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GEN TEFL Journal is a refereed journal with an editorial board of scholars in various fields. It is an annual publication of Global Educators Network Teachers of English as a Foreign Language (GEN TEFL). The journal aims to gather and record range of studies exploring English language teaching theories, approaches, methodologies, technologies and best classroom practices honed by teachers, researchers, administrators, and interested individual for the long term advancement of ELT related research and knowledge.



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## EDITORS' NOTE

We are excited to release the third volume of the GEN TEFL Journal this year. The journal in its third year has been able to stand still amidst some challenges that come along its way. After the birth of the first volume in 2016, it continues to publish articles of good quality that we know, can benefit all teachers teaching EFL and ESL, policy makers, and education researchers not only in the ASEAN region but in all countries in the world. The effort put by all members of the editorial team is tremendously overwhelming that we hope to continue to publish more articles in the coming years.

We are also proud to say that all the successful contributing authors for this volume have come from and affiliated with various well-known education institutions throughout the world. As such, we have included 10 research articles ranging from various topics on ESL and EFL, from theoretical to practical classroom research studies, and from different contexts. Although the 10 articles included in this volume are slightly smaller in number compared with volume 2 which published 15 articles, they all have undergone a stringent process before their publication.

Furthermore, most of the articles selected for this volume were all presented during the 3rd GEN TEFL International Conference in Malaysia early this year. Thus, we would like to thank all the contributing authors for choosing and trusting the GEN TEFL Journal as their choice for their article publication and for their patience and understanding throughout the review process. We hope that we will be able to speed up the process in the next volume. To the authors, congratulations. We hope that you will continue to consider this journal for your next research publication.

I would also like to personally thank all the members of the editorial board that despite their busy schedule, they still find time to review all the articles and ensure that they all have met a good standard for research publication. Without your valuable time, the GEN TEFL Journal would not have come to a success.

To all the teachers, researchers, and readers, may you all find the contents of this volume inspiring, motivating, and learning.

Thank you very much.

**Mark Bedoya Ulla**  
Chief Editor

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# The Learnability of Grammar Instruction: A Processability Approach to Textbook Evaluation in EFL Settings

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This study conducts an acquisition-based evaluation of four primary-school English textbook series used in mainland China. The evaluation aims to determine whether the sequencing of grammatical structures in the series is compatible with the L2 learning sequence stipulated in Processability Theory (PT). The results show a partial agreement between the sequencing of structures as teaching objectives in the series and the PT-based processability hierarchy. The sequencing of structures in the initial stages is consistent with the learning sequence of L2 English stated in PT. However, several structures in the intermediate or high stages are taught in a deviant way against their sequencing in PT. The deviant grading of those structures is possibly associated with the theme-based guidelines adopted in the textbooks. It appears that concerns with the utility of grammatical structures in a given context takes precedence over concerns for the natural L2 development. A number of suggestions are offered to textbook writers in terms of the role of input, the learners' developmental readiness and the issue of heterogeneity in L2 classrooms.

## Introduction

This study aims to conduct an acquisition-based evaluation of four primary-school English textbook series used on a nationwide scale in Mainland China. The textbook evaluation seeks to answer the question whether the sequencing of key grammatical structures introduced as the teaching objectives in the four textbook series is compatible with the sequenced development that the learners go through in acquiring English as a L2.

L2 acquisition cannot take place without language input, and textbooks serve as one main form of language input for learners especially in a foreign language (FL) context. In Mainland China, learners of L2 English have little or no opportunities to access the target language through natural exposure. Textbooks are the main source of linguistic exposure to English for L2 learners. They also supplement and facilitate the teacher's instruction, by providing organized lesson plans and information on what kinds of teaching practice can be utilized in the classroom. As the use of

textbooks in language classrooms is an almost inevitable component of formal instruction in the settings of English as a FL (Hutchinson & Torres, 1994), an evaluation of textbooks for the purpose of more efficient teaching and effective learning is a worthwhile undertaking.

Currently, the majority of evaluation studies on textbooks have been looking at the potential effectiveness of textbooks (e.g., McDonough & Shaw, 1993; Mukundan, Hajimohammad, & Nimehchisalem, 2011), the actual effects of textbooks on users (e.g., Shi & Ji, 2011; Lan & Meng, 2009), and the pragmatic information and the authenticity of textbook contexts (e.g., Petraki & Bayes, 2013; Wong, 2007). Only a handful of SLA-based studies (Keßler, 2006; Lenzing, 2004, 2008; Zipser, 2012) have paid attention to the issue of learnability, namely, whether the sequence of grammar introduction in the textbooks is learnable for L2 students.

The sequence in which the grammatical structures are taught significantly affects language learning outcomes (Mansouri & Duffy, 2005). An improvement in L2 learning can be achieved only when teaching focuses on the grammatical structures that learners are able to acquire at the time of instruction (e.g., Ellis, 1989; Mansouri & Duffy, 2005; Pienemann, 1984). It would benefit formal instruction to follow the path of learnability—namely, the developmental sequence of L2 acquisition.

To conclude, the established SLA-based studies on textbook evaluation were still limited in number and scope. They investigated into either L2 English textbooks used in Germany (cf. Lenzing, 2004, 2008) or L2 Italian textbooks used in Austria (cf. Zipser, 2012). However, no existing studies applied the SLA-based approach to the assessment of L2 textbooks used in Mainland China. Therefore, the current study is called for in order to offer an insight into the issue of learnability regarding grammatical sequencing in textbooks and the current situation of textbook compilation within the context of China and to add more empirical evidence to the SLA-based textbook studies. It attempts to examine four sets of English textbooks from a SLA theoretical perspective, focusing on the sequencing of English morphology and key sentence structures.

### **Established Studies on SLA-Based Evaluation**

These studies (Keßler, 2006; Lenzing, 2004, 2008; Zipser, 2012) apply a psycholinguistically-based SLA theory—Processability Theory (PT) (Pienemann, 1998) which focuses on the developmental sequence of L2 grammar to textbook evaluation. They aim to assess whether the grammar instruction in textbooks is sequenced in a way that is compatible with the L2 developmental path. For example, Lenzing's (2008) study aimed at testing the stages of developmental sequence of L2 acquisition predicted by PT against two textbooks for early English education in Germany. She discovered that the design of the two textbooks did not reflect the developmental sequence. She advised it is of significance that early English teachers are informed about the underlying principles in L2 acquisition process (Lenzing, 2008, pp. 238-239).

Lenzing's work (2008) application of PT in the evaluation of grammar instruction in ESL textbooks breaks new ground. Her study used a quantitative approach to calculate the relative frequency of grammatical structures in the linguistic input of textbooks, and then determined whether



the presentation of the structures is learnable for L2 learners according to two criteria: (1) the structures that are located at a low stage of the processability hierarchy should occur frequently in the initial units of the textbook; and (2) those structures that can only be processed at a higher stage should not be introduced too frequently in the beginning units of the textbook. Lenzing (2008) offers an explanatory basis for promoting more learnable grammatical introduction in L2 learning materials. She also provides an insight into the gap between SLA research and language pedagogy—crucial findings from SLA research about the developmental sequence have not been considered in the design of EFL textbooks. Lenzing (2008) goes a long way towards developing a learnable syllabus for ESL grammar instruction in language materials.

Spearheaded by a psycholinguistically-based SLA theory (PT), the research on SLA-based evaluation provides an insight into the sequencing of grammatical structures in L2 textbooks. Studies such as Lenzing (2008) have filled a gap that nearly no previous research ever paid attention to, even though it is a core issue for L2 learners: namely, how L2 learners acquire grammatical structures step-by-step. The research on SLA-based evaluation contributes to facilitating the application of SLA theory to language pedagogy.

Since the SLA theory—PT forms the basis of textbook analysis in the current study, the following section is devoted to an exposition of its related claims.

### **Processability Theory (PT) and PT-Hypothesized L2 English Development**

Processability Theory (PT) (Pienemann, 1998, 2005) describes, explains and predicts the universal developmental sequence inherent in L2 acquisition from the perspective of language processing. The underlying logic of PT is that L2 learners at any level of development are able to produce only those grammatical structures which the current state of their language processor can process (Pienemann, 1998, p. 4-5). The developmental sequence of L2 acquisition is determined by the order in which the necessary processing procedures are available to L2 learners. This theory is based on a number of L1 speech production models (e.g., Kempen & Hoenkamp, 1987; Levelt, 1989), and is formalized within Lexical-Functional Grammar (Bresnan, 2001; Kaplan & Bresnan, 1982).

### **The Development of English as A Second Language**

Based on the hypothesis that the processing procedures developed at one stage are a prerequisite for the following stage, PT predicts a hierarchy of processing procedures in morphological and syntactic development of ESL involving a six-stage model of lemma access, category, noun and verb phrase, sentence, and subordinate clause procedures (cf. Bettoni & Di Biase, 2015; Pienemann, 1998; Pienemann, Di Biase, & Kawaguchi, 2005). This implicational hierarchy of ESL development has been generally supported by a range of empirical studies (e.g., Charters, Jansen, & Dao, 2012; Dyson, 2009; Dyson & Håkansson, 2017; Keßler, 2007; Pienemann, 1998, 2005; Pienemann & Keßler, 2011).

