as well. There are thirty to forty students in each class and it is like one family. Teachers shoulder students’ parents’ roles as well. Teachers let the children practise correct behaviour in school life and mandate more responsibility over the course of time (Okano and Tsuchiya, 1999, p.172). Some people blame deterioration of students’ morals on teachers’ lack of abilities to discipline them and others blame the decline of students’ willingness toward learning on teachers’ quality, which means professionalism. Therefore teachers’ quality and
abilities are being more severely criticized by the public over the last decade. The relationship between teachers and students is characterized by mutual respect.

2.3.2 JTEs’ Language Teaching Development in Tochigi in Japan

At present there are 64 public high schools and 17 private high schools in Tochigi. As for how JTEs learn new approaches or techniques for teaching English, there are in-service workshops organised by the government of Tochigi prefecture twice a year. The workshop is currently planned two parts: JTEs can observe some teachers’ lessons in some schools in the morning; and learn methods or approaches in lectures presented by some university professors in the afternoon.

2.3.3 Teachers’ Knowledge and Beliefs and Behavior

The growth of research on teachers’ beliefs has instigated new ways of thinking about teaching and about professional and educational development, from which various implications can be drawn in teacher education (Zheng, 2009, p.73). Teachers’ beliefs have been considered important concepts in understanding teachers’ thought processes, practices, and learning to teach. Pajares (1992, p.324) discussed sixteen ‘fundamental assumptions that properly were made when initiating a study of teachers’ educational beliefs’. I would like to focus on four of them among others. These are: (1) knowledge and beliefs are inextricably intertwined; (2) individuals’ beliefs strongly affect their behaviour; (3) beliefs are instrumental in defining tasks and selecting the cognitive tools with which to interpret, plan, and make decisions regarding such tasks; and (4) changes in beliefs during adulthood are rare (pp.324-26).

Freeman (2002, pp.1-13) clarified the importance of recognising the impact which teachers’ experiences have on the formation of their professional knowledge, beliefs, and patterns of action. Teachers do not simply reproduce their own experience in the classroom but reflect on their experience (Schön, 1995). However, it is natural for teachers to wish to succeed rather than to fail. Some teachers derive their self-esteem from their knowledge of the subject and classroom ability, a few from the control and power they exercise (Lewis, 2002, p.64). Every individual’s priority can differ from person to person.

What about the relationship between teacher beliefs and classroom practices? Many studies about CLT also mentioned the complex connection between teachers’ knowledge and beliefs and practices. Nunan (1987, pp.136-45) pointed out that even teachers whose goal of the lesson is communicative lessons actually carried their traditional patterns of lessons into action. Kember and Kwan (2001, p.403) argued that the way in which people teach is shaped by their conception of teaching. They mentioned that attempts to influence the quality of teaching and student learning outcomes, therefore, need to be at least cognizant of the teachers’ conceptions of teaching. If teachers’ beliefs are compatible with educational reform, it is highly likely that the new ideas will be accepted and adopted in the classroom (Levin & Wadmany, 2006, p.160). Are
JTEs’ beliefs compatible with the new English curriculum of high schools in Japan? Little mention of that relationship can be seen in literature.

There are increasing theoretical developments and approval of CLT; nevertheless CLT is not widely practiced in Japan. Whitworth (1997, p.161) argues that curriculum reforms are most likely to change teachers’ knowledge and belief systems mainly because knowledge and beliefs do not change until teachers confront difficulties in their classroom practice. The new curriculum will start soon and urges changes in the teachers’ paradigm. As Kuhn (1996, pp.62-4) indicated, paradigms control the methods and standards of a community, as well as the constellation of peoples’ cherished beliefs, values, and techniques. Is there a conflict between teachers’ beliefs and the new government reform? If so, what are the barriers for JTEs to practise CLT? It is meaningful to investigate to what extent Japanese English teachers are aware of their current teaching styles and CLT and how they apply them in the new English curriculum in Japan.

2.4 Conclusion

I reviewed TEFL in Japan and CLT and examined the most imminently relevant Japanese policy documents. It is important to note that Japanese Teachers of English (JTEs) are subject to great pressures from two different aspects: from students’ and their parents’ high expectations that students should acquire linguistic expertise or skills to pass the entrance examination; and from a government’s new curriculum reform aimed at students’ pragmatic communicative competence in English in Japan. What is more, CLT is one of the approaches which promote students’ learning language in a realistic context and enhance their communicative competence and it accords with the purpose of the new courses of study. The necessity for pragmatic English skills is clear all doubt. However, JTEs’ awareness of and attitudes towards CLT in TEFL in Japan and the new government curriculum are rarely found in literature reviews. Hence, this research project is relevant and original. The research question is: To what extent will JTEs in Tochigi high schools adapt their classroom practices to meet the new Courses of Study, with particular emphasis on CLT? Sub-questions are as follows:

(1) What is JTEs’ awareness of CLT?

(2) What are JTEs’ attitudes towards CLT?

(3) Do JTEs implement a CLT approach in their classrooms, and if yes, how?

(4) Do JTEs propose adapting their approach to meet the stipulations in the new curriculum, and if yes, how?

3 Methodology

3.1 Research Question
The research question is: To what extent will JTEs in Tochigi high schools adapt their classroom practices to meet the new Courses of Study, with particular emphasis on CLT? The sub-questions are as follows:

1. What is JTEs’ awareness of CLT?
2. What are JTEs’ attitudes towards CLT?
3. Do JTEs implement a CLT approach in their classrooms, and if yes, how?
4. Do JTEs propose adapting their approach to meet the stipulations in the new curriculum, and if yes, how?

3.2 Participants

There are 5,116 high schools in Japan (cf: 2.2.4). High schools in Japan deliver a three year education curriculum for sixteen- to eighteen-year-old students. The participants for this research were all Japanese Teachers of English (JTEs) in six different high schools in the Tochigi prefecture in Japan, where I was working as a JTE for five years.

3.3 Data Collection

Questionnaires are one of the most widely used research techniques (Robson, 2002, p.232). I could have posted the questionnaires to all the JTEs in Tochigi but instead I chose to ask several of my former colleagues to call for volunteers to assist me in my research. Moreover, while ‘Seniority’ seems to no longer to matter in many companies in Japan, it is still ingrained in the education sector. It would be difficult for younger teachers to ask senior teachers to do something without personal connections; thus, I asked my former colleagues who were older and had more powerful connections with JTEs in Tochigi. This then limited the number of teachers whom my contacts could ask through their personal connections. But while the number was limited, the method secured an engaged response. The teachers were asked to finish answering questions within seven days and it took three weeks to collect the data totally.

3.4 Questionnaire Design

The survey questions should be designed to help achieve the goals of the research and, in particular, to answer the research question (Robson, 2002, p.241). For my research, the questionnaire has three aspects: factual questions; behavioural questions; and attitudinal questions. In order to ask those types of questions, there are two different question designs. Most questions are either ‘open’ or ‘closed’. To find the answer to the research question from different aspects, I decided to use both open and closed-questions.

4 Findings
4.1 Introduction

The questionnaire is divided into four sections, which explore:
(1) The participants’ background information
(2) The participants’ goals as JTEs and their classroom practices
(3) The JTEs’ awareness of and attitude toward CLT
(4) The JTEs’ implementation of CLT in the classroom and their attitudes towards the new Japanese high school English curriculum

4.2 Section 1: The Participants

Sections 1 of the research questionnaire, which sought to gather factual profiling information of 47 Japanese teachers of English with respect to their current work qualifications, experiences in English speaking countries and frequency of English language usage in their daily lives.

Further details of the teachers’ profiles can be seen in Tables 4.1 and 4.2.

Table 4.1 Question 1.3 Work Experience

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Work Experience</th>
<th>Number of teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1~10 years</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11~20 years</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21~30 years</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31~40 years</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No answer</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>47</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.2 Question 1.4 Teachers’ employment record

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Schools</th>
<th>Number of teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>General high school</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commercial high school</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agricultural high school</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technical high school</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Special-needs (education) school</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior high school</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary school</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University or college</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private language school in Japan</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private language school in foreign country</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private tuition in Japan</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.2.1 Experience in English-Speaking Countries

According to the data, 45 teachers have been to English-speaking countries and 2 teachers have never been to such countries. The details of where the teachers have been can be seen in Tables 4.3 and 4.4.

Table 4.3 Question 1.7 The experience of being in English-speaking countries

<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td></td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>(Number of the teachers)</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.4 Question 1.8 English-speaking countries which participants have visited

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English-speaking countries</th>
<th>Number of teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The United States</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The United Kingdom</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Zealand</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ireland</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malta</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No answer ( 2 of them answered No in 1.7)</td>
<td>4(2)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.5 Question 1.9 Periods of time spent in English-speaking countries

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Length of stay in English-speaking countries</th>
<th>Number of teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No answer</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over 2 years</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1～2 years</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6～11 months</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4～5months</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2～3months</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less than 1 month</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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The results for the question regarding travel purposes can be seen in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6 Question 1.10 Purpose of the longest visit

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Purpose of the longest visit</th>
<th>Number of teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Working full time</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business trip</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working part time</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visiting friends or relatives</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School trip</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Studying in Higher Education</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourist stay</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participating a teaching training programme</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When asked about their use of English, teachers said that they use English the most in their English lessons, especially with foreign ALTs. Full findings are tabulated in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7 Question 1.11 Opportunities when participants use English nowadays

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>When teachers use English nowadays</th>
<th>Number of teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>When I do my English lessons</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When I talk to ALT teachers</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When I access information on the Internet</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When I watch English TV programs (DVDs)</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When I read English newspapers</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When I talk to friends or relatives living in foreign countries</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.3 Section 2: Teachers’ Goals and Practice in the Classroom

4.3.1 Teachers’ Goals

The teachers were asked 3 questions to find out the ‘importance’ of teachers’ attitudes towards their goals as a teacher on a seven-point numerical scale.

The results of Table 4.8 show teachers’ priorities as a teacher. ‘To help students get into universities or colleges’ had the highest average score. On the other hand, ‘To do peer-observations and practice methodologies’ and ‘To work well with colleagues’ had the lowest average scores. These are very important findings.

Table 4.8 Question 2.1 Goals as a teacher in a school

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Average rating (Max.7)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To help my students get into universities or colleges</td>
<td>6.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To fulfil the current requirements of my school duties</td>
<td>6.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To improve my English proficiency</td>
<td>5.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To guide my students in their choices of career</td>
<td>5.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To pass on expert knowledge of my subject</td>
<td>5.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To support my students when they have problems in their private lives</td>
<td>5.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To do peer-observations and practice methodologies</td>
<td>4.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To work well with colleagues</td>
<td>3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others: to stimulate students intellectually and to help students develop their abilities</td>
<td>0.14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In response to the second question on goals, ‘to coach students for better scores in the English examinations’ was the second highest scoring option. In addition, ‘to do well on entrance examination of English to universities or colleges’ was the highest priority which teachers
wanted students to achieve through their high school education in response to the third question on a goals. These data are relevant to teachers’ classroom practices.