**Table 1:** Processability hierarchy: morphological development for L2 English (after Pienemann, 1998, 2005)

Stage	Processing procedure	Morphology	Example	
5	S-procedure	SV agreement (=3sg -s)	She plays football on Mondays.	
4	VP-procedure	tense agreement	be + V- <i>ing</i> have + V- <i>ed</i>	She is watching TV. I have ordered a new book.
3	NP-procedure	NP agreement	I have ten bananas.	
2	category procedure	plural -s (on nouns) possessive pronoun simple past -ed	They're monkeys. It is your kite. I cooked fish.	
1	word/lemma	single words/formulas	Many thanks!	

As Table 1 shows, PT predicts five stages in ESL morphological development. At the first stage, L2 lexical items are stored without any grammatical information, and no processing procedure is involved. L2 learners are only able to produce morphologically invariant forms (chunks or non-analysed material) such as single words (e.g., *here*) or formulaic expressions (e.g., *many thanks*).

At the second stage—the category procedure, L2 learners are able to identify the categories of lexical items such as nouns or verbs, but are unable to exchange grammatical information between each lexical item in the phrase or sentence structure. For L2 English, no less than three lexical morphemes are hypothesized to emerge at this stage. *Plural -s on nouns* describes the lexical nominal plural marking -s on nouns. *Simple past -ed* refers to the regular past tense marker -ed. *Possessive pronoun* refers to possessive determiner for adjectives. *Plural -s on nouns* requires identification of the noun category of lexical items, while *simple past -ed* requires identification of the verb category. Take the acquisition of *plural -s on nouns* for example. L2 learners need to determine whether the referent is one entity or more (*monkey* vs. *monkeys*) and then differentiate whether the referent is countable or not from the perspective of semantics (*monkeys* or *water*). Next, L2 learners need to learn that this -s ending marker is associated with generic countable entities, as in *They are monkeys*, but not with generic uncountable entities.

At the third stage, once the noun-phrasal procedure has been developed for the L2, diacritic features can be stored, exchanged and unified between the head of a noun phrase (NP) and its modifier. Grammatical information is therefore required to be exchanged within the NP to ensure that the diacritic features of words in the phrase are unified. PT hypothesizes the phrasal plural marking -s (to achieve *NP agreement*) to emerge at this stage. Take *ten bananas* for example. The plural feature appears in the head noun (the plural referent *bananas*) and its modifier (the numerical quantifier *ten*), and thus this information needs to be unified between two lexical items in this NP.

The fourth stage is the verb-phrasal procedure stage, which requires interphrasal agreement—exchanging grammatical information within a verb phrase (VP). The structure hypothesized to emerge at this stage of the interlanguage of L2 learners is the VP composed by the auxiliaries (AUX) and their lexical verbs. To produce this structure, L2 learners need to learn to choose the AUX according to a range of temporal, aspectual or modal motivations (*be, have, modal*), and then unify these features with the corresponding ones in the lexical verbs (*V-ing, V-en, V*).

The next stage is the S-procedure stage. The activation of the S-procedure requires interphrasal agreement across different phrases—the subject (SUBJ) and the lexical verb (V)—within a sentence. As PT postulates, L2 English learners can produce the morphological structure known as the 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular marking –s in the simple present context, once they are capable of unifying the SUBJ feature information in the NP<sub>SUBJ</sub> (PERSON=3<sup>rd</sup>; NUMBER=SINGULAR) with the associated V feature information (TENSE=PRESENT; SUBJ PERSON=3<sup>rd</sup>; SUBJ NUMBER=SINGULAR).

**Table 2:** Processability hierarchy: syntactic development for L2 English (after Pienemann, 1998, 2005)

Stage	Processing procedure	Syntax	Example
6	S'-procedure	Cancel inversion	I wonder why he sold that car.
5	S-procedure	Do-2 <sup>nd</sup>	What do you do on Sundays?
		Aux-2 <sup>nd</sup>	Why are you laughing?
4	VP-procedure	Yes/No inversion	Can you speak English?
		Copula inversion	Are you here?
3	NP-procedure	ADV-fronting	Later she could read.
		Do-fronting	Do you like meat?
2	category procedure	Canonical word order SV(O)	I like football.
1	word/lemma	single words/formulas	How are you?

As Table 2 presents, there are six stages predicted in ESL syntactic development. At the first stage, L2 learners have not developed any language-specific procedures, and thus are unable to access any syntactic information. They can only produce single constituents that only require the activation of lemma access, such as *How are you?* or *No*.

At the second stage, L2 learners can activate the category procedure, and start to distinguish between verbal elements and nominal elements. Learners are able to organize their utterances based on

the canonical order found in the input from the target language—English. For English syntax, the canonical word order is the subject-verb-object (SVO) structure. At this stage, L2 learners of English can map conceptual structures onto linguistic form (Pienemann et al., 2005, p. 26). Thus, *canonical word order SVO* is hypothesized to emerge at this stage of L2 syntactic development, as exemplified in *I like football*.

Next, L2 learners can enter the third stage—the NP-procedure. At this stage, learners are able to place non-arguments (e.g., adjuncts) at the initial position of a canonical word sentence. The syntactic phenomenon known as *ADV-fronting* is hypothesized to emerge by allowing adjuncts such as time or place circumstantial adverbials to appear in the initial position, as exemplified in *Later she could read*. L2 learners can also produce structures such as *Do you like meat?* by placing the auxiliary *do* in the initial position of the canonical order SVO (*you like meat*). This syntactic phenomenon is called *Do-fronting*.

At the fourth stage, L2 learners can activate the VP-procedure. They can produce syntactic phenomena such as *Yes/No inversion* and *Copula inversion* in non-canonical sequences, by assigning focal function to the auxiliary or copula verb to mark the whole sentence as a question. This results in the inversion between the subject and the auxiliary (or copula), as shown in the examples *Can you speak English?* and *Are you here?*.

At the fifth stage, L2 learners can activate the S-procedure and fully differentiate the topic from the subject. They are assumed to be able to implement the procedure of inversion, namely, placing the auxiliary or copula before the subject. After learning to assign a focal element (e.g., a *Wh*-word) to the first position of a sentence, learners are hypothesized to become able to produce syntactic structures such as *Do-2nd* and *AUX-2nd*, as exemplified in *What do you do on Sundays?* and *Why are you laughing?*. In the meantime, learners are also able to exchange the interphrasal information for agreement (cf. Table 2). They can unify features (e.g., PERSON, NUMBER, TENSE) across constituent boundaries. Therefore, learners are hypothesized to become able to produce questions such as *What does she do?* or *What did she do?* by using the morphological form of *do* (e.g., *does, did*).

Once L2 learners have developed all the previous processing resources, they are able to get to the sixth stage and activate the S'-procedure. The activation of this procedure requires the exchange of information between the main clause and the subordinate clause. At the previous stages, the learners have already learned to place the focal element (e.g., *Wh*-word) at the initial position and keep the rest of the words in the canonical order. Thus, they are assumed to be able to produce indirect questions such as *I wonder why he sold that car* by allowing interclausal agreement between the verbs in the main clause and the subordinate clause. This syntactic phenomenon is called *cancel inversion* in the processability hierarchy of L2 syntactic development.

The processability hierarchy of L2 English grammar proposed in PT provides an understanding of how an English learner develops L2 grammar from basic levels to intermediate and high levels. This understanding enables us to focus on the learner's level of ability and to optimize English teaching including textbook and syllabus design. To examine whether the sequence of grammatical structures introduced in English textbooks follows the hypothesized developmental sequence of L2 English

acquisition, the following section will present a SLA-based textbook analysis of four English textbook series that are currently used in primary schools in China.

## Textbook Analysis

### The Textbooks

The present study evaluates four English textbook series (28 volumes in total) that are currently used in many primary schools in mainland China. They are *New Standard English* (Chen & Ellis, 2012; eight volumes), *People's Education Press English* (Wu, 2012; eight volumes), *Super Kids* (Liu, Krause, & Cossu, 2012; four volumes), and *Join in* (Zhang, 2014; eight volumes). The four textbook series were selected on the basis of three criteria. First, all of them are officially approved by the Ministry of Education of China for the teaching of English in primary schools from Grade 3 to Grade 6. Second, they are published by two of the largest educational publishing companies in China—the People's Education Press, and the Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press—and used widely in schools throughout China. Third, they contain explicit syllabi of grammatical structures and vocabulary. As pointed out in the preface to each textbook series, while they focus on the communicative aspect of language and specific cultural contexts, they require mastery of certain grammatical structures and vocabulary to meet the communicative needs of students.

### Method of Textbook Analysis

The textbook analysis was carried out in three steps. The first step was documenting the focal grammatical items that were introduced as the teaching objectives in the textbooks. Overviews of the focal grammar were provided at the start of each textbook or at the start of individual units in a volume.

The second step was analysing and defining the specific grammatical structures contained in the listed focal items, using grammatical terminology (such as morpheme) and grammatical patterns (such as word order rules). Except for *New Standard English*, none of the textbook series presented the focal grammar in an explicit way. The majority of the focal items listed in *People's Education Press English*, *Super Kids*, and *Join in* were exemplars of grammatical structures; there was no metalinguistic statement of the rules that were being taught. Thus, an explicit grammatical description was needed to provide a clear understanding of what specific grammatical structures were contained in the listed items.

The third step was tagging and grouping the focal grammatical structures introduced in the textbooks according to the morphological and syntactic categories outlined in the processability hierarchy for L2 English as stipulated in PT (cf. Table 1 and Table 2). For example, this study grouped single words (*station*), chunks (*many thanks*), semi-formulaic structures (*I have got \_\_\_ [a book / a sweater...]*) and fully formulaic expressions (*How are you?*) into Stage 1 of the processability hierarchy for L2 English.

The aim of this third step was marking where in the textbooks the grammatical structures introduced as teaching objectives occur, and comparing their ordering with the sequence of the corresponding items in the processability hierarchy for L2 English. A distinction was made between the initial occurrence of a structure defined as a teaching objective (a grammatical focus) and incidental later occurrences. Since this study is only concerned with the order of introduction (i.e., the sequencing) of the structures that are teaching objectives, and not with the number of times the structures reoccur in the textbooks, the initial occurrence of the structures that are grammatical foci is our main preoccupation.

## Results and Discussion

### Summary of Main Findings

On the positive side, the results show that the grammatical sequencing in these four textbook series is partially compatible with the learning sequence as stipulated in PT. For all four textbook series, the morpho-syntactic structures at Stages 1 and 2 are graded in accordance with the hypothesized learning sequence (Pienemann, 1998, 2005). Despite this, the ordering of the grammatical structures at the later stages slightly differs among the four sets of textbooks and within the areas of morphology and syntax.

In the area of morphology, *Super Kids* has shown the highest consistency with the learning sequence as stipulated in PT (Pienemann, 1998, 2005). The other morphological items taught as teaching objectives are introduced in an order that is processable and learnable for students, with the only exception of the VP morpheme ‘V-ing’ (Stage 4) which is taught in a premature manner. ‘V-ing’ appears before ‘phrasal plural –s’ (Stage 3) in the whole textbook series; this does not agree with the PT’s hypothesis (Pienemann, 1998, 2005) that the learner can acquire the VP procedural skills only when they have developed all the previous NP procedural skills.

*PEP English* and *Join in* have been found to achieve a similar pedagogical teaching order of the morphological items. The morphological items located at the first two stages are taught as grammatical foci in line with the PT-based learning sequence (Pienemann, 1998, 2005). The pupils are required to begin with the single words or invariant forms; subsequently, they need to develop the category procedural skills (the SVO structure). However, the instruction of ‘phrasal plural –s’ is not presented in a learnable way. It is taught as an instructional focus either before (in *PEP English*) or simultaneously with (in *Join in*) the lexical morphemes. Such pedagogical teaching orders are not consistent with the PT’s hypothesis (Pienemann, 1998) that the category procedure is a necessary prerequisite for the NP procedure. The instruction of Stage 4 morphemes ‘V-ing’ and ‘V-en’ are learnable for the pupils, since the two sets of textbooks follow the L2 sequenced development, namely, the learner has to develop the NP procedural skills before he or she moves to the VP procedure stage. Nevertheless, ‘3<sup>rd</sup> ps sg –s’ is conversely instructed as a teaching objective before the VP morphemes in these two textbook series. This violates the sequenced development of L2 processing skills, namely, the learner is not able to acquire the S-procedural skills before he or she has developed the VP procedural skills.

*New Standard English* presents a partial agreement with PT' predictions and does not coordinate the ordering of the morphological items at Stages 4-5 with learnability in an effective way; but at least, the morphological items at the initial three stages are ordered in accordance with the hypothesized sequencing (Pienemann, 1998, 2005). The pedagogical teaching sequence in this textbook series shows that: at first the pupils only need to learn invariant forms, and then they are expected to progress to the category procedure stage (lexical morphemes), and afterwards they have to acquire the NP procedural skills ('phrasal plural -s'). However, the instruction of 'V-ing' and '3<sup>rd</sup> ps sg -s' is not presented in a learnable manner. They precede their prior-stage morphemes in the textbook series. The pupils cannot acquire these two morphemes due to that they have not developed all the previous processing resources (the NP procedure and the VP procedure) at that point.

The situation in the area of syntax seems less complex. The ordering of the syntactic structures taught as teaching objectives is highly similar among these four sets of textbooks. Overall, except for 'copula inversion' (Stage 4) which is taught before the Stage 3 word orders, the other syntactic features under investigation are ordered in line with the PT-based processability hierarchy (Pienemann, 1998, 2005). For these four textbook series, the students are required to start with some formulaic structures such as *how are you?*; later, they are expected to learn the SVO structure through using the category procedure. After developing all the previous processing skills, the students need to acquire the NP procedural skills ('ADV-fronting' and 'do-fronting'). However, 'copula inversion' is taught too early in the whole series. The teaching order that the VP procedural skills are developed prior to the NP procedural skills goes against the PT-based learning sequence (Pienemann, 1998, 2005). The instruction of 'do-2<sup>nd</sup>' and 'AUX-2<sup>nd</sup>' is considered learnable in these four sets of textbooks, since the students are required to acquire the S-procedural skills after they have developed the VP procedural skills.

Apart from the ordering of grammatical structures, the presence of several structures at the same developmental stages differs in the four textbook series. One contrast exists between 'V-ing' and 'V-en'. These two morphemes are both processed through the VP procedures and can be acquired at Stage 4 of ESL morphological development. However, 'V-ing' is included in all the four sets of textbooks, while 'V-en' only appears in *Join in*. Similarly, 'Do-fronting' and 'ADV-fronting' forms the other contrast. These two word orders are hypothesized to be acquired at Stage 3 of ESL syntactic development through the process of the NP procedure. Nevertheless, the previous textbook analysis reveals a difference between their presence, namely, 'Do-fronting' is introduced in all the four sets of textbooks but 'ADV-fronting' merely appears in *PEP English*.

### **The Ordering of Grammatical Structures and Learners' Developmental Readiness**

The acquisition-based ordering of the structures at the initial two stages indicates that the textbook writers' idea of early-stage grammatical development follows the developmental trajectory as stipulated in Processability Theory; therefore, the introduction of morpho-syntactic structures at Stages 1 and 2 is processable and learnable for L2 students.

According to Processability Theory (Pienemann, 1998, 2005), learning a L2 equates to acquiring the skills to process L2 grammatical structures. L2 processing skills are developed in a sequence that follows the order of activation of processing procedures (Pienemann, 1998: 7). The sequenced activation of L2 processing procedures allows for the production of grammatical structures. A processing procedure can be activated and the corresponding grammatical structure can be produced only if all the previous processing skills have been developed (Pienemann, 1998). For instance, if a L2 learner can apply the category procedure (Stage 2), he or she will be able to produce the word order ‘canonical word order SV(O)’. Next, if the learner is able to use the NP procedure to produce the word order ‘do-fronting’, he or she is already capable of using the preceding procedure—the category procedure—and producing the word order ‘canonical word order SV(O)’. Accordingly, the process of acquiring L2 processing procedures and grammatical features is cumulative. The activation of the various processing procedures is sequenced, so that L2 learners, in the course of their L2 acquisition, must go through a series of stages. Each earlier-stage procedure in this sequential progression is a prerequisite for what is acquired at a later stage. In other words, less complex grammatical structures processed at an earlier developmental stage constitute the precondition for the more complex ones at later stages (Mansouri & Duffy, 2005).

From a processability perspective, L2 learners at any level of development are able to produce only those grammatical structures which the current state of their language processing procedures can process (Pienemann, 1998, pp. 4-5). That is, L2 learners are able to learn the structures only when they are developmentally ready to process them. Being ‘ready’ refers to that the learners have developed the L2 processing procedures required for the acquisition of a grammatical structure situated at the next stage. Here, the key point of learnability is the learners’ developmental readiness.

Applied to this textbook evaluation, the sequencing of the morpho-syntactic structures at Stages 1 and 2 in all four sets of textbooks is in full agreement with the learners’ developmental readiness. That is, before teaching a grammatical structure such as ‘canonical word order SV(O)’, which is situated at the category procedure stage (Stage 2), single words or formulaic expressions that are acquired at the lemma access stage (Stage 1) are taught as obligatory learning items in the textbooks. This finding indicates that the authors of these four textbook series have taken into account the learners’ developmental readiness in their sequencing of structures at the initial two stages. They have perceived single words or formulaic expressions such as ‘How are you?’ as less complex items than a canonical word order SVO such as ‘I like you’. In other words, since the word order SVO is considered more difficult for L2 students, this structure is introduced as a grammatical focus after formulaic expressions, which are considered less difficult to learn.