Table 4.9 Question 2.2 Goals as a Japanese teacher of English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Average rating</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To motivate my students to learn the English language</td>
<td>6.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To coach my students for better scores in the English examinations</td>
<td>6.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To support my students in having an open mind towards the culture of the English-speaking world</td>
<td>6.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To motivate students to become independent, lifelong learners</td>
<td>5.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To assist my students in understanding of their own identity through English lessons</td>
<td>5.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To prepare my students work through English in Japan</td>
<td>4.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others: to help students express their opinions and talk about some social issues</td>
<td>1.14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.10 Question 2.3 What do teachers hope students will achieve

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Average rating</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To do well on entrance examination of English to universities or colleges</td>
<td>6.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To speak and communicate with people in English for pleasure</td>
<td>5.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
To develop a love of the English language 5.4
To read literary works in English 5.19
To speak and communicate with people in English for work 5.14
To write academic reports in English 5.0
To be able to work abroad through English 4.6
Others: 0.4
to let students get to like English 0.14
to be able to express their opinions 0.14

4.3.2 JTEs’ Learning about Teaching

6 teachers answered that they were not interested in learning new approaches or techniques for teaching English. Surprisingly, it is 12% in percentage terms and that is quite high. The most common answer was ‘Through trial and error in teaching English in the class’ and ‘Through observing other teachers’ lessons’ was second. It might be considered that teachers rely more on learning from their experiences than learning theories from literature or in the workshops.

Table 4.11 Question 3.1. How do teachers learn about new approaches or techniques

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>How do teachers learn approaches or methods</th>
<th>Number of teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Through trial and error in teaching English in the class.</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Through observing other teachers’ lessons</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Through attending various workshops in private</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Through reading journals</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Through attending in-service workshops organised by the government</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Through attending modules in Higher Education</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others: Debate practice or conversation circle</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
However, given the opportunity to name any other approaches to English language teaching, only 18 teachers expressed their ideas. More than half of the participants did not or could not answer this question. This is one of the key data to find out teachers’ awareness of their teaching practices and CLT.

Table 4.12 Question 3.5 Names of approaches or methods participants identified

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Names of approaches or methods they answered</th>
<th>The number of teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grammar-Translation Method</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Audio-Lingual Method</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The natural approach</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graded direct method (GDM)</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Silent way</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suggestopaedia</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Physical Response (TPR)</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pattern-practice</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task-Based Learning (TBL)</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Focus on Form</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Critical thinking</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multiple intelligence</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cooperative learning</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Situational approach</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the data in Table 4.12 above, we can see teachers seem to identify approaches or methods that are not always directly related to language teaching. Comparing this data with the findings in Table 4.14, they know what they do but they seem not to be able to tell the name of approaches or methods.

4.3.3 Classroom Practices

46 teachers answered that they are teaching reading and writing in English for academic purposes and 44 teachers answered that they usually translate English sentences into Japanese (or Japanese into English) and explain grammar rules in their English lessons. Moreover, question 4.1 was an open-ended question which asked respondents to describe their current teaching style, but the results were the same as above.

Some JTEs’ answers were that:
‘Reading skill is the most important among 4 skills (Reading, Listening, Writing and Speaking) and we need explain the effective reading skills through translation and teaching grammar rules’.

It seems that many teachers admit they do ‘Grammar-Translation’-based lessons and they often use a workbook for drills or pattern practices. That is because their goal is to get students to have better scores on the English examination to enter universities or colleges as seen earlier in Table 4.9.

In contrast, 6 teachers answered ‘Teaching conversational English’, and ‘Teaching cultural awareness’ was the least common answer. Similarly, ‘Create real-life scenarios in the classroom to replicate a real-life situation’ was the least popular classroom activity and this stands for the current infrequency of implementation of CLT in the classroom. This finding is relevant to answering the research question.

Table 4.13 Question 1.6 What teachers teach

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What do teacher think they are teaching</th>
<th>Number of teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teaching reading and writing English for academic purposes</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching conversational English</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching cultural awareness</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others: Teaching children illustrated story books in private</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching English through the authorized textbook</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.14 Question 3.2 Most popular classroom activities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activities in the English lessons</th>
<th>Number of teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Translating English sentences into Japanese (or Japanese into English) and explaining grammar rules</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Focussing on vocabulary, collocation and chunks and explaining how people actually use these lexical items</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working through a set text book and explaining units or doing exercises</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using workbooks so that students can practice</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
and test the vocabulary or grammar points which they are learning

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Using pair or group work so that students can develop the topic with others through interaction in Japanese</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using pair or group work so that students can discuss the topic with others through interaction in English.</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students presentations followed by question and answer sessions in English</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Create real-life scenarios (For example, buying something through English, complaining in a hotel, answering the phone in English etc) in the classroom to replicate a real-life situation</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As I mentioned above, many teachers considered that reading skill was very important but having students read English sentences in textbooks aloud was also another popular answer. 10 teachers wrote similar answers:

‘Reading English sentences in the textbooks aloud helps students get accustomed to pronunciation in English and helps students’ input of vocabulary or understand the differences of sentence structures between Japanese and English’.

This result leads us to one of the most common teachers’ misconceptions of CLT.

4.4 Section 3: Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)

4.4.1 Teachers’ Awareness of CLT

Firstly, we see from Table 4.15 that 45 teachers have definitely heard about CLT. If we look at which skill teachers think is important for CLT in Table 4.16, the result shows that the speaking skill is the most important in CLT and writing is the least. Also, since the previous results indicate that more teachers considered the reading skill important, we can get a sense of the result that the reading skill is the second. What is more, teachers seem to agree that CLT needs a lot of teacher preparation and CLT promotes English lessons through English as seen in Table 4.16.

In contrast, the lowest result was CLT will help students to pass the entrance examinations for universities or college. Teachers seem to think that teaching grammar is needed even in CLT but CLT is not suitable approach for students to pass the examination. Compared to the results in Table 4.8, 4.9 and 4.10, a certain consistency can be seen. Teachers’ goals are to coach their
students for better scores in the English examinations, therefore, CLT is not an effective approach for their goals.

Table 4.15 Question 3.3 Teacher awareness of CLT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Awareness Level</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very familiar</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Familiar</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unfamiliar</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Completely new</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No answer</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total (Number of teachers)</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.16 Question 3.4 Teachers’ perceptions of CLT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>The average rating (Max.5) to Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teaching speaking is an important element in communicative language teaching</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching reading is an important element in communicative language teaching</td>
<td>4.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using listening materials (textbooks and CD etc) is an important element in communicative language teaching</td>
<td>4.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communicative language teaching encourages students to use English in a real world context</td>
<td>4.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching lexical competence (vocabulary, idioms etc) is an important element in communicative language teaching</td>
<td>4.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching writing is an important element in communicative language teaching</td>
<td>4.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communicative language teaching needs a lot of teacher preparation (materials, time etc)</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communicative language teaching promotes English lessons through English</td>
<td>3.89</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Teaching grammar is an important element | 3.83  
Communicative language teaching develops attitudes of tolerance toward other countries, people and customs | 3.7  
Using the communicative language teaching approach will help my students to get jobs in their future | 3.6  
Communicative activities (role-play, real-play, discussion etc) are more time consuming than other approaches | 3.4  
Fluency of English language is an important element in communicative language teaching | 3.3  
Accuracy of English language is an important element in communicative language teaching | 3.08  
Using the communicative language teaching approach will help my students to pass the entrance examinations for Universities or Colleges | 3.0

4.4.2 Teachers’ Attitudes toward CLT

41 teachers expressed their opinions. Through their opinions, there can be seen 4 common ideas as advantages of CLT. These are: (1) CLT encourages students’ motivation or desire to keep studying English; (2) students can improve their speaking and listening skills through simulated real-life situations; (3) CLT helps students express their ideas in the classroom; and (4) students learn communication skills such as how to interact with others. These are some sample quotations and these sentences in English were all written by the participants and there was no interpretation by the researcher:

- ‘Students are able to gain their desire to communicate using English or heighten their motivation to learn’
- ‘Students can listen to English or speak English more in ‘real-life’ world in CLT lessons’
- ‘It is useful for students to express themselves through English in the class’
- ‘CLT may promote students’ abilities of communication and interaction’

On the other hand, 4 common disadvantages of CLT were identified by teachers. These are: (1) CLT is time-consuming and it is difficult to finish the textbook; (2) CLT depends on a teacher’s
English proficiency; (3) teachers cannot make sure whether students understand the main point of the lesson; and (4) students cannot improve ‘academic English’ through CLT. Many teachers also mentioned that CLT was not useful in improving students’ reading skills. Further, we can see that teachers consider reading skills important. Sample extracts from responses:

- ‘CLT is time consuming and I cannot follow the syllabus’
- ‘CLT is up to teachers’ English proficiency and it is not appropriate for exams’
- ‘It is difficult to see how much the students understand what they’re doing’
- ‘Students cannot learn ‘Academic’ English sentences through CLT’

4.4.3 How Teachers Implement CLT

First, 13 teachers answered that it is impossible to do CLT in their lessons or that they rarely use CLT. Secondly, 8 teachers answered that they sometimes do CLT with foreign ALT teachers or use pair-work, role-play and so on. Lastly, 21 teachers explained how they use CLT in their lessons.

Table 4.17 Question 4.2 To what extent teachers use CLT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I sometimes use CLT</th>
<th>Appear to use CLT</th>
<th>Impossible / Never</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8 teachers</td>
<td>21 teachers</td>
<td>13 teachers</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The main reasons for 13 teachers’ negative responses regarding CLT are evident from the following extracts:

- Because I do not know how to do it
- It is difficult to explain grammar rules in English
- It is difficult for students to understand it
- There is no interaction between students in my class
- Because of the size of the class and teaching plans

However, 21 respondents do use CLT and explain how as follows:

- I use CLT as oral introduction in the lesson (5 teachers)
- When I have students paraphrase sentences in English (3 teachers)
- When I use classroom English (14 teachers)
- Questions and Answers in English (6 teachers)

It should be stressed that these above uses are not CLT. The primary issue here is that teachers’ descriptions of CLT may not be articulated fully.
4.5 Section 4: How Teachers Adapt To Meet the New Curriculum

4.5.1 English as a Main Means of Instruction in English Lessons

One of the main changes in the new curriculum is the plan that English lessons will be held through English. 40 teachers answered this question. 3 teachers strongly disagreed and none of them supported the proposal that English lessons be all in English. 37 teachers’ answers shared commonalities. Their answers were that using English as much as possible is important but it is not helpful when students need to understand the usage of vocabulary or grammar rules in the class.

- English lessons through English are not good for the students at elementary level. We cannot make sure students’ accuracy of English, some students may get wrong information so it is necessary to use their mother tongue in foreign language education.
- To use only English is not practical. To use as much as English as possible is very important but logical understanding of the language is also important in second language learning. So teachers have to use some Japanese in English lessons.
- It is better to use English as much as possible in the lesson but teachers also have to improve their English proficiency.

4.5.2 Changes in JTEs’ Current Teaching Techniques

Other changes in the new curriculum are the integration of four language skills (Reading, Listening, Writing, Speaking) in English lessons and the communication-oriented organization of subjects. The final question reveals to what extent teachers will expand their current teaching techniques in order to meet the new curriculum. This is the most relevant to answering the research question of this dissertation. 38 teachers answered and 5 teachers responded that they did not know.

Table 4.18 Question 4.5 How to meet the new curriculum

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I will make any effort</th>
<th>I do not know</th>
<th>I will not change my teaching style</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- I think it will be necessary to make an effort individually to enhance the quality of my work.
- Role-playing and other conversational activities will be required in my classes. Grammatical drills might be unnecessary but I won’t cut it all the way because I believe it’s essential when we need to support the students to be able to use communicative English when they get a job.
- Unless the entrance examination is changed, the teaching techniques may not be changed.
School is not conversational language school. Educating students as a human through learning English. Focusing on English competence too much is worse in school education so we need flexible approach about that.

- Even if the new English curriculum starts, what we have to do for the students is the same. All the students who study here hope to enter a good university. It may be true that communicative language teaching method is important, but the fact is that we are facing the difficulties for the entrance exams.

Whereas teachers recognise the importance of the practical usage of English in the class, teachers seem to think that it may take time to change their teaching styles. Ultimately, the Entrance examination to university appears to be a serious deterrent for them.

5 Conclusion

5.1 JTEs’ Awareness of CLT

5.1.1 Teachers’ Misconceptions about CLT

As predicted by the literature, the findings showed that teachers hold several misconceptions about CLT. Although only 12 teachers answered that CLT was unfamiliar to them, 33 teachers answered that they knew CLT. Comparing the findings to Thompson’s four teachers’ misinterpretations about CLT, interestingly, there was one similarity and three differences between JTEs’ awareness about CLT and Thompson’s theory.

First of all, the similarity was that CLT expects too much from teachers. Almost all the teachers claimed that preparing such communicative activities was time intensive (cf. Table 4.16). In addition, the common answer concerned textbooks. Some teachers complained because the current textbooks did not include many communicative activities and they had to prepare additional materials by themselves. Teachers are bothered about what materials or which ‘real-life’ situations they should use for CLT without textbooks. This means that most teachers focus on the importance of following and completing textbooks and still rely on traditional methods such as teacher-fronted and teachers’ lecture with textbooks. As Richards mentioned, teachers’ roles in CLT are varied: facilitator; organiser; group process manager; and needs analyst. CLT is not teachers’ perfect presentation about what is written in the textbook. This finding means that JTEs hardly do their lessons beyond the textbooks and their willingness to create ‘real-life’ scenarios in their classrooms is quite low (cf. Table 4.14).

Secondly, Thompson’s other theories were that CLT is not teaching grammar rules and CLT is teaching only speaking. However, the JTEs answers were different. JTEs admitted teaching speaking is the most important element of CLT, but teaching reading is as important as teaching speaking in CLT and teaching grammar rules was indispensable even in CLT. Regarding
Nunan’s weak versions of CLT, CLT can be applied to teaching four skills (reading, listening, speaking and writing) rather than teaching only speaking skills. Of note is the fact that teaching reading skills and grammar rules tend to be ‘receptive approaches’ and do not achieve the main elements of CLT: to let students get enough exposure to use English. No one mentioned reading activities which encourage students to use English as much as possible: such activities which would constitute CLT.

These findings strongly indicate that JTEs’ concepts of CLT do not include techniques to encourage learners in the pragmatic authentic, functional use of language for meaningful purposes (Brown cf. 2.2). Although JTEs know that CLT improves students’ speaking and listening skills at a theoretical level, JTEs’ practical knowledge about CLT is very flawed.

5.1.2 Little Implementation of CLT in Japanese Classrooms

Thompson’s last theory was that CLT is completing pair work (role-play and so on). However, the data yielded interesting results. Unexpectedly, the answers for the question which asked how JTEs used CLT, even occasionally, in their lessons showed that there were few of them who answered that CLT needed pair work. Moreover, the numeric result of question 3.4 (cf. Table 4.16) showed that more than half of the teachers did not think that communicative activities in the lesson were time-consuming. This may be because they did not consider real communicative activities like pair work and group work. Using pair work or group work is not the only goal of CLT but they are necessary in order for students to interact with others. Sometimes, it is difficult to stop students’ sharing their ideas or to facilitate the time in the lesson to do this effectively.

Of particular interest was that JTEs thought that oral and grammar practice activities and teachers’ oral introduction in English and classroom English were communicative activities. JTEs think if students or teachers say something in English (cf. 4.4.3: repeating English sentences after the teacher or reading the textbook aloud in English), that is the communicative activity rather than focusing on the relationship between interlocutors in an interaction. It is obvious that practicing and drilling are not communicative at all. There is no conversation or interaction with others and acquiring sociolinguistic or pragmatic competence which is communicative competence cannot be achieved. It is important to note that teachers’ speech in English and reading aloud practice are not communicative activities and that teachers control the lesson most of the time, so students’ interactions with others are limited.

My findings showed that teachers hold misinterpretations about CLT and those were different from Thompson’s theory. Though only eight teachers seemed to use CLT partly, on the whole, traditional teacher-centred style continues to dominate and encouraging students’ learning through interaction with others is little practised.

As for JTEs’ awareness of CLT, their knowledge of CLT is still developing.
5.2 JTEs’ Attitudes towards CLT

5.2.1 JTEs’ Resistance to CLT

JTEs put up a resistance to CLT. That is what we can see from the findings. Then, what are barriers to CLT? There are two facts to discuss. Firstly, through the survey, I found that teachers’ first priority or goal as a JTE was to motivate their students to learn the English language (cf. Table 4.9). As mentioned in the literature review, most senior high school students’ goals are to enter university or college and entrance examinations currently focus on reading, writing, grammar and oral-aural skills but an English speaking test is not involved. Hence, the data highlights the fact that CLT was not useful in reality for students to get better scores on the entrance examination to universities or colleges. Why is CLT ineffective for the entrance examinations? It should be noted that JTEs have a strong bias: students cannot learn ‘Academic English’ through CLT.

There are distinct types of English taught in Japan: Eigo is learning linguistic knowledge of English for the purposes of passing exams in school education; and Eikaiwa whose purpose is to learn the language for communication in private conversational schools by individuals. Some teachers said that high school is not a conversational language school and students should learn more academic English. Teachers seem to consider CLT as Eikaiwa and that it should be learned individually in students’ private time. Conversational English is likely to be disdained and acquiring practical language skills are totally reliant on individual efforts. That is why the majority of Japanese are those who learned English as ‘knowledge’ but cannot use English as a ‘communication tool’. This bias seems to be one of the barriers to CLT.

Secondly, the answers to question 4.2 (cf.4.4.2) showed the other main reason for resistance to CLT. That is JTEs’ English proficiency. Four teachers did not have confidence in terms of practical English. Two of them wrote the reason that they did not really know real English itself was because of their limited experience in English-speaking countries. Teachers’ own experiences may have effects on the formation of their professional knowledge, beliefs, and patterns of action (Freeman, cf. 2.3). Their lack of self-confidence in their experiences in English-speaking countries or their English proficiency is the other barrier to CLT.

As mentioned in the previous section, most JTEs misinterpreted CLT as teachers’ lecture with textbooks. Consistently, JTEs suggest that good teaching involves explaining things well in lessons. This has implications for the implementation of the new curriculum and more detailed discussion is in the following section.

5.3 JTE Practice and the New Curriculum

5.3.1 Teachers’ Misconceptions about the New Curriculum
One of the characteristics of the new ‘Courses of Study’ in 2013 is that English should be used as a main means of instruction during English lessons at senior high schools. Since this phrase was published, the following misunderstanding exists: ‘English teachers should do their lessons solely through English’. This has got out of control because a lot of mass media took up only this phrase. In particular, that misconception was seen in JTEs’ responses. ‘Explaining grammar rules all in English is not effective for students’ or ‘no confidence in their English proficiency for doing their lessons all in English’ were seen (cf. 4.4.3). Given the findings, it would be reasonable to say that JTEs have misinterpreted the new curriculum to mean teaching reading, writing and grammar rules all in English; in other words, applying their current teaching styles all in English. Therefore, this is relevant to the misconception of CLT and led to JTEs considering CLT as doing their current teaching styles all in English.

JTEs’ current teaching styles are: translating English sentences into Japanese and explaining grammar rules with textbooks or workbooks. Their goals are teaching ‘Academic English’ for students to enter the university or college (cf. Table 4.14).

English lessons in which both teachers and students use English as much as possible are still unfamiliar and the main concept of CLT is little known among JTEs.

What is important in this discussion is one of the characteristics of the new English curriculum (communication-oriented English lessons) focuses on a CLT approach and not on using JTEs’ current teaching styles all in English. Then, how do teachers develop their knowledge about the new curriculum and teaching skills? We will discuss this in the next section.

5.3.2 JTEs’ Language Teaching Development

We found that the conceptions of CLT which JTEs in this research had were different from theoretical conceptions because they have little knowledge about CLT. The findings also showed that JTEs could hardly name approaches to English language teaching (cf. Table 4.12). How could they learn the nature of CLT? The data highlighted that thirty teachers answered they learned through trial and error in teaching English in their lessons (cf. Table 4.11). However, in fact, the activities that they are thinking of as CLT are not CLT. The second most common answer was through observing other teachers’ lessons, but there was little opportunity to see other teachers’ lessons among English teachers in Tochigi. What is more, only eleven JTEs stated in-service workshops as their answers. The environment for JTEs’ professional development needs to be developed. If there were more effective workshops and greater opportunities to observe others’ lessons, it would better encourage teachers more to consider their current language teaching or prompt them to cultivate their knowledge of teaching.
5.4 Limitations of the Results

Teachers’ awareness of and attitudes toward CLT relate to their practice in their classrooms. However, it is very important to note that the data which was used was from small-scale research and the result was based on the answers of 47 JETs in Tochigi in Japan. As the data might be affected by the educational policy in Tochigi, teachers’ working environment or any other elements, it would not be the same, if the research was done in different prefectures in Japan.

5.5 Conclusions

This study has shed light on some of the macro- and micro-relationships among key stakeholders in terms of educational policy; teaching methods and approaches in EFL; as well as teachers’ beliefs and practices. Jordan et al (2008, p.151) mentioned that education is never value-free. The government’s plan to cultivate Japanese English abilities is part of the national effort to survive in an era of Globalization. The view of English as a tool is not questionable in itself, however, the goals of English education differ between teachers, students in high schools and the government, and it is often invisible from outside of Japan. Consequently, both individual teachers and students are forced to engage in practices that are far from effective in teaching and learning English in ‘communicative’ ways.

In order to answer the research question, I set four sub-questions. The first question was what JTEs’ awareness of CLT is. Teachers’ concepts of CLT were very flawed and the development of their knowledge about CLT is necessary. The second question was what JTEs’ attitudes towards CLT are and the answer was that teachers had a strong resistance to CLT. The third question was whether they implemented a CLT approach in their classrooms and if so, how. Though a few of the participants’ answers included students’ activities, little real communicative language teaching was conducted in the current English classroom in Japan. The last question was whether they proposed adapting their approach to meet the stipulations in the new curriculum and if so, how. The answer is that most teachers will not change their current teaching styles. There is a big gap between teachers’ and government goals and little knowledge of and confidence in CLT result in little implementation of CLT. This result is a quite relevant to the implementation of the new English curriculum in 2013. By way of conclusion, it is reiterated that the prospect of adapting teaching practices to integrate CLT to meet the new Courses of Study in JTEs in Tochigi high schools is considerably dim.

The resource of this research was only JTEs’ perceptions in Tochigi, however, I could see their current concepts of their lessons, awareness of and attitudes to CLT, and their perceptions of the new English curriculum by their honest and cooperative responses. In terms of the qualitative research, the result was meaningful and worthwhile.
6 Suggestions and Recommendations

The relationship between knowledge, beliefs and practice is complex. I attempted to examine teachers’ perspectives on CLT and their willingness to meet the new English curriculum in Japanese high schools through questionnaires. As further research, using a combination of three sources (a survey, interviews with teachers and observation of their lessons) is suggested. This will allow researchers to see what teachers say and what actually happens in the classroom. The multiple data sources will allow them to conduct more meaningful explanations.

What is more, there are some further questions for future study with regard to my research question. How can teachers better develop their pedagogical knowledge? What is the link between teachers’ personal experiences and professional development? How can teachers better deal with the new developments in their professional lives? How can teachers improve their willingness to adapt to new methods or approaches? These questions could provide further useful information to complement the results of this research.