However, our findings also reveal that the ordering of several grammatical structures in the four textbook series is different compared to the L2 learning sequence as stipulated in PT. In all four sets of textbooks, there is only one syntactic structure (‘copula inversion’) taught in a premature manner; two of them present two morphological structures (either ‘phrasal plural -s’ or ‘3<sup>rd</sup> ps sg -s’) in a deviant pedagogical teaching sequence, whereas two of them present one morphological structure (‘V-ing’) in a deviant teaching order. These forms are introduced as grammatical foci before the structures at their previous stages have been presented. The findings imply that the authors of the four series may consider these four structures less difficult for L2 students and thus these forms are taught earlier than

others. However, from a processability perspective, the early instruction of these four structures in the textbooks does not take into consideration L2 learners' developmental readiness.

For instance, the Stage 4-word order 'copula inversion' is taught prior to the Stage 3-word order 'do-fronting' in all four textbook series. The inversion of the NP procedural skills and the VP procedural skills violates their sequencing as hypothesized in the PT-based processability hierarchy. According to PT (Pienemann, 1998, 2005), the acquisition of 'copula inversion' calls for the activation of the VP procedure at Stage 4, and the acquisition of 'do-fronting' necessitates the activation of the NP procedure at Stage 3. Since the NP procedure is the prerequisite for the VP procedure, the processing of 'do-fronting' is deemed less complex than that of 'copula inversion'. For L2 learners, it is more difficult to acquire 'copula inversion' than 'do-fronting'. Thus, it is more realistic for them to learn the less complex structure 'do-fronting' first and then learn the more complex one 'copula inversion' later. The authors may not have considered the processing complexity of 'copula inversion' in the four textbook series.

### **Reconsider Deviant Pedagogical Teaching Orders: Theme-Based Textbook Design**

Is it possible that the design of grammar instruction in the four textbook series analysed in this study follows other concepts of L2 learning and teaching? One question worth asking is whether the deviant introduction of structures at the intermediate and high levels (Stages 3 to 5), reported in the present study, is inspired by the textbook writers' consideration of the context of English education in China.

According to the prefaces of the four textbook series, a theme-based teaching approach pervaded the compilation guidelines adopted by the authors. For example, in the preface of the *New Standard English* series, the authors Chen and Ellis stated:

每册内容以题材 (theme) 为纲, 以功能、结构、运用任务 (task of using English) 为目。同一题材在全套教材中重复出现, 但其内容逐步扩展加深, 螺旋上升。词汇、语法项目和功能用语的选择和安排, 均以题材为出发点, 以运用英语的任务为载体。(New Standard English, Book 1, Chen & Ellis, 2012, p. 2)

The contents of each volume follow a theme-based syllabus, considering functions, grammatical structures, and tasks of using English as learning objectives. One overall theme is pervasive in the whole textbook series, but the contents associated with that theme are gradually extended and enriched—'spiralled'. The vocabulary, grammatical items and functions (or notions) are selected and arranged on the basis of themes, and they are implemented through tasks of using English. (*New Standard English*, Book 1, Chen & Ellis, 2012, p. 2; my translation)

Similarly, the prefaces of the *People's Education Press English*, *Super Kids* and *Join in* series indicate that this textbook series is designed according to a theme-based syllabus (cf. the prefaces of

these three sets of textbooks). Theme-based approaches are a form of content-based instruction that aims to deliver content and language integrated teaching (Alptekin, Erçetin, & Bayyurt, 2007). Content refers to the subject matter the students learn through the use of the target language (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). L2 is regarded as the medium of conveying content and information instead of being taught in an isolated way without the integration of particular content (Khranke, 1987). Focusing on the content, the theme-based approach integrates different objectives of L2 learning such as functions, vocabulary, and grammar around a theme or specific topics closely related to the students' interests, needs, personal experiences and daily life (Met, 1999).

Motivated by a theme-based approach, the writers of the four textbook series consider the theme or topics as the primary concern in the compilation. For example, the writers of the *New Standard English* series indicate that they follow the “‘题材—功能—结构—任务’的多步法编写大纲” (‘theme—function—structure—task’ multi-procedure for syllabus design; my translation) (*New Standard English Book 1*, Chen & Ellis, 2012, p. 1). The themes of individual lessons (or units) determine what kinds of target grammar and vocabulary need to be utilized to achieve the use of corresponding functions or notions. Take, for example, *New Standard English*, Book 1. The theme of the first module is “Greetings” and thus there are two related categories of functions: “greeting and saying farewell” and “introducing oneself”. The grammar and vocabulary needed for this context are provided accordingly, such as words or formulas *Hello / Hi, I'm ..., Goodbye / Bye-bye, Good morning, How are you?, and I'm fine, thank you.*

Theme-based textbook compilation may account for the deviant grading of several structures at the intermediate or high stages in the four textbook series. Due to the limited scope of this article, the morpheme  $3^{rd}$  *ps sg -s* (Stage 5) is taken as an example to exemplify the possible association with the theme-based approach.

The  $3^{rd}$  *ps sg -s* is introduced prior to the Stage 4 structures, or it appeared too early in the initial volumes of the textbook series. The early introduction of  $3^{rd}$  *ps sg -s* may be associated with the early occurrence of a related theme (or topics) such as favourite things or routines. In the *New Standard English* textbook series, it is the grammatical focus of Book 2. The theme of Module 5 in Book 2 is “Activities”, and the related function is “talking and asking about activities on weekdays and weekends”. Students are required to describe, in the present tense, what one of their acquaintances or friends (or relatives) normally does at those times. The third person singular inflection *-s* is obligatory if the subject is a third person singular pronoun (e.g., *she*) or a singular proper name (e.g., *Amy*). Similar themes in *People's Education Press English*, Book 3 and *Join in*, Book 2 also provide the context for the instruction of  $3^{rd}$  *ps sg -s*. In *People's Education Press English*, Book 3, the theme of Unit 3 is “My friends”. In *Join in*, Book 2, the theme of Unit 2 is “My classmates”. Students are required to talk in the present tense about what one of their friends or classmates usually does or likes. Therefore,  $3^{rd}$  *ps sg -s* is introduced as the grammatical focus very early in these textbook series.

### Implication of Deviant Instruction: ‘Avoidance’ Strategy

As discussed above, the selection and sequence of grammatical structures may be related to the arrangement of themes (or topics) and relevant functions in the analysed textbook series. It seems that, in these textbooks, the concern with usefulness of a grammatical form (what kind of grammatical expression is needed in a given context) takes precedence over learnability considerations (whether the structure is learnable for L2 students). The premature teaching of structures that are not processable and learnable at a given point may result in a possible negative consequence for a learner’s acquisition process.

One possible negative consequence is that students probably avoid or omit the use of the structures they have already acquired at the earlier developmental stages. For example, Pienemann (1986, 1989) conducted a teaching experiment in which he observed the acquisition by L2 learners of four German word order rules—*canonical order (SVO)*, *adverb preposing (ADV)*, *verb separation (SEP)*, and *inversion (INV)*. These word order rules were hypothesized to emerge at different stages of the L2 German acquisition process: Stage X (SVO), Stage X+1 (ADV), Stage X+2 (SEP), Stage X+3 (INV). Two of the informants were at Stage X+1 (ADV). After the untimely introduction of the structure INV, which should normally occur at Stage X+3, these two informants were found to reduce their frequency of use of the structure ADV by 75% (Pienemann, 1989, p. 72).

A further investigation carried out by Pienemann (1989) showed that, since these two informants were at a lower stage (Stage X+1), they had not developed the processing procedures required for the higher stage (Stage X+3). They merely knew that an element (e.g., an adverb) other than the subject could be preposed while they learned ADV. They did not know that the subject and the verb must be inverted (this information was included in the process of INV at Stage X+3). Therefore, the informants performed violations in the use of INV. When they realised that they were not able to process INV, they attempted to avoid the use of this non-learnable structure and stopped using ADV as well. Such an ‘avoidance’ or ‘omission’-strategy does not contribute to facilitating the acquisition process, but confines the expressiveness of the learner’s language (Pienemann, 1989: 76). A similar finding was revealed in Lightbown’s (1982, 1983, 1985) empirical research on L2 English acquisition of adolescent learners who were primarily exposed to classroom input of English. The L2 learners were found to give up using some structures they had learned and replace them with less complex structures such as the use of progressive *-ing* (cf. Lightbown, 1985).