Last of all, Richards (2001, p.171) claimed that ‘traditional procedures are not rejected but are reinterpretated and extended’. There are also two phrases in Japanese: ‘Wa kon kan sai’- the Japanese spirit imbued with Chinese learning and ‘Wa kon yo u sai’- the Japanese spirit combined with western learning. In history, Japan has accepted both ancient Asian and Western elements. It is easy to resist different values, however, to take a balance between retaining tradition and challenging new things has been stressed in our history. It may be interesting to keep inquiring how ‘Communicative Language Teaching’ copes with the traditional language teaching in the future. I hope that this research can serve as a point of departure to facilitate further research on the implementation of the new Courses of Study and Communicative Language Teaching in Teaching English as a Foreign Language in Japan.

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Enhancing the Iranian EFL Learners' Reading Comprehension through Implicit Vocabulary Learning Strategy

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Abstract: This study examines the impact of Discussing Your Feelings with Someone Else as an implicit vocabulary learning strategy of Iranian intermediate EFL learners. In order to identify the aforementioned group in terms of language proficiency, an Objective Placement Test was administered to a population of 130 intermediate undergraduate EFL students at the Omidiyeh Islamic Azad University in Khuzestan, Iran. Ultimately, sixty intermediate students were selected and assigned into two experimental and control groups. The experimental group was taught vocabulary learning strategy through Discussing Your Feelings with Someone Else as an implicit vocabulary learning strategy for developing their vocabulary storage in reading comprehension. After ten sessions of treatment, the two groups were given a post-test of an achievement vocabulary test. Data analysis was conducted through samples t-test statistics. It demonstrated that the experimental group who utilized Discussing Your Feelings with Someone Else as an implicit vocabulary learning strategy outperformed the control group.

Key Words: Vocabulary Learning Strategy, Implicit vocabulary learning Strategy, Reading Comprehension, Discussing Your Feeling with Someone Else Strategy

Introduction

Vocabulary acquisition is crucial in all parts of our academic life and it is necessary element to academic development, the teaching situation becomes more difficult when our vocabulary storage is not enough and acceptable. In other hand, many native or non-native English speakers will want to improve and enlarge their English vocabulary whether at the school, college or the university level (Grieser, 2009). Vocabulary knowledge is essential to students’ academic success because if students do not understand the meaning of the words in the text, they will
have difficulty understanding the content. Vocabulary knowledge is the single best predictor of
els’ academic achievement (White, graves, & Slater, 1990).

Pittman (2003) looks at EFL vocabulary learning as the most important element of language
learning, and Martin (1991) asserts that building a good vocabulary is a lifetime project for most
educated people. In addition, having a good storage of vocabulary has a direct relationship in
commanding in the four language skills of reading, writing, listening and speaking and with
standardized test-taking (Pittman, 2003). Also according to (Xiao-hui, Jun, & Wei-hua, 2007),
the knowledge of students in language proficiency in vocabulary, plays very important role in
text comprehension. Moreover, understanding new vocabulary should be meaningful to students
by connecting these words to something they already know (Iwai, 2007).

Weak storage of vocabulary will trigger into communication problems. Also for communication
purposes, vocabulary is a very important component for the sake of receiving the necessary
knowledge. Therefore, teachers should pay special attention in teaching vocabulary and
introduce the suitable strategies to help students in enhancing their new and unknown vocabulary
(Hall & Sabey, 2007). According to Cahyono & Widiati (2011), the vocabulary command and
having very good vocabulary storage supports each of the language skills. Knowledge of
vocabulary is very effective in affecting learners’ comprehension on other skill like reading and
listening, meanwhile it also affects the way learners convey their ideas into writing and speaking.
Oxford (1990) comprehensively defines "Learning strategies are specific actions taken by the
leaner to make laming easier, faster, more enjoyable, and more self - directed, more effective,
and more transferable to new situations (p. 8). Takač (2008) explains that VLS are “specific
strategies utilized in the isolated task of learning vocabulary in the target language” (p.52) and
adds that learners could, in fact, use them in any other field of language learning.

According to Schmitt (1997), "Vocabulary learning strategies could be any action which affects
this rather broadlty-defined process" (p. 203). Similarly, Cameron (2001) defines VLS as "actions
that learners take to help themselves understand and remember vocabulary" (p. 92). Nation
(2001) states that vocabulary learning strategies are part of general language learning strategies.
Thus, it can be claimed that vocabulary learning strategies can contribute successfully to
learning. Although there are many factors that make students successful or unsuccessful in
language learning, using or not using appropriate VLS might be one among them. In addition,
Sener (2009) confinns that "vocabulary is central to language and of critical importance to the
typical language leamer" (Zimmerman 1998, p. 5).

The increasing body of research on VLS, particularly in the last two decades as Atay and
Ozbulgan (2007) also maintain, wishes to shed more light on learners' strategy repertoire and
facilitate second/foreign language vocabulary learning and recall. All in all, research shows that
many learners employ learning strategies in vocabulary learning more frequently than in any
other language learning activities (O'Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Küpper, & Russp, 1985).

Ellis (2008) defines explicit and implicit knowledge in this way:

“Implicit knowledge is intuitive, procedural, systematically variable, automatic, and thus available for use in fluent unplanned language use. It is not verbalizable. … Explicit knowledge is conscious, declarative, anomalous, and inconsistent (i.e., it takes a form of fuzzy rules inconsistently applied) and generally accessible through control processing in planned language use. It is verbalizable … like any type of factual knowledge it is potentially learnable at any age.”

Hunt and Beglar (1998) point out that many vocabularies are learned implicitly through extensive reading and listening. Accordingly, motivating learners to read and listen extensively can provide them with great opportunities to learn new vocabularies.

Shmidt (1990; cited in Nyiazadeh, 2009), also points out that implicit learning is definitely passive in that it can happen when the focus of attention is on some relevant features of input. However, he believes that since implicit learning is useful in task-based language, pedagogy is still a fruitful area of investigation.

So far, many studies have been carried out in the field concerning vocabulary learning/teaching approaches. For instance, Huckin and Coady (1999) investigated the role of Implicit and explicit vocabulary acquisition. They conclude that implicit vocabulary learning is not entirely incidental in that learners pay at least some attention to individual words.

The use of VLS in association with field sensitivity was investigated by Chiang (2004) who also observed that older students were inclined to employ more strategies in vocabulary learning. The Taiwanese students in his research who pursued English major reported being more positive towards the use of almost all VLS than their non-English peers. Yu (2000) also examined the use of VLS from sociocultural perspectives through a comparative study of Japanese, Korean and Taiwanese EFL learners. The study showed that mediating agents, especially teachers' attitude and teaching methods have a great influence on learners' beliefs and strategy use.

Zhang (2001) attempted to find out the characteristics of vocabulary learning strategies used by the non-English major graduate students and the difference between the stage of "general academic English learning" and "professional English learning". Zhang found that in the stage of "general academic English learning", the graduates use more psycholinguistic and metacognitive strategies and use them more frequently than those in the stage of "professional English learning". Sener (2009) studied the relationship between VLS and vocabulary size of Turkish EFL students. Sener found that Turkish students use more metacognitive strategies efficiently than psycholinguistic strategy though they were often users of strategies. In addition, the study revealed that there is a positive correlation between VLS and vocabulary size of students. The
finding was consistent with the research studies of Cohen & Apek (1981); Cohen (1990); and Ellis (1985).

In sum, studies done by different researchers provided the motivation for more investigations on this area in Iran. So that, the aim of present study was to investigate the effect of *discussing your feelings with someone else* vocabulary learning strategy used by Iranian EFL students for enhancing their reading comprehension.

**The purpose of the study**

Teachers are constantly faced with introducing new vocabulary to students in all subject areas (Norfleet, 2002). Words that seem common to teachers can be a puzzle to students. Thus, the teacher is faced with the dilemma of how to make new subject matter and vocabulary meaningful to his/her students. What makes the situation even more difficult is teaching new vocabulary of English as a foreign language (EFL). The purpose of this study is to guide instructors to introduce *discussing your feelings with someone else* as an implicit vocabulary learning strategy to learners to improve their vocabulary on language tasks systematically because learners, in EFL contexts, often have problem in comprehending the reading texts because of the weakness of vocabulary knowledge. Vocabulary is generally considered as the basic communication tool, and often labeled as the most problematic area by language teachers (Celik & Toptas, 2010). Therefore, this study was conducted to find out the possible effects of learners’ *discussing your feelings with someone else* as an implicit vocabulary learning strategy on reading comprehension of intermediate level Iranian university students in an EFL setting.

**Research question**

The main question to be examined in this study is as follows:

Do *Discussing Your Feelings with Someone* vocabulary learning strategy has any significant effect on the development of vocabulary knowledge of the Iranian undergraduate intermediate students?

**Methodology**

**Participants**

This study involved 130 university students from Islamic Azad University of Omidiyeh in Khuzestan in Iran studying non-English majors in the course of general English (mostly in the second and third semester) based on non-random judgment sampling. They participated in a homogeneity test adapted from Objective Placement Test (Lesley, Hanson & Zukowski- Faust, 2005) as a homogeneity test and finally sixty students whose scores were one standard deviation
above and one standard deviation below the mean (M= 30) were selected. Then they were randomly divided into two groups; group A (18 female and 12 male) as an experimental group received *Discussing Your Feeling with Someone Else* as an implicit vocabulary learning strategy while group B (8 female and 22 male) considered as a control group with no strategy use. The age of the participants generally ranged from 18 to 24. Seemingly, they were originally from different regions of the country.

**Instruments**

Initially, the subjects in two groups took the Objective Placement Test of Interchange (Lesley, Hanson & Zukowski- Faust, 2005), which used as a standardized measurement to check the homogeneity level of the subjects in terms of language proficiency. The test contained 40 multiple-choice of vocabulary items. In order to verify the reliability of the pre-test and post-test, the researchers selected 40 students from different departments in Omidiyeh Islamic Azad University to participate in the pilot study in two phases, one for the pre-test and the other one for post-test. That is, 20 students for pre-test and 20 for post-test. Calculating the reliability coefficient of the test through KR-21 formula, the researcher found the reliability of the homogeneity test at (r=.78).

A post- test including also 40 items was administered to both groups at the end of treatment period after ten sessions. It takes eight lessons and was designed as a summative test. This test indicated 40 multiple-choice items of vocabulary achievement test which was developed by the researcher based on the materials taught in the classrooms. The vocabulary items in the test selected mainly from the new lexical items of reading comprehension texts. The reliability of the post- test was (r=.88) based on KR-21 formula.

Another instrument was the reading tasks and activities as the course materials which the researcher afforded to both the experimental and control group. These reading tasks and activities were extracted from the Select Readings (intermediate level) written by Lee and Gunderson (2002).

**Procedure**

In this study, 130 Iranian university students who study in a course other than English as their major were selected. To make sure of the homogeneity of the learners, the researcher used an Objective Placement Test as language proficiency test (Lesley, Hanson & Zukowski- Faust, 2005). Having obtained the scores and the average mean (M = 30) of the scores calculated. Sixty learners whose scores were around the mean were selected. Therefore the thirty homogeneous intermediate students were selected to utilize *discussing your feelings with someone else* strategy for developing their vocabulary storage in reading comprehension and other thirty students in
group B were assigned as a control group with no strategy use in teaching and the treatment in this class was as usual as before, the teacher read the text one time and gives the students equivalent or synonym of new words. In this study, the treatment period lasted for ten sessions. On the first session, the students in A Group received introduction on discussing your feelings with someone else vocabulary learning strategy. The procedure was implied by the corresponding researcher (teacher) for both classes. The next section will introduce the treatment period of discussing your feelings with someone else strategy.