### Suggestions for Sequencing Grammar in Textbooks

Applied to L2 English classrooms, the deviant order or the untimely introduction of grammatical structures in a textbook may lead to wasted time and frustration when the teacher attempts to teach a structure that the learner is not capable of learning. A possible solution to the issue of premature instruction is to consider learnability constraints in the arrangement of textbook content. Pienemann (1985) and Lenzing (2008) suggested that we should incorporate the principles of learners’ developmental readiness when selecting textbook content and sequencing the textbook’s syllabus. Therefore, from a processability perspective, grammar should be hierarchically arranged in accordance with the developmental sequence of the L2 acquisition process.

How can we, in a feasible manner, sequence grammatical input in textbooks according to the developmental path of L2 acquisition? Here are three suggestions which may be considered in future textbook compilation.

First, the grammatical items integrated in the textbooks, including exercises and tasks, should be subdivided into two categories: the obligatory structures and the optional structures. The obligatory structures refer to the learning objectives required to be learned and produced by students. The optional structures refer to those features that are not required for production but that appear as structural consequences of the structures that are obligatory to achieve the communicative needs within the textbook theme (or topics).

Second, the grammatical items that are specified as the obligatory structures should be selected and graded in accordance with the L2 acquisition process as stipulated in PT: (1) a structure at an earlier stage should be introduced before a structure at a later stage; and (2) structures at the intermediate or high levels, such as 3<sup>rd</sup> ps sg. -s, should not be introduced as obligatory structures in the initial volumes of a textbook series or the beginning units of a textbook.

Third, a variety of pedagogical tasks should be provided in textbooks to meet heterogeneous demands of students in a L2 classroom. Numerous SLA researchers have considered pedagogical tasks to be a feasible way of combining communicative language skills with beneficial grammar instruction (e.g., Crookes & Gass, 1993; Ellis, 2001, 2003; Keßler, 2008). In contrast with normal exercises such as 'cloze tests', pedagogical tasks have a better chance of identifying different levels of developmental readiness in students and of addressing student needs (Johnson, 2003; Keßler, 2008; Seedhouse, 2005). Once teachers have a general understanding of the current developmental stage of individual students through a task test, they can focus on the instruction of the obligatory structures that all or the majority of the students are developmentally ready to acquire next. In the meantime, teachers can also use tasks in which all or the majority of students can use those grammatical items that are available to them for communicative practice (Keßler, Liebner, & Mansouri, 2011). Therefore, textbook writers should design a certain range of pedagogical tasks (e.g., *Spot-the-difference* task, *Story-completion* task) in the teaching units (or lessons) of their textbooks.

## Conclusion

This study reports on an acquisition-based evaluation of four English textbook series (28 books altogether) for primary school education in China: *New Standard English*, *People's Education Press English*, *Super Kids*, and *Join in*. Under the methodological guidance of PT (Pienemann, 1998, 2005), this evaluation has examined that the sequencing of grammatical structures in these four textbook series is partially compatible with the developmental sequence of the L2 English acquisition process as stated in PT.

This study has implications for ESL pedagogy. The study reveals current trends in English textbook compilation in China, where reliance on a theme-based approach means that textbook authors primarily concern themselves with the usefulness of grammatical forms within a given theme, rather than with learnability considerations. The related findings may draw more attention to the issue of how to balance communicative needs and the grading of grammar in L2 teaching. The proposed suggestions may serve as a reference for the design of grammatical syllabi in a theme-based textbook for a L2 communicative classroom.

Two principal limitations related to the research scope need to be acknowledged. First, insights gained through the analyses of more textbooks that are widely in mainland China are needed in order to extend the generalizability of the findings in the present study. Second, 'first-hand' information in regards to the textbook writers needs to be collected through further interviews, in order to have a deeper understanding of textbook compilation and grammatical sequencing. Third, issues related to grammatical presentation and general input provided by textbooks such as exercises remain a matter for further investigation. Future research may incorporate other SLA approaches such as input frequency or input processing into the PT-based approach.

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## Teaching Mediation Skills: First Steps Using a Bilingual Corpus Approach

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**Abstract:** This paper discusses the use of a bilingual translation corpus in order to develop intercultural communicative competence. Exploring translated versions of selected texts with concordance and text mining software, an analysis is made to see if cultural and linguistic differences can be found in the translations in terms of interpretation and language usage. While the judicious use of translation activities in a university classroom is of pedagogic value in and by itself, it can be argued that a further benefit can be derived from doing more advanced research using the bilingual translation corpus. This paper will conclude that students can become better language users with more sophisticated interpretive mediating skills through realizing linguistic and cultural differences between the Japanese and English languages.

### Introduction

This paper discusses the design and rationale of creating a Translation Learner Corpus using a famous Japanese literary work and learners' translations. The paper discusses the advantages of using a Japanese literary work as a source text to compile a translation learner corpus and examines the results of preliminary analysis finding common errors among learners' translations in English. The short story, "Run, Melos!", written by the author Osamu Dazai, was used in a university course for translation studies. Using this widely-read short story in secondary education in Japan, the aim is to see if cultural and linguistic differences can be found in the translations in terms of interpretation and language usage of learners of English. A translation learner corpus was compiled to be analysed like any other learner corpus to identify common errors.

With the introduction of the Communicative Approach in the teaching of English to raise and measure learners' proficiency, translation in the language classroom has been much criticized and encouraged to avoid (Cook, 2010), which is in spite of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) defining translation as both an effective means of language learning and as a mediation skill in today's increasingly globalizing world (Council of Europe, 2001). Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) has shifted the teaching of English by enhancing the communicative and practical use of English, while the issues of the teaching environment and learner variables are still worth investigating especially in countries and regions where English is taught as a foreign language.

The language education field has criticised the traditional grammar translation approach, which has been widely used in the average English teaching in Japan for many years (Cook, 1998; Butler and

Iino, 2005; Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011). However, translation competence seems closely connected with communication skills as Chesterman (1998) defined translation competence as the ability to mediate linguistically between two cultures. As CEFR includes translation activities as mediating language activities in the normal linguistic functioning of our societies, the justification of using translation exercises in a language class is based on translation skills as a part of overall communicative, mediating competence (Baker, 1993; Council of Europe, 2001; Laviosa, 2011). Cook (2010) rightly re-evaluated the use of Translation in Language Teaching (TILT), and there is academic literature that supports this view with the use of L1 as an effective teaching and learning tool in foreign language teaching (Witte et al., 2009; Zojer, 2009). In order to stimulate the cognitive potential of learners, the use of L1 cannot be avoided so it should be used effectively by applying the newest research outcomes.

There is also a call both in Learner Corpus Research and in Translation Studies to integrate learner corpus data to extend the analysis of interlanguage development and language teaching practices (Baker, 1995; Laviosa, 1998; Granger, Lerot, & Petch-Tyson, 2003; Aijmer, 2009). A further benefit can be derived from doing more advanced research using the bilingual translation corpus as corpus-based contrastive linguistics and translation studies can be complementary in terms of research methodology, interests and objectives (Kruger, Wallmach, & Munday, 2011).

The objective of the current study is to broach these issues by examining certain aspects that underlie the production of a Translation Corpus and a Translation Learner Corpus (TLC) in order to make a positive contribution to English language teaching in an English as a Foreign Language (EFL) context. It will address these issues by defining translation skills as a part of communicative language activities in the teaching of English. Details of the translation learner corpus with its teaching and data-collecting contexts will follow before describing the corpus analysis results. The paper will conclude that translation exercises are effective for learning to mediate linguistic and cultural gaps while developing mediating, interpreting skills in the process of translating from L1 Japanese to L2 English.

## Mediation Skills

As discussed, various academic literature can be found to justify the use of translation in communicative language teaching. It is important to raise awareness of the fact that a language has a culture behind it, and that word-by-word translation between two languages or cultures is not always possible while teaching that there are methods and skills to learn to deal with these linguistic and cultural discrepancies. In the CEFR, as Camerer and Made (2010) point out, mediation is sometimes considered to mean translation and interpretation, whereas sometimes the focus is on the intercultural context. North (2014) anticipated this shortage of scales for mediation in the original CEFR in that mediation has restricted this view to the transmission across languages of the information held in the text. In 2016, North & Piccardo re-defined cognitive and pedagogic mediation within the following categories:

- translation and interpretation (which are specialised types of mediation);
- online interaction (which involves some aspects related to mediation);
- pluricultural and plurilingual competences (often drawn on in mediation);

- reactions to literature - both personal interpretation and critical analysis (which requires an ability to mediate with a text).

By translating textual meaning while also developing educational intercultural awareness, translation and mediation can play an important role in communicative language activities as part of intercultural communicative skills.

### **Translation in Language Teaching**

As CLT became widely accepted as a mainstream method in the teaching of English in Japan, the Grammar-translation Approach has been criticised as a major factor for Japanese students' poor communicative competence. This idea of translation as an old-fashioned method has prevailed while creating a negative image because an emphasis was placed mainly on learning grammar rules and vocabulary, usually without providing authentic language activities. Partly due to this unfavorable reputation, translation skills are not discussed as one of the important communicative abilities.