**Discussing your feelings with someone else strategy**

According to Oxford (1990), language learning is difficult, and learners most of the times need to discuss this process with other people. So learners like to speak and negotiate their daily events with other people. Also, discussing new items of vocabulary in an authentic context used by students with each other is essential and necessary for them for the sake of development of their vocabulary knowledge (Carlo, august, & snow, 2005). In this study, students used diaries to understand and kept track of their thoughts, attitudes, and vocabulary learning strategies, and if they felt at ease enough, they shared their diary entries during group discussion by dividing learners in several groups in class once or twice a week. Discussions of feelings could also take place outside of class and continued it with a friend, a family, and so on (Oxford, 1990).

**Findings and Discussion**

After the treatment, to find out the effectiveness of discussing your feelings with someone else vocabulary learning strategy on reading comprehension of experimental group and compare the improvement in two groups, both groups took part in a post-test of the vocabulary and reading comprehension test after completing the course. In this study the data was collected and a number of descriptive (mean + Standard Deviation, SD) were conducted on the data.

The researchers dealt with comparing vocabulary learning strategy regarding, a parametric technique for analyzing the descriptive data. In this way, the study investigated the role of the discussing your feelings with someone else vocabulary learning strategy through independent samples t-test analysis, in order to find out, whether these strategy influence students’ vocabulary knowledge of Iranian EFL university students at the intermediate level of English reading proficiency or not.

To begin with, an independent sample t-test analysis was run on the mean score of the two groups. The results of t-test analysis for the effect of this strategy in reading comprehension as an independent variable statistically indicated mean differences are shown in Table 4.1. The data obtained through post-test (Table 1) were analyzed by using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS 11.5 software) in different steps.
Table 4.1 Result of the \( t \)-test (post-test of both groups)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Range</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental G</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>8.00</td>
<td>32.00</td>
<td>40.00</td>
<td>38.7667</td>
<td>1.86717</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control G</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>14.00</td>
<td>24.00</td>
<td>36.00</td>
<td>31.4833</td>
<td>3.47880</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results of the post-test in the two groups were compared using independent samples \( t \)-test statistical procedure, whose result showed that the mean scores of the experimental group (\( M = 38.76, \ SD = 1.86 \)) was significantly different from the control group (\( M = 31.48, \ SD = 3.47 \)). Also the minimum and maximum scores in experimental group are 32 and 40 while in control group the minimum and maximum scores are 24 and 36. In other words, the experimental group outperformed the control group on the post-test.

Also, critical \( t \) (\( t = 2.000 \)) was less than observed \( t \) (\( t = 5.45 \)) based on df = 48. In this case, there was a significant difference between experimental and control group in developing learning vocabulary at intermediate level. In other words, discussing your feelings with someone else strategy was effective in improvement of vocabulary of Iranian EFL learners at intermediate level.

The major concern of the present study was to explore the effectiveness of discussing your feelings with someone else on reading comprehension of the EFL students. The results of \( t \)-tests indicated statistically significant difference between the experimental group (A) and control group (B) in reading comprehension achievement post-test. It indicated that the discussing your feelings with someone else is effective in improving EFL vocabulary storage on reading comprehension achievement of university students at the intermediate level of English. This result can be more approved and confirmed by this evidence that there was a significant difference between experimental group (A) who received this implicit strategy and control group (B). Moreover, the mean of experimental group was higher than control group based on the post-test scores. The findings of this research indicated that using discussing your feelings with someone else vocabulary learning strategy has positive impact on enhancing vocabulary on reading comprehension of EFL students at intermediate level.
Conclusion and implications

In this work which examined the effect of Discussing your feelings with someone else strategy of vocabulary learning, the findings revealed that there is a great difference between the subjects in the learners who were instructed using Discussing your feelings with someone else and the subjects in the control group. The findings of this study indicated that this kind of implicit vocabulary learning strategy had a positive impact on reading comprehension of EFL students. The findings revealed that auditory learners are very good at learning new L2 words through cooperation or practicing unknown words by asking others for help. Also, such learners try to consolidate the new words through discussing your feelings with someone else strategy. According to the results, the learners in experimental group, learn new words best through Discussing your feels with someone else strategy, and this is something that is completely suitable to their vocabulary improvement since a group learner is the one who “learns more effectively through working with others” (Reid, 1995).

The findings of this research suggested that it is very important to investigate the VLS, because Strategies may help students, teachers, and administrators to become aware of the effect of VLS, vocabulary knowledge, and competency in order to design and deliver vocabulary instruction and training accordingly. Nation (2001) notes that strategy training has been proved to be very useful in broadening students’ strategic knowledge. It should be the curriculum developers’ responsibility to allocate enough time in the curriculum for teachers to conduct strategies research in their classes. There is no doubt that teachers have an important role to play in the strategy training of students. They are the ones to offer opportunities for students to learn about and practice the strategies.

With respect to material producers, they should produce materials that teachers will use throughout their class research. That is, the materials they produce should be congruent with students’ learning strategies and they should be appealing to students’ needs and interests. This process requires continuous evaluation of every single stage or material used. For this reason, curriculum developers and material producers should collect feedback from teachers and students in order to identify the weaknesses and strengths of their products. This will enable them not only to produce better materials but also to develop them. All in all, curriculum developers and material producers should work cooperatively with teachers and students so that they can design a better program, appropriate materials and tasks that will promote a more efficient and a more effective language learning atmosphere. Since students may find it difficult to improve their strategic competence and sometimes resist strategy training (Brown, 2002), it is, therefore, essential to help learners to become aware of their own styles, preferences and habits, for practicing their effective strategies, get them to practice good strategies, and take charge of their own learning.
References


Elevating Language Learning Ambiance using Literature-Based Activities in E-Class

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Abstract: Acquiring English language is effective with careful observation and imitation of effective users of the language. Classic English literature can be used in the class for students to improve their language skills. Literature is surely not an end in itself but the means of beginning a creative process in the minds and emotions of the students and assist them in grasping the language with ease and effortlessly. Information and Communications Technology – ICT plays a major role in facilitating enormous material in different formats and thus has initiated new possibilities into the English classroom. Students are facilitated to listen, speak, read and write good English with the helping hand of various ICT tools in e-class. This paper proposes the integration of literature and ICT as an essential aid for the effective teaching learning of English language.

E-class enables learners to navigate interactive, self-learning material with the helping hand of the Internet at their own pace and path. Learners are provided with suitable literature with choice, control and interaction using various ICT tools to understand various elements of language and to practice/use the same. Use of e-class with resources and interactive tools make the learning more interesting, enthusiastic and effective.

Key words: E-class, ICT tools, English literature, Acquiring LSRW skills, Language Activities.

E-class elevates the language learning ambiance by facilitating visual and auditory activities. This multi model learning will be more effective by using appropriate classic literature in various language activities. The key element for language learning in e-class is the synchronized activation of the auditory, phonological and visual systems in the brain, especially important for listening and reading development. These distinct systems work together with grammatical and conceptual processors to decode sensory input into meaningful language. E-class enables students to receive individualized instruction from teacher with extended applications in reinforcing classroom activities. Digitalized Language class facilitates various scholarly activities to improve learning environment, to provide pedagogical innovations and to enable experimentation for the best-suited methods and materials. ICT has initiated new
possibilities into the English classroom by facilitating large amount of materials in different forms. Use of e-class with resources and interactive tools – e-books, e-dictionaries, e-encyclopedia, web 2.0 components, internet, blogs, socializing portals, webcasting, and audio-video make the learning more interesting, enthusiastic and effective.

Krashen claims that using computers for Free Voluntary Surfing will encourage students to wander through the Internet and read what interests them. Computer aided language learning provides new opportunities for learners to engage in active communication that facilitates the development of second language competence. Computer aided language learning and Internet-based instruction contribute to EFL students’ cross cultural competence (Kim, 2005). Computer Aided Language Learning will enable learners to pool their knowledge in effective ways and enhance peer correction and language repair work.

According to O’Malley and Chamot (1990), there are three main categories of strategy use, depending on the kind and level of processing involved: metacognitive, cognitive and socio-affective strategies. Within the metacognitive category are those strategies which involve “knowing about learning and controlling learning through planning, monitoring and evaluating the learning activity”. Cognitive strategies are more directly related to individual learning tasks than metacognitive strategies and involve the transformation of the material to be learned. The third type of learning strategy identified in the cognitive psychology literature shows the influence of social and affective processes on learning: social strategies involve interaction with another person while affective strategies are concerned with the management of one’s feelings about learning and language use. These strategies are considered while planning various activities in e-class using the classics of English literature for improving the language skills.

To begin with, the students should be able to comprehend fully what has been taught to him/her and then should be able to reproduce it, not only in exam but in day to day life also. If the students fail to do so, he is neither empowered nor has his proficiency level improved. The activities shared in this paper have successfully worked with the student community. Michael Levy writes in Computer-Aided Language Learning that he is motivated by a desire to better understand the relationship between theory and application; following his ideals, the relationship between theory and application is well-balanced while planning various activities in e-class.

English language teaching in the class of ELT Degree students using literature and ICT tools is reviewed in this paper. Classes of ELT degree students are receptive and responsive in using technology. This receptivity of the students helps the teacher to go beyond horizons in experimenting innovative practices in the classroom. Listening to the native speakers – conversations, reports, dialogues, poetry, songs, literary texts, e-books, prepared PPT’s etc. were provided as reference materials. A few activities were conducted with these materials for
improving the quality of the ambiance conducive for language learning. The following activities elevate the teaching learning ambiance in e-class.

**Reading Together – Activity 1**

The comprehension hypothesis by Krashen claims that language acquisition does not occur when learners focus on form. It happens only when they engage with the messages they are conveying and understanding. The hypothesis states that the process of comprehension and acquisition are closely related. The best way to enhance reading skills and to empower the students in the subject knowledge is to have the practice of ‘reading together’. This can be done through pdf or word or power point file projected on the screen and read collectively. It can also be done by refereeing to web sites in the classroom or even by using CDs, e-encyclopedia, e-dictionaries, and e-thesaurus, etc. The learning of literature becomes very lively and interesting if all the students are learning the same thing at the same time. This not only develops reading skills, but it also gives a very good understanding of the subject. It also helps in developing cognitive reading skills. The interpretation of a literary text is a key component in the study of literature. The collective reading also provides some space for individual interpretation. The competitive atmosphere in the class encourages the learners to read with enthusiasm. Pre, while and post reading activities encourage the learners more involved and give spontaneous feedback to the teacher on the activities.

Real life materials from authentic sources of information are also used during the activities to impart the skill. Comprehension of the read material and pace of reading are the two important focal points during the sessions. Computer-mediated texts enhance readers’ options for acquiring word meanings during independent reading. Reinking illustrated that computer-mediated texts provide readers with several options for assistance during independent reading. One of the several options available to the reader is the capability to request context-specific meanings of difficult words in a text. Reading comprehension increases in these studies when readers selected among the options for assistance with ICT tools. Potter & Small reported that the use of computers for reading instruction has helped students and has been very efficient in the use of resources.

The class becomes live as all the students are gaining similar information at the same time. Similarly, live internet connection while teaching literature also has an added advantage. Thus, collective reading of websites, online references, e-encyclopedia, PowerPoint and Word files that are relevant to the particular class can be taken from the resources -www.google.com, www.bing.com, www.reference.com, www.contemporarywriters.com, www.gutenberg.org, Microsoft Encarta, Encarta dictionary and thesaurus etc.
Listening / Speaking using Multimedia - Activity 2

A PowerPoint presentation of important scenes in the movie/play that are relevant to the day’s class can be presented in the class using LCD projector with some activities using the information in the PPT. Instead of watching a whole play at once, we can cut the play into bits and pieces. A number of activities can be phased in under the six categories illustrated by Simmon in e-class to improve students’ listening skills.

We also used video libraries from web resources. Web resources mentioned below are full of rich resources for videos useful in teaching English Language and Literature. The subconscious learning of accent, intonation, rhythm of several expressions will give and unbelievable result. Besides improving listening to the native/effective speaker, students also will be equipped to participate in speaking activities based on the material they watched/listened. Number of language activities like role play, interviews can be practiced in the class for improving the language proficiency of the learners. Several resources like www.youtube.com, http://video.google.com, www.keepvid.com, www.yappr.com, Audio books and software like Jet Audio, Camtasia Studio can be used in PowerPoint presentation with audio and video clips. These will encourage the learners by improving their content and interest besides various practicalities that are crucial for effective communication. The following techniques are taken to train listening skills among the students using various material and activities effectively in the e-class:

- Developing cognitive strategies – listening for the main idea, listening for details, and prediction
- Developing listening by integrating with the other language skills – listening and speaking, listening and pronunciation, and listening and vocabulary
- Listening for academic purposes and for fun – seminars, workshops, symposia etc.

“Oral interaction is also made possible by audio conferencing tools, and although these require technical support, the findings of studies reporting on the use of such tools to improve oral ability are quite encouraging.” A few basic strategies like Asking and Answering Questions, Imitation and Repetition, Substitution, Question-Answer Dialogues, Day-to-Day Expressions, Eliciting, Guess and Speak, Directed Dialogues, Descriptions, Role-Play etc. can be used to improve speaking skills in the e-class.

Writing Skills with Communicative Approach - Activity 3

ICT tools can be a great help during teaching writing skill, as the discrete nature of linguistic signs can be appreciated consciously with these tools. Several classic writings and effective documents like e-books, e-news papers can be provided in the class to set good examples before students. Forums, discussions, mails and other community based websites are to be used for sharing their ideas and written scripts. The feed back of their writings will boost up the learners’ interest to improve their writing skills.
Writing skill is independent and can be taught as an end in itself, but classes on improving writing skill have the potential to help, consolidate and improve learners’ speaking and reading skills. Writing can be viewed and taught as a developmental process like reading. Raimes classifies approaches to teaching writing into five types: controlled to free, free writing, paragraph pattern, grammar-syntax organization, communicative, and process approaches. In controlled to free approach, students are first given sentence exercises, then paragraphs to copy or manipulate grammatically, like changing questions to statements, present to past, or plural to singular, and changing words or clauses or combine sentences. In free writing approach, students are asked to write freely on any topic without worrying about grammar and spelling for five or ten minutes. Teachers generally read them and perhaps comment on the ideas the writer expressed. In paragraph pattern approach, students copy paragraphs, analyze the form of model paragraphs, and imitate model passages. They put scrambled sentences into paragraph order, they identify general specific statements, they choose or invent an appropriate topic sentence and they insert or delete sentences.

In online environments, communicative approach to writing can be effectively used where students are asked to assume the role of a writer who is writing for an audience to read. Whatever a student writes some thing, it is modified in some way by other students for better communicative effect. In the process approach to writing, students move away from concentration on the written product to an emphasis on the process of writing. Thus, the response to their writings motivated students to write and upload to the social networking sites. Then they invite their friends and relatives to read and respond to their thoughts. The entire exercise becomes interesting. The teacher can facilitate e-dictionaries, e-thesaurus and e-grammar books as the supporting materials for improving their scripts. Students themselves will use many self learning techniques with the aim of accurate and effective expression through appropriate words and sentences. With the helping hand of MS office tools, they also improve the mechanics of writing. A blog is created for the class students to share their writings and to comment on others scripts. This will be a platform to improve their writing capabilities. Applying criticism on the blogs of the writers and reviewing comments of readers and peers will motivate the students for bettering themselves.

**Inference**

E-resources and the internet are very handy in the class room, as language and literature teacher feels confident in using the right material in the right time. As teacher’s memory is not over-burdened with facts and figures, s/he is mentally free to give more time for discussion and explanation. As a result, the students are also empowered to understand language and literature in a better way than they used to do in the traditional lecture method. Traditional lecture method is not out of date but the outreach in that method is limited to a few students. Projecting multimedia material using LCD aids to their better sensory perception teaching with the help of ICT tools helps address various needs of the learners.
E-class room plays major role in providing the suitable materials and in applying appropriate methods by mediating the teacher and students in language learning. The class has no boundaries of place and time. Learner can interact with the information to sharpen his/her language/communicative abilities according to his/her convenient place and time. The incentives of the updated version of the class are – autonomy, spirit of learning and using the language, acquiring the ability at one’s own pace and method and the spontaneous feedback during the activities makes the learning faster.

As always, there are limitations in executing these activities. The activities that worked successfully experimented with ELT Degree students may not work with an equal success rate in another environment. Their results may vary but one should not stop experimenting. In fact, e-class with literature as the “supremely civilizing pursuit” has brought a phenomenal change in the relationship between the teacher and students. The role of the teacher, the nature and context of learning, as well as the function and relative importance of course content have all been challenged and redefined with the integration of ICT tools and English language learning. E-class can improve students’ overall knowledge of English besides interacting with native speakers’ culture and literature as “Great literature is simply language charged with meaning to the almost possible degree (Ezra Pound).”

References:


Analyzing the Language of Poetry from a Perspective of Linguistics

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Abstract: This article looks at the language of poetry from linguistic point of view. The language of poetry is different from ordinary language. Poets use language in their compositions according to the concept of foregrounding. The purpose of foregrounding is to attract the attention of the readers. So he goes across the domain of deviation and parallelism which is pattern breaking and pattern making respectively. In other words foregrounding is the action of emphasizing something by means of linguistic devices (http://literarism.blogspot.com). In this article, an endeavor has been made to analyze and discuss some of these linguistic devices.

Key words: Poetic language, linguistics & Literature, foregrounding, Parallelism, Deviation

Introduction

This article aims to analyze the language of poetry from a perspective of linguistics. But first of all, let's define and discuss about language. Language is like a playground where one plays the game of his own choice. Literature, linguistics and literary criticism are different fields of language. The objective of this assignment is to study the language of literature, particularly, poetry from linguistic point of view.

Scholars from different walks of life have always been interested in language and they have defined language according to their own subject of interest. Charles Barber (1993:25) calls it "a system of vocal sounds". Richard and Platt (1985:153) are of the same views as Barber does have in defining the language but with the following addition:

Language is the system of human communication by means of a structured arrangement of sounds to form larger unit, e.g. Morphemes, words, sentences.

According to E.Spair (1921:8), language is "non- instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions and desires by means of a system of voluntary produced symbols". David Crystal (1985) clearly thinks that language is the most highly developed form of human common action. Verma (2006:16) quotes Henry Sweet who calls language "the expression of ideas". But Bloom
field calls language "the totality of utterance that can be made in a speech community is the language of speech community"(Ibid). Pyles and Algeo(1982:1), quote the remarks of a famous biologist, Lewis Thomas who says in The Lives of a Cell (1974,p.89):

The gift of language is the single human trait that marks us all genetically, setting us apart from the rest of life. Language is like nest-building or hive-making, the universal and biologically specific activity of human beings. We engage in it communally, compulsively, and automatically. We cannot be human without it; if we were to be separated from it our minds would die, as surely as bees lost from the hive.

1. Description

1.1. Linguistics

Language is one of the most important aspects of human identification and linguistics is a scientific study of the language. Linguistics is a very vast field. It is the interface between the science and humanities. Linguistics is a battlefield for anthropologists, philosophers, philologists, poets, theologians, psychologists and neurologists. All these people are interested to describe language and how it works from their own perspective. According to Richard and Platt (1985, p. 167), linguistics is "the study of language as a system of human communication". The history of language study is very old but linguistics flourished as an independent discipline recently. The field of investigation for linguistics is very vast. It investigates the sound system of language under sub fields of phonetics and phonology. It discusses about the arrangement of words into sentences under the title of syntax and linguistics also discusses the meaning system of language under the topics of semantics and pragmatics etc. Anthropological linguistics, psychological linguistics, sociolinguistics, stylistics, and applied linguistics are newly developed branches of linguistics.

1.2. Literature

Different scholars have defined literature differently. Samuel Johnson (d.1784) calls it an intellectual light, to J.Q Adams (d. 1829), it is a charm of life, Samuel Rogers (d.1855) say it is a sole business of life, and Oscar Wilde (d.1900), states that literature always anticipates life. So, Terry Eagleton (2008, p. 1) says by answering the self raised question:

What is literature? There have been various attempts to define literature. You can define it, for example, as 'imaginative' writing in the sense of fiction - writing which is not literally true.
According to Bassnett and Gundy (1993, p. 7):

> Literature is a high pint of language usage; arguable it makes the greatest skill a language user can demonstrate. Anyone who wants to acquire a profound knowledge of language that goes beyond the utilitarian will read literary texts in that language.

 Traditionally, literature is regarded to be the prerogative of certain people who are endowed with certain faculty for understanding literature. Literature is beyond the reach of common people. It is something mystic and should not be corrupted by linguistic analysis.

2. Poetic Language
2.1. Drawing a line of distinction between ordinary and poetic language

Language is a very special tool of communication. Human beings express their feelings by using the tool of language. Language and literature cannot be looked apart. In this context Leech (1969), says that even the deep examination of literature is not possible if language and literature are studied separately (p.1). However, in spite of this strong connection between these two types, the language of literature is different from the ordinary language in many respects. Leech (1969:8) quotes Thomas Gray who writes in a letter to Richard West in April 1742,"The language of the age is never the language of the poetry". But after a long period, i.e., in 1879, Gerard Manly Hopkins writes to Robert Bridges."Poetic language should be the current language heightened and unlike itself, but not an obsolete one"(Ibid). These two scholars are absolutely disagreeing with each other on the issue of poetic language. But this difference reveals the fact that poetic and ordinary forms of language do have some differences that cannot be mapped with the same scale. Although the basic structure of both types of language is same but their working domains are different.

Foregrounding is an essential aspect of poetic language. Ordinary language is rule governed but it is not necessary for poetic language to follow the set pattern of rules of a language. In this connection, it is right to summarize here, the observation of Leech (1969). According to him poetic language deviates from generally observed rules in many ways. He adds that creative writers, particularly, poets are enjoying the unique freedom about the use of language into different social and historical contexts. He expresses that the use of tropes is a characteristic of literary language (p.5). After this observation Leech (1969, p. 6), reaches to the conclusion:

> There is no firm dividing line between 'poetic' and 'ordinary' language, so it would be artificial to enforce a clear division between the language of poetry, considered as verse literature, and that is other literary kinds.
2.2. Observation of poetic language from linguistic point of view

Linguistics is the scientific study of language. If we analyze the language of poetry from a perspective of linguistics then we have to say that the poetic language is foregrounded. According to Katie Wales (2001, p. 156), foregrounding is "a popular term in stylistics (especially in the analysis of poetry) introduced by Garvin (1964) to translate the PRAGUE SCHOOL term of the 1930s". Foregrounding makes something prominent. Painting and foregrounding do have many meeting grounds. In painting a painter uses different colors for making some parts of the pictures comparatively more prominent than the other ones. A poet does the same job by using the method of foregrounding. Foregrounding is achieved by means of either pattern-making (extra regularities) or pattern breaking (irregularities). In this assignment, poetic language will be studied and analyzed in terms of pattern making and pattern breaking.