However, considering communicative competence which usually includes four aspects as goals of language teaching: grammatical competence, socio-linguistic competence, strategic competence, and discourse competence (Hymes, 1966; Canale & Swain, 1980), translation competence or mediation skills seem closely connected to and valued as an important part of general linguistic skills in foreign language teaching and learning. As Malmkjaer (2009) rightly summarises, in order to raise and measure learners' proficiency, translation has been re-defined as a language skill to be measured and assessed as part of communicative language skills

### **EFL Teaching Context**

In Japanese tertiary education, most undergraduate students are required to study English for one or two years to satisfy degree requirements (Butler & Iino, 2005; Akutsu & Marchand, 2015). Some of this compulsory language study takes place in well-established programs that cater for the English requirements within each department or faculty, while the majority of the Japanese universities expect teachers to design and implement appropriate courses with appropriate levels that they are assigned to teach from year to year. There is also a long-lasting concern of to what extent the learners would be motivated to study English, in the teaching of English in Japan. Some of the widely reported motivational problems in Japan are students' shyness or reluctance to express opinions in class and passive attitudes to overall learning process. (Anderson, 1993; Williams, 1994; Doyon, 2000).

With the limited or almost no amount of real-life exposure to the use of the English language, course and materials design in this EFL context has been an ongoing matter for teachers in the Japanese higher education context, which is perhaps one of the reasons why the grammar-translation method is still predominate in the teaching of English in Japan. The average Japanese student in university is typically much more coherent and expressive in Japanese than English; therefore, it is natural for them to struggle to put their advanced Japanese into linguistically and culturally different English language (Thompson, 2001; Akutsu, 2009; Akutsu, 2010). As students, especially with a

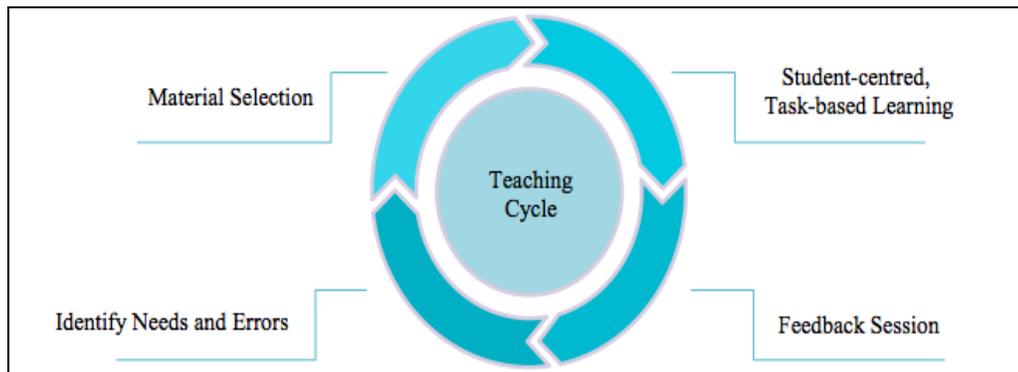
generally lower proficiency level, have a general tendency to constantly translate from Japanese to English (Akutsu, Aoki, & Tani, 2014), it is a meaningful attempt to focus on translation as another valid learning skill cultivating interpretive translation skills and mediation strategies through realizing linguistic and cultural differences between Japanese and English.

### Methodology and Course Design Process

Equipped with little more than a course title and a general idea of student levels usually widely ranging from lower to upper intermediate, equivalent to CEFR A2 to B2, teachers are often called on to make the majority of decisions about the content of the course, including materials selection and student assessment both for required and elective English classes. It is usually anticipated that most students would have enough language proficiency to handle some challenging materials, whereas there needs to be additional support for reluctant students to be motivated and engaged in the activities for the duration of the course.

In this study, the teaching cycle is based on a task-based, self-reinforcing feedback approach as shown in Figure 1 (cf. Willis & Willis, 1996; Graves, 2000; Willis & Willis, 2007).

Figure 1. Teaching Cycle



First, the materials for the courses are chosen by an instructor based on previous classes and from personal experience as a language learner. The needs of learners are also carefully identified to select the translation exercise materials pedagogically appropriate for university students. With specific tasks provided, the main purposes of the classes are defined as student-centered and task-based to reinforce CLT. Through feedback sessions, additional needs and errors are identified to assist with further material development.

In this environment, the elective courses were opened under the course titles, *Language and Culture* and *Creative Writing*, separately in three different universities in Tokyo with the following course objectives:

This course will help students to identify the similarities and differences in language and culture by preparing and comparing translations of texts. Through translation exercises, students will try to improve language skills and also to increase linguistic and cultural knowledge both in English and Japanese.

From the beginning, the aim was to avoid traditional grammar-translation approaches where students are limited to translating sentence by sentence with some target vocabulary and sentence structures. Instead, the focus was on the development of communicative mediating skills necessary to function in an intercultural environment, while providing the task-based, interactive learning environments with the aim of integrating technology into language teaching and learning in a pedagogically appropriate way.

### Online Translation Exercises

In order to extend the interaction with the materials, creating a context where learning could take place in a limited amount of class time is important. Some excerpts from the short story by the Japanese novelist, Dazai Osamu, were chosen as this is a well-known story which utilizes relatively difficult Japanese expressions with some sample translations already available (Table 1). Most importantly, simple attempts at word-for-word literal translation would not be possible or would lead to lexical and grammatical errors.

*Table 1. An excerpt from “Run, Melos” by Osamu Dazai and sample translations*

Osamu Dazai Published in 1940	Ralph McCarthy Published in 1997	Michael Brase Published in 2005
<p>でも邪悪に対しても、人一倍に敏感であった。</p> <p>吹き、羊と遊んで暮して来た。けれど</p> <p>。メロス、村の牧人である。笛を</p> <p>意した。メロスには政治がわからぬ</p> <p>暴虐の王を除かなければならぬと決</p> <p>メロスは激怒した。必ず、かの邪智</p>	<p>Melos was enraged. He resolved to do whatever he must to rid the land of that evil and ruthless king. Melos knew nothing of politics. He was a mere shepherd from an outlying village who spent his days playing his flute and watching over his sheep. But Melos was a man who felt the sting of injustice more deeply than most.</p>	<p>Melos was enraged. He determined he would definitely get rid of the cruel, ruthless king. Melos hadn't had to do with politics. He was only a herdsman in a village. He spent everyday playing the flute and taking care of sheep. Yet he was more sensitive to ruthlessness than other people.</p>

While the tasks are carried out in the classroom, it was one of the aims of the course to use a specifically developed online system to engender an environment where students could compare and learn with sample translations and leave review comments on their own translations in terms of interpretation and language choice.

By presenting the materials online using a course website for self-access, students have more control over the pace of language activities as the website could function as a new medium through which students could gain access to the target texts, allowing them to receive each sample translation to compare once the task has been completed and submitted. Learners can often experience frustration faced with the difficulties which are inherent in translating texts; therefore, showing a clear method to solve some translating issues is actually a vital part of learning so that they can communicatively engage with the texts both in English and Japanese. The opportunities afforded by the functions for the learners to leave review comments for each task therefore was an important part of the teaching cycle in order to design and administer the course.

### Translation Learner Corpus: Data Collection and Preliminary Analysis

The course website was developed not only as a learning tool but also for compiling a translation corpus. The data collection was done during an elective English course at three universities in Tokyo. As a first step, two excerpts from “Run, Melos” were used as source texts to collect the translated texts and make a preliminary analysis (Table 2).

*Table 2. Translation learner corpus*

University	No. of Students	No. of Text 1	Token	No. of Text 2	Token	Total Token
University A	21	21	1,004	0	0	8,734
	93	93	4,497	93	3,233	
University B	29	29	1,293	29	1,136	2,429
University C	113	113	6,794	122	4,369	11,163

As in Table 3, errors are identified in order to develop error tags for the translation exercises. This also aims to promote feedback sessions by learning with error correction symbols and thus creating a deeper engagement with the materials.

Table 3. Sample error notes

No.	Translation by Student	Error Notes	Symbol
AU0108	Melos got very mad. He determined that he would have to kill the evil king without fail. Melos doesn't understand the government. He is one of the ranchers in the village. He has whistled and lived with sheep. However, He has been sensitive against the evil thing more than others.	"without fail" direct translation, redundant  "whistled" word choice - "played his flute" more suitable  "Melos doesn't" "He is" "He has whistled and lived" "He has been"  verb tense, consistency	DT  WC  VT
AU0118	Melos got furious. He promised himself to get rid of the tyrannical king. He doesn't know politics. He's a farmer of the village. He lived until now by blowing the flute and playing with sheeps. But he was more sensitive than others against evil.	"blowing the flute" "playing with sheeps" literal translation  "sheeps" wrong word form  "He doesn't" "He's" verb tense, consistency	LT  WFN  VT

Due to the time-consuming nature of translation exercises, the data collection has certain constraints to increasing its input size within the framework of an English language curriculum in a

university setting; however, as a preliminary analysis, the results provide deeper insight and rationale for shifting the traditional teaching methods to somewhat more communicative language learning approaches.