2.2.1. Parallelism (Pattern making or Extra-regularities)

Pattern making is one of the striking features of poetic language. Pattern making in poetry can be confidently called 'extra-regularities'. A poet goes beyond the regular patterns of language for the purpose of foregrounding. Poets repeat sounds by arranging them through the selection of vocabulary syntagmatically and paradigmatically. In sentence structure, syntagmatic and paradigmatic are two types of relations of words. The first one shows the horizontal sequence or order of words while the second one reveals the vertical sequence of words or phrases. The following diagram, adopted from Richard and Platt (1985:285) shows about the above said relationships of words in an understandable way.

```
Fig. 1
I ➔ gave ➔ Tracy ➔ the ➔ book. ➔
   ↑   ↑                  ↑
  passed                  handed
   ↑   ↑                  ↑
  threw
```

= Syntagmatic relations

= Paradigmatic relations
Pattern making is also described in terms of parallelism which, according to Leech (1969:62) is a 'foregrounding regularity', and Katie Wales (2001) considers it a device in rhetoric that depends on the 'Principle of equivalence', a term used by Jakobson in 1960. Parallelism is a "repetition of the same structural pattern: commonly between phrases or clauses" (p.283).

Foregrounding consists of both parallelism (regularities and extra-regularities) and deviation or irregularities. Poetic language chiefly exhibits these techniques. Let's start with the parallelism first.

Poets use the technique of parallelism while constructing the poetic diction (language) in a number of ways. Some of them are being given here.

   i).  Rhyme

Rhyme scheme is one of the most outstanding features of poetic language. It is the repetition of the final sound of different lines of a piece of poetry. According to Katie Wales, (2001. P. 346), "Rhyme is a kind of PHONETIC echo found in verse: more precisely, "PHONEMIC matching". Mick Short (1996, p. 113) observes it more closely and writes:

   Rhyme is usually reserved to refer to the final syllables of different lines of poetry when the vowel and syllable – final consonants (if any) of the words in question are identical. Thus five can rhyme with live and alive. Slightly looser connections than this (e.g. five/fife) are usually called half rhymes, and if the rhymes occur in positions other than at the end of a line, they are usually called internal rhyme.

Example:

   Wake! For the sun, who scattered into flight
   The stars before him from the field of Night,
   Drives Night along with them from Hecavn
   and StrikesThe Sultans' Turret with a Shaft
   of Light

(Edward Fitzgerald – The Rubaiyat of Omer Khayyam)

The ending words of lines 1, 2, and 4 of this stanza are flight, Night and light. These words end with the same final consonant sound /t/ that according to Katie (2001) creates an end rhyme. He further says, if words like June/moon; rose/toes occur within the lines they are called internal rhyme.
ii). Alliteration

The repetition of initial sound at stressed syllable in a line is called alliteration. For example the sentence 'Frank found four frogs laughing on the floor', has /f/ sound which is repeated in the beginning of content words. Katie (2001, p. 14) uses the term "initial rhyme" for it and says, "Alliteration is the REPEATION of the initial consonant in two or more words". Short (1996, p. 10) shares the following lines of George Crabbe as an example of alliteration:

A dreadful winter passed, each day severe
Misty when mild, but cold when clear

('Tale 17: Resentment', lines 351-2)

Here, /m/ and /k/ sounds are repeated initially in Misty and mild, cold and clear respectively.

Another example can be given from Shakespeare's Romeo and Juliet. Romeo says:

How silver-sweet sound lover's tongues by night,
Like softest music to attending ears

(Act II scene II)

In first line the consonant sound /s/ is repeated initially in words silver-sweet and sound, and hence it aligns alliteration. So, poets use this technique frequently in their lyrics for creating musical effect.

iii). Pun

Pun is another pattern making technique. It creates humorous and ironic effects in poetry. According to Leech (1969, p. 62), "A pun, for instance, a type of foregrounding", Katie Wales (2001, p. 327) writes:

Thus puns commonly occur in jokes, e.g.:

Q: How do you get down from elephant?
A: You don't, you get it from ducks.

iv). Assonance

It is a type of half rhyme, used in poetic diction. Katie Wales (2001). In assonance same stressed vowel sound is repeated in different words in a line of verse. Katie (2001, p. 33) has also given an example of assonance from Tennyson which creates an expressive effect:

Break, break, break
On the cold gray stone, O sea!
In the first line, in word 'break' the diphthong /eɪ/ has been repeated. This repetition is called 'assonance'.

v). Consonance

In Greek language it means to harmonize the sounds in a poetic line. A Dictionary of Stylistics (2001:79) states consonance, a kind of 'half-rhyme' or 'end- alliteration'. Here final consonants are repeated, but with different preceding vowels (Ibid). The Dictionary further informs about the term 'consonance' that "Turner (1973) and Cuddon (1998) use the term for what other calls APOPHONY and Leech (1969) calls it PARARHYME" Longman 2001, p. 79.

In the sentence "Guilt gilds evil deeds better than gold", consonant sound /g/ is repeated in "guilt," "gild," and "gold" which creates consonance.

vi). Anaphora

In Greek language it means "carrying back" Katie (2001, p. 19). Parallelism is technique that involves in repeating the same word at the start of successive clauses, sentences or verses (Ibid). Example:

How pleasant it is to have money, heigh ho!
How pleasant it is to have money.

(MARS 1985, p. 88)

In this example, in both the lines, the word 'how' is repeated in the beginning. This is anaphoric repetition. Mathematically, it can be shown like (a …) (a …). Here 'a …' refers the repetition of words at initial position.

vii). Apostrophe

It is a final repetition of words in different lines of a poetic piece. Mathematically, it can be shown like (…a) (… a). Leech (1969, p. 81) its example from T.S.Eliot:

Those who sharpen the tooth of the dog, meaning Death
Those who glitter with the glory of the hummingbird, meaning Death

viii). Symplece

It is a combination of anaphora and apostrophe. To Leech (1969, p. 81), "initial combined with final repetition" is called symplece. For this the formula can be derived as (a … a) (a … a), etc. According to K. Walse (2001, p. 380), symplece:
involves the REPETITION of one set of words at the beginning of a series of sentences or verse lines, and of another set at the end: a combination of ANAPHORA and EPISTROPHE.

Example:
I will recruit for myself and you as I go,
I will scatter myself among men and women and when as I go
Walt Whitman, Song of the open Road, quoted from Leech, 1969, p. 81

ix). Anadiplosis

In anadiplosis the final part of one unit is repeated. This repetition occurs at the beginning of the next, Leech (1969). Mathematically, this repetition appears in this formula: (… a) (a …).

Example
My words I know do well set forth my mind;
My mind becomes his sense of inward smart;
Such smart many pity claim of my heart;
Her heart, sweet heart, is of no tiger’s
(Sidney: Astrophel and Stella, quoted from Katie, 2001, p. 18)

x). Epanalepsis

In A Linguistic guide to English Poetry, Leech quotes lines from Milton's Paradise Lost, II to observe epanalepsis in the language of poetry:

With ruin upon ruin, rout on rout,
Confusion worse confused (p.82)

In these lines, the final part of each unit of the pattern repeats the initial part on this formula (a… a) (b… b). This type of repetition is called epanalepsis.

xi). Antistrophe

The aim of parallelism in poetic language is pattern making through the repetition of sounds, words, phrases, and clauses etc. Antistrophe is method of repetition and it is a parallelism technique. Leech (1969) and Katie (2001) agree that antistrophe is the repetition of words in reverse order. Mathematical shape of this repetition is (…a… b…) (…b… a…).

Example:
Leech (1969, p. 82) presents the example of antistrophe from Shakespeare's Hamlet, Act II, Scene ii:

What's Hecuba to him or he to Hecuba
"That he should weep for her?"

2.2.2. Deviation (Pattern breaking or irregularities)

Foregrounding is a very famous concept in the domain of stylistics. It is an important feature of poetry. Katie (2001) has kept the historical record of the concept of foregrounding in his *Dictionary of Stylistics* which tells that Garvin (1964) introduced the term of foregrounding. Mukar&vosky (1932), Ha vranek (1932) and before them many formalists scholars have of the views that the function of poetic language is to surprise the readers by providing them with a fresh and dynamic awareness of its linguistic medium. Foregrounding makes something prominent by going against the norms of language. Foregrounding in poetry is achieved through pattern making and pattern breaking. Pattern-making or parallelism has been discussed in (3.2.1) but here the focus will be laid on pattern-breaking or deviation. According to Katie (2001, p. 103), "deviation refers to divergence in frequency from a NORM..." In poetic language, deviation can occur at lexical, morphological, grammatical, semantic and phonological levels.

1) Lexical deviation

Poets are interested in making new words. Usually, these words do not exist before. The process of making the words is called 'neologism' (short, 1996). Let's see the following example: "The boys are dreaming wicked or of the bucking reaches of the night and the jollyrodgered sea". (Dylan Thomas, under Milk Wood, p.1--- quoted from short, 1996:45)

In this example, "the underlined word is 'Jilly Rodgered', "a name for the pirates' skull and crossbones flag"(Ibid). Here two words have joined together to make a compound noun jollyrodger. The addition of '-ed' converts it into adjective and it modifies the noun 'sea'. This type of invention of lexis exhibits the process of neologism and hence it is a lexical deviation.

2) Grammatical deviation

Breaking the rules in making the sentences is grammatical deviation. English grammar is a set of many rules that is why there are many possible ways of making foregrounding through grammatical deviation. For example, while discussing about word order, usually adjectives come before the noun or the pronoun one(s), (Jake Allsop, 1969), but in poetry, according to Short (1996:47), "the adjective can come after the noun". He also writes in this context:

The placing of Adjectives after the noun in poetry is often characterized as an archaic usage. However, it appears never actually to have been a feature of English. Rather, it was borrowed from French into English
poetry after the Norman Conquest and can be found as a regular feature in
English poetry (but not prose) from that time.

(Ibid, p.78)

The following examples reflect the 'poetic flavor' short (1996), where adjectives appear after the
nouns they modify:

[1]  
*O goddess! Hear these tuneless numbers, wrung*

*By sweet enforcement and remembrance dear …* (John Keats, 'Ode to Psyche)

[2]  
*Little enough I sought;*

*But a word compassionate …* (Ernest Dowson, 'Exchanges')

In the above presented examples, 'remembrance' and 'a word compassionate' are grammatical
deviations, and short (1996) calls it an appropriate poetic flavor.

### iii). Morphological deviation

Morphology is the science of words, and it is a study of morphemes, the smallest grammatical
units. Morphemes are the building blocks for words. Morphemes can be free and bound. Free
morphemes are complete words and they give proper meaning but bound morphemes cannot
give their proper meanings unless they are attached with other free morphemes as a prefix or
suffix. For example the word 'incompletely' does have three morphemes, i.e., 'in-', 'complete', '-ly'. Here prefix 'in-' and suffix '-ly' are the bound morphemes but 'complete' is a free morpheme
because it gives complete meaning. Deviation in morphology means to add such morphemes
which cannot be added normally. Short (1996) quotes the following example in this regard:

Example:

"Perhapless mastery of paradise"

(e.e. cummings, 'from spiraling ecstatically this')

The suffix '-less' can be added to the words like helpless, worthless, sunless etc., but in the
normal paradigm of English rules, it cannot be added as a suffix to the word 'perhaps'. But
e.e. cummings does so and his doing this is a morphological deviation.

### iv). Semantic deviation

Semantics is the study of meaning. When a poet uses other than commonly used meaning of a
word it is called semantic deviation. In semantic deviation surface level meanings are changed
with the meanings at deeper level. This type of deviation is achieved by using different figures of
speech. Simile, metaphor, irony, and hyperbole etc., are used to achieve this goal.

Paradox is another figure of speech that creates semantic deviation. Paradox, according to Wales
(2001) is a statement which has contradiction in its apparent meaning, or "a kind expanded
OXYMORON" Ibid. p. 282. 'War is peace', 'freedom is slavery', and 'ignorance is strength' etc., are the examples of semantic deviation. Wales quotes Donne's lines from Holy Sonnets, 14, in this context:

Except you enthrall me, never shall be free
Nor ever chaste, except you ravish me       (Ibid)

v). Phonological deviation

Phonology is the study of sound patterns of a particular language and deviation is a departure from accepted norms of a language. Phonology deals with sounds and sounds belong to speech. Short (1996, p. 54), states that “most of our literature is written, there is relatively little scope for phonological deviation…”, and Leech (1969, p. 46) informs that "phonological deviation in English poetry is of limited importance". However, phonological deviation occurs mostly in the end rhyme.

Example:

[1] The skylark and thrush,

The birds of the bush,

[2] Till the little ones weary

No more can be merry;

These lines have been taken from William Black's (1757 -1827) --- The Echoing Green. In verses [1] and [2], the words thrush, bush, weary and merry are believed to maintain the rhyme scheme in these lines but these words do not have the same pronunciation.

Oxford Advanced Learners' Dictionary (7th edition) gives the pronunciation of these words as /θrʌʃ/, /bʌʃ/, /ˈweɪəri/ and /ˈmeri/ respectively. In words, thrush and bush, the most common word is bush, so thrush /θrʌʃ/ will be pronounces as /θrʌʃ/, in weary and merry, the most common word is merry. So the weary will be pronounced on the pattern of merry. By this way, /weɪəri/ becomes /ˈveri/ which is not a standard pronunciation but it is a deviation at phonological level.

Conclusion

In this assignment, an effort has been made to analyze the language of poetry from a perspective of linguistics. Linguistics is the scientific study of language. To study a poetic piece linguistically needs to concentrate on the language of poetry from a particular angle. In this assignment, the structure of poetic language has been analyzed in the light of foregrounding, which means to bring something into prominence. This paper discusses how a poet foregrounds
the language of poetry. Foregrounding is achieved by parallelism and deviation—the most important techniques of foregrounding. This assignment further discusses how a poet plays his part in making and breaking the patterns of poetic language.

An endeavor has also been made to map out the language of poetry by using the scale of irregularity and extra-regularity. In short, linguistic analysis of poetic language reveals the fact that a poet has to do many deliberate attempts to compose a piece of poetry.

References

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The Relationship of Socioeconomic Status with Language Learning Motivation

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Abstract: Language learning motivation is an important factor in language achievement. The study of socioeconomic status with other individual differences is a neglected area in language learning motivation research in Pakistan. The Socioeconomic status (SES) is also an important element in learning as the students with high SES tend to demonstrate a more positive attitude and motivation towards learning a language as compared to the students with low SES in Pakistan. The present study highlights the importance of SES and motivation in language learning. The data have been collected from different intermediate level students and analyzed with SPSS XIV. The results have produced some interesting findings.

Key Words: SES, Attitudes, Motivation, Individual Differences, English Language Learning.

Introduction

The importance of motivation in human activity has been recognized in the field of social psychology and education for decades (Noels, Pelletier & Vallerand, 2000 cited in Akram 2007). Motivation is a desire to achieve a goal, combined with the energy to work towards that goal. Many researchers consider motivation as one of the main elements that determine success in developing a second or foreign language; it determines the extent of active, personal involvement in L2 learning. (Oxford & Shearin, 1994)

It has been observed that students’ language performance is related to their socioeconomic variables. Socio-economic factor is usually determined by means of a composite measure which takes account of income, level of education and occupation of the parents of the learners. Some researchers have examined the relation between learners’ language performance and SES variables. According to Akhtar (2010), the home environment has direct focus on parents. Because they are responsible to built and manage it. Home environment influenced by many factors such as parent education, job, attention and income. All these factors together called Socio-economic Status (SES).
Measures of SES, such as family income or maternal education, can suggest different factors responsible for a relation between variables (Hoff-Ginsburg & Tardiff, 1995 cited in Schuele C. Melanie 2001). Thompson (2008) says that age of acquisition, motivation, language family, literacy, and socioeconomic status of the learner are a few of the many factors that need to be considered when studying how individuals acquire a new language. It has been observed that all the learners are not given the equal opportunities due to their SES, the learners face learning inequalities in their language learning career.

Yuet (2008) opines that last but certainly not least; the socio-economic background of students has a role to play in their motivation to learn. She is of the view that main reason is low-income parents may often be so preoccupied with the basic necessities of life that they have little time to consider how to promote their children’s cognitive development. They might also have poor reading skills and so can provide few reading experiences for their children. In addition, students from poor socioeconomic background may have lower aspirations for educational and career achievement too.

Ghani (2003) has found that SES has an overwhelming effect on English learning success in Pakistan. She measures the language proficiency of the learners in three ways: by administering a past Cambridge First Certificate exam (1995) and a cloze test (Lapkin and Wsain 1977) and from the scores they had obtained in the most recent intermediate annual examination in english which the subjects had taken (covering composition, grammar, translation and set texts).

Brustall (1975 cited in Ellis 1994), in her study of primary and secondary school learners of L2 French, found also a strong correlation between socio-economic status and achievement, students from middle SES got higher rank than the students with lower SES. Burstall (1980) in his British Primary French Research project indicated a strong relationship between students’ SES and their achievement in French: students with higher socioeconomic status scored high mean score and the students of low socioeconomic status scored low mean score in French language proficiency.

According to Shamim (2011), a comparison of learners’ socio-economic status with their English language scores in the most recent public examination revealed that learners in the higher income bracket (upper third of the population) consistently outperformed learners in the lower income bracket (lower two-thirds of the population). The positive correlation of high family income with students’ higher levels of proficiency in English may be attributed to their earlier education in private English medium schools compared to students in the lower income bracket.

In Pakistani context, there have been a few research studies (Ghani 2003, Shamim 2011) into the relationship between learners’ SES and English language learning. Therefore the present study aims to provide relevant data and explore the extent to which socioeconomic differences have an impact on students’ language proficiency.
Method

Participants

The participants were 240 students of intermediate level in different colleges of Punjab, Pakistan, 150 (63 male and 87 female) students belong to the urban areas and 90 students (57 male and 33 female) belong to the rural area, who had studied English as a compulsory subject for 12 years.

Instruments

A questionnaire used by Akram (2007 adapted from Gardner’s AMTB 1985) was adapted to examine these students' attitudes and motivations toward learning English. The first part of the questionnaire consisted of the demographic information particularly about the socioeconomic status of the parents of the learners and the second part consisted of 97 items regarding attitude and motivation. A language achievement test (resembling FCE) was also used to know their language proficiency.

Results and Discussion

As the present study aimed at investigating the relationship of socioeconomic status with attitudes and motivation toward learning English, the researcher has analyzed the data through SPSS (version 14). All statistical tests, conducted to investigate the relationship of socioeconomic status with attitudes and motivation toward learning English, have been mentioned. The analysis presents cross tabulations, correlation and MANOVA. The final results of the present study are following.

There is still no standard instrument available to determine SES in Pakistan. The subjects were categorized in two classes: lower SES class and higher SES class, with the experts’ opinion from Bahauddin Zakariya University and The Islamia University of Bahawalpur. This comprised father’s occupation and salary. The classification of occupations was made keeping in view the realities of Pakistani society rather than the western societies where standard classification exists i.e. farmers, street vandors, drivers and white washers counted as lower class; school teachers, small businessmen etc treated as middle class; doctors, pilots, army officers and civil servants were regarded as higher or elite class.

The results of MANOVA analysis show that there is statistically significant relationship between learners’ socioeconomic status and their motivation to learn English. Moreover, the univariate analysis of variance shows significant differences between higher SES and lower SES students in their parental encouragement i.e. higher SES students have stronger parental encouragement as their parents facilitate them in their buying English books and other helping material, in English class anxiety the lower SES students have been found more anxious than the higher SES ones because they don’t have enough confidence and courage, in their attitude toward learning English also the students belonging to higher SES have shown more positive attitude toward
English learning, in attitude toward English people also the higher SES students have shown more positive attitude than the lower SES students in that lower SES students have not come across English people whereas the high SES students find frequent chances to travel to English speaking countries. The lower SES students have not shown equal interest in foreign languages as the higher SES students. Both the higher SES and lower SES students have equal motivational intensity in learning English. Almost all the learners particularly the male had considerably stronger integrative reasons for learning English related to future jobs, university study and travel abroad. This is explicable given the nature of Pakistani society, with the wide expectation that, despite the prominence of women in a few professions such as teaching, women are not destined to pursue careers in which English would be a relevant feature (Ghani 2003).

**Conclusion and Recommendation**

As far as attitude or motivational issues are concerned, it is true that children of higher SES bring an ‘enriched’ cultural capital but this does not significantly affect their motivation (Yuet 2008). The study is in line with the findings of Yuet (2008) who says that learners are instrumentally motivated and intend to take exams in order to obtain a language certificate. The present study contradicts Verma and Tiku (1990) who conducted a research on the effect of SES and general intelligence and found that SES and intelligence in combined form do not have any differential effect. The relation between SES and language learning motivation has identified strong evidence of language learning differences. It has been found that students from lower socioeconomic groups acquire language at a slower rate than students who belong to high socioeconomic groups. These differences of language learning appear to relate to family income, and socioeconomic status. It is a bitter fact that persistent poverty and low social status are the most detrimental to students’ language performance. The recommendation of the study is that the relationship of socio-economic status and academic achievement of the students studying at private institutions may also be studied to generalise the results.

**References**


### Pearson Correlation of 12 ID Variables with each other and with English Proficiency

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Correlation with English Proficiency</th>
<th>Total Score of Test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Parental Encouragement</td>
<td>0.789</td>
<td>0.918</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degree of Instrumentality</td>
<td>-0.520</td>
<td>-0.671</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Culture Toward Learning/English</td>
<td>-0.622</td>
<td>-0.671</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude Toward Learning/English</td>
<td>-0.346</td>
<td>-0.346</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude Toward English/Foreign</td>
<td>-0.195</td>
<td>-0.195</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural Identity</td>
<td>0.339</td>
<td>0.339</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Need for Achievement</td>
<td>0.512</td>
<td>0.512</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interest in Foreign Languages</td>
<td>0.557</td>
<td>0.557</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocational Identity</td>
<td>0.388</td>
<td>0.388</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Desire to Learn English</td>
<td>0.618</td>
<td>0.618</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Score of Test</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).*
### Father's job * Monthly Income Crosstabulation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Father's job</th>
<th>Monthly Income</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5000-9999</td>
<td>10000-14999</td>
<td>15000-19999</td>
<td>20000 and above</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Farmer</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Govt. job</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Businessman</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private job</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>240</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Bar Chart

The bar chart visualizes the distribution of monthly income across different job categories. Each bar represents a job category (farmer, govt. employ, businessman, private job) and the height indicates the count of individuals in each income bracket.