With some common errors identified, specific errors can be pinpointed and analysed using the concordance software to validate the tendencies. The corpus consists of two texts from 3 universities, but Text 1 from 2 universities were used for N-gram analysis as the English proficiency levels of the students were similar. Each student produced on average fifty words, or five to six sentences. A total of 143 translations have been collected, and the total token of the corpus is 6,892. Using the free concordance tool AntConc, the N-gram lists were generated with frequencies (Table 4).

Table 4: N-gram analysis (*Emphasis added.*)

	2 grams	Freq.	3 grams	Freq.	4 grams	Freq.
1.	he was	126	however he was	41	he decided that he	25
2.	<i>he is</i>	102	<i>he is a</i>	35	he was more sensitive	20
3.	however he	78	he decided to	30	nt know about politics	18
4.	he decided	63	<i>melos does nt</i>	29	<i>melos does nt know</i>	16
5.	melos was	62	<i>does nt know</i>	28	more sensitive to evil	16
6.	sensitive to	57	sensitive to evil	28	<i>he is more sensitive</i>	15
7.	that he	56	decided that he	27	<i>does nt know about</i>	13
8.	he has	53	more sensitive to	26	he did nt know	13
9.	nt know	53	he decided that	25	sensitive to evil than	13
10.	<i>is a</i>	49	he was more	24	however he was more	12

N-gram analysis shows the use of present tense exclusively is characteristic among the learner corpus, even though the text should be translated only in the past tense.

### Teaching with Corpus Analysis

One of the ways to teach students how to avoid sentence-by-sentence or word-by-word translation is to show the gap in the text alignments of the translated works (Table 5).

Table 5. Text alignment (*Emphasis added.*)

Dazai	McCarthy	Brase
メロスは激怒した。	Melos was enraged.	Melos was enraged.
必ず、かの邪智暴虐の王を除かなければならぬと決意した。	He resolved to do whatever he must to rid the land of that evil and ruthless king.	He determined he would definitely get rid of the cruel, ruthless king.
メロスには政治がわからぬ。	Melos knew nothing of politics.	Melos hadn't had to do with politics.
メロスは、村の牧人である。	<i>He was a mere shepherd from an outlying village who</i>	He was only a herdsman in a village.
笛を吹き、羊と遊んで暮して来た。	<i>spent his days playing his flute and watching over his sheep.</i>	He spent everyday playing the flute and taking care of sheep.
けれども邪悪に対しては、人一倍に敏感であった。	But Melos was a man who felt the sting of injustice more deeply than most.	Yet he was more sensitive to ruthlessness than other people.
6 sentences	5 sentences	6 sentences

Comparing the number of the sentences and identifying the discrepancy between them, students can review their own translation and also learn various ways to interpret and translate the texts. As with previous studies, one of the tendencies among Japanese students was sentence-by-sentence translation without interpreting the intended meaning of the texts (Akutsu, 2011). This



relative salience can be demonstrated by comparing the number of texts as part of the classroom activities.

The contrasting usage of tenses between English and Japanese can be clearly revealed by making visual comparisons (Table 6).

Table 6. Tense comparison (*Emphasis added.*)

Dazai		McCarthy	
メロスは激怒した。	Past	Melos was enraged.	Past
必ず、かの邪智暴虐の王を除かなければならぬと決意した。	Past	He resolved to do whatever he must to rid the land of that evil and ruthless king.	Past
メロスには政治がわからぬ。	<i>Present</i>	Melos knew nothing of politics.	<i>Past</i>
メロスは、村の牧人である。	<i>Present</i>	He was a mere shepherd from an outlying village who spent his days playing his flute and watching over his sheep.	<i>Past</i>
笛を吹き、羊と遊んで暮して来た。	<i>Past</i>		
けれども邪悪に対しては、人一倍に敏感であった。	Past	But Melos was a man who felt the sting of injustice more deeply than most.	Past

In Japanese, tense can be mixed especially in a story to increase the dramatic effect (Makino & Tsutsui, 1986), whereas English requires consistency in the use of tense, which will be discussed in the next section as one of the factors of common errors among Japanese students.

### Teaching with Common Error Analysis

As explained in the previous section, the corpus analysis illustrates some important tendencies of learner English, which can be used to raise students' language awareness. According to the

preliminary error analysis of the 256 translations of the excerpt 1, the top five of common errors are found in the following order of frequency as in Table 7:

*Table 7. Common errors in Excerpt 1*

	Errors	Frequencies
1.	Word Choice (literal translations)	264
2.	Spelling	118
3.	Verb Tense	76
4.	Missing or unnecessary article	70
5.	Subject Verb Agreement	49

Among the common errors identified, the following patterns of errors are salient as summarised in Table 8 and Table 9.

One of the prominent common errors found was, as anticipated, caused by word-for-word translation without interpreting the intended meaning of the text and context (Table 8).

*Table 8. Word-for-word translation*

Dazai	McCarthy	Learner 1
メロスは激怒した。	Melos was enraged.	Melos raged.
(1)必ず、かの邪智暴虐の王を除かなければならぬと決意した。	He resolved to do (1) <u>whatever</u> he must to rid the land of that evil and ruthless king.	He decided to try to exclude that tyrannical king (1) <u>definitely</u> .
メロスには政治がわからぬ。	Melos knew nothing of politics.	He don't understand politics.

<p>メロス、村の牧人である。</p>	<p>He was a mere shepherd</p>	<p>He is a stock farmer in the village.</p>
<p>笛を吹き、(2)羊と遊んで暮して来た。</p>	<p>from an outlying village who spent his days playing his flute and (2)watching over his sheep.</p>	<p>He only piped and (2)played with sheep in his life.</p>
<p>けれども邪悪に対しては、人一倍に敏感であった。</p>	<p>But Melos was a man who felt the sting of injustice more deeply than most.</p>	<p>However, he is more sensitive to evil than others.</p>

- (1) 必ず [kanarazu] is an adverb in the Japanese language, which seems to encourage students to look for an adverb for the English translation. It seems lack of collocation preferences cause direct translation based on parts of speech, leaving awkward expressions.
- (2) Without a certain level of interpretational skill to arrive at the contextual meaning, direct translation leads to errors in meaning.

Another important aspect of the analysis is tense consistency, which is one of the major errors among Japanese students. In this part, which is actually the very beginning of the story, the narrator is telling the introduction of the story. In Japanese story telling, it lends some dramatic effect to mix present and past tenses in the same expression, while in English, the tenses need to be consistent to make sense (Table 9).

Table 9. Tense comparison (Emphasis added.)

Dazai	Tense	McCarthy	Tense	Learner 2	Tense
メロスに激怒した。	Past	Melos <u>was</u> <u>enraged</u> .	Past	Melos <u>got</u> very angry.	Past
必ず、かの邪智暴虐の王を(a)除かなければならぬと(b)決意した。	<i>Present / Past</i>	He (b) <u>resolved</u> to do whatever he (a) <u>must</u> to rid the land of that evil and ruthless king.	Past	He (b) <u>decided</u> that he (a) <u>has to withdraw</u> that dreadful king, surely.	<i>Past / Present</i>
メロスには政治が(c)わからぬ。	<i>Present</i>	Melos (c) <u>knew</u> nothing of politics.	Past	But he (c) <u>can't understand</u> politics.	<i>Present</i>
メロスは、村の牧人で(d)ある。	<i>Present</i>	He (d) <u>was</u> a mere shepherd from an outlying village who	Past	He (d) <u>is</u> just only the shepherd of village.	<i>Present</i>
笛を吹き、羊と遊んで(e)暮して来た。	<i>Present perfect</i>	(e) <u>spent</u> his days playing his flute and watching over his sheep.		Although he (e) <u>have come</u> to live and play with his sheep, as blowing the pipe, he (f) <u>is</u> more sensitive than any other people to vicious act.	
けれども邪悪に対しては、人一倍に敏感で(f)あった。	Past	But Melos (f) <u>was</u> a man who felt the sting of injustice more deeply than most.	Past		

The tense errors can be clearly traced with their L1 influence when learner translations are directly compared to the Japanese source text. These examples suggest that common errors indicated by the

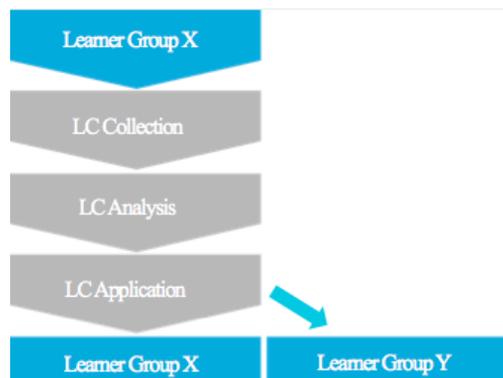
analysis can be found and used to assist in developing teaching materials that satisfy the learner needs with clear linguistic and lexical grammatical focus.

### Translation Corpus and Foreign Language Teaching

Examples from translation learner corpora can be used to identify L1 related common errors of natural collocation caused by direct translation, expressions caused by lack of interpretation, and grammar caused by lack of knowledge in lexical and linguistic differences. By anticipating certain types of errors, concordance analyses can be pinpointed to identify and confirm common errors such as literal translation without interpretation of the context and verb tense errors lacking in consistency.

By using corpora, the aim is to demonstrate language and cultural gaps so that learners as well as teachers are benefitted by the use of translation. For learners, language and cultural awareness as well as communication skills are to be developed, while for instructors, specific types of errors are identified to develop further materials. Granger (2009) suggested Learner Corpora for Immediate Pedagogical Use (IPU) and Delayed Pedagogical Use (DPU) as in Figure 2.

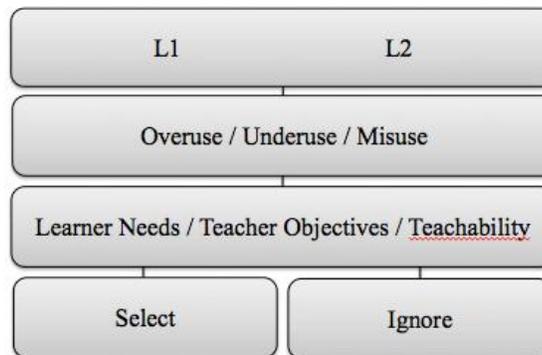
Figure 2. IPU and DPU (Adapted from Granger, 2009)



DPU proposes that the materials should be developed for Group Y based on the learner corpus of Group X, whereas IPU aims Group X itself can be benefitted from the learner corpus of Group X. Translation exercises have the greatest potential for IPU because at least one sample translation can be ready for the learners to compare and reflect on the text they produced. In this way, mediation skills are cultivated through translation in the process of developing interlanguage skills. The exploration of learner data by the learners themselves will motivate many more learners to reflect on their language use and thus raise their foreign language awareness.

Granger (2009) also supports the corpus-based language teaching by utilizing the learner data.

Figure 3. From learner corpus analysis to language teaching (Granger, 2009: 23)



In language teaching using corpus analysis, we can identify overuse, underuse, or misuse both in L1 and L2 and can use them for the teaching (Figure 3). Translation exercises also enable specific types of errors to be targeted and to find and evaluate solutions in order to create improved materials. Errors made by the majority of the students included in the corpus may be used to predict difficulties that other students translating expressions into the target language will have and to build translation exercises accordingly. Any reflection on lexico-grammatical mismatches between the source and target language will potentially be used to develop self-study materials as well. One of the greatest benefits of using corpora is that, by comparing corpora, instructors can also learn how to guide students to translate or interpret the texts with fewer errors.

## Conclusion

This paper discussed how a translation learner corpus compiled from the translated texts of university students in Japan could cultivate mediation skills between Japanese (L1) and English (L2), thereby bridging the gap between cultures. It also explains how a corpus, consisting of source texts in Japanese and learners' translation texts in English, can be utilised to provide lesson materials for future groups of students and analysed to find common errors among Japanese learners.

In terms of L1 interference related errors, the tendencies found seem to be caused by the language differences which can be traced when the bilingual texts are compared. Finding common errors with their possible causes and also potentially related errors is quite useful when using direct findings from corpus analysis in course and material development in order to meet students' needs and to help students engage positively with the course activities and materials.

Most importantly, a majority of the students feel more motivation to use English and Japanese according to the review comments collected along with the online translation exercises. The review comments need to be properly analysed to acquire more detailed feedback regarding their opinions of using the translation approach and to confirm the outcome of this study. However, it is worth pointing

out that there are comments where students felt their attention to language differences was elevated and also seemed more satisfied with the outcome of the language learning as they learned a new way to bridge linguistic and cultural gaps by using the bilingual texts. Their experience of the translation-based language teaching seems to have a positive impact on their overall language learning experience and motivation.

The project is in progress with its aforementioned limitations. While translation exercises were found to be effective, compiling and analyzing translation corpora does pose significant challenges to be included in the general curriculum of English education in Japan, especially as relates to the traditional grammar-translation approach. Nonetheless, teaching English with a translation learner corpus would appear to have several benefits. It demonstrably enhances learner awareness of language differences, and also aids the development of pedagogically valuable materials that target the specific needs of learners, especially because the learners share the same L1 background. It is expected that translation exercises, if deftly employed, could prove useful and effective in the teaching of mediating, intercultural communicative language skills in English and in Japanese.

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## IMPROVING STUDENTS' ENGLISH ABILITY THROUGH ORAL PRESENTATION TASK: THE STUDENTS' PERCEPTION

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**Abstract:** Doing an oral presentation using English as the media of communication is a challenging task for college students. Though the presentation seems to be a limited activity, actually it involves all skills in English. This study aims to get the students' perception on the use of oral presentation as the final task in English for Engineering class at Politeknik Negeri Ujung Pandang. The object of the research are the students of Mechanical Engineering department, Mechatronics study program, academic year 2016/2017 which consist of 20 students. To get the perception, a questionnaire and interview are used to gather the perception of the students. The questionnaire is given to all 20 students while the interview is done randomly. The students who are interviewed is divided into three classifications which are high achiever, medium achiever and low achiever. The presentation task is the final task that must be done by the students at the end of the semester. Since the subject is English for Engineering, the students present about the machines they have in their department's workshop. The presentation itself is divided into three parts; Introduction, Body of Presentation, and Closing, where the students are scored based on each stage in the presentation. The results show that most of the students appreciated the use of oral presentation in English to improve their English ability in terms of speaking as well as to build more self-confidence.

### Introduction

Politeknik Negeri Ujung Pandang is one of the state polytechnics in Indonesia. It has 6 departments and 25 study programs. English is taught in all departments but each department offers different English subject based on the graduates' competence set by the study program. Mechanical Engineering Department has 7 study programs, including Bachelor of Applied Science in Mechatronics program, where the research is conducted.

The ability to speak in English is becoming more important nowadays for English foreign language learners like Indonesian learners. Universities' and polytechnics' graduates are required to have a good proficiency in English. The graduates who have proficiency in English will have more opportunities in getting good jobs compared to the graduates who don't have proficiency in English. Most of industries and Indonesian state owned enterprises have put English as one of their test in selecting new employees which makes English becoming one of the soft skills that the graduates must

have. This is because some of industries in Indonesia owned by foreigners, or employ foreigners as their executive or managers in the industries. While some Indonesian state owned enterprises work together with foreigner contractors.

Realizing the needs of the industries has changed in recent years, polytechnics in Indonesia give more time for English subjects in their departments. In Mechanical Engineering of Polytechnic Negeri Ujung Pandang, before 2008, English was only taught in the first and the second semester. Since 2008, English has taught from first semester to fourth semester, which means that the department tries to accommodate the changes happen in the industries by giving more hours for English subjects. The curriculum changes regularly to fit the industries demand on the graduates' skills.

English in Bachelor in Applied Science of Mechatronics of Mechanical Department as mentioned before is taught from first semester to fourth semester. In the first semester, the students are taught general English which focuses on all tenses and other grammatical things. This general English uses the same material for all study programs. English for Communications is taught in the second semester continued by English for Engineering in the third semester. In the fourth semester material of Test of English as a Foreign Language test is taught. In English for Engineering, oral presentation becomes the final assignment to get the final score of the students in that semester. The oral presentation comes in form of group presentation. Since in that semester they learn English for engineering, the topics of their presentation deal with their mechanical knowledge.

There are some reasons why oral presentation is set as the final assignment in the third semester in Mechatronics, first is based on the Indonesian Qualification Framework which was endorsed by Law no. 12-2012 regarding Higher Education Presidential decree no. 8-2012 regarding the Indonesian Qualification Framework. The Indonesian Qualification Framework is a reflection on human resources quality in Indonesia. One of the expected impacts is motivating quality improvement and accessibilities of Indonesian workforces to both national and international job markets. Second is based on the graduates' competences set by the study program that a graduate must be able to communicate in Bahasa Indonesia and English effectively. The third reason is based on the learning outcomes of the subject in the third semester which is the students are expected to be able to do a presentation regarding to their expertise. This learning outcome is set based on the first and the second reasons. The last is based on teachers' perceptions on oral presentation.

Oral presentation is considered as one of the useful techniques in improving the students' English ability especially in speaking. Oral presentation gives more opportunities for the students to develop their knowledge and skill in English. It also creates a real communication life for students to use English in the classroom.

Levin and Topping (Al-Nouh, 2015) says that oral presentation is planned and practiced speech that is not memorized or read from notes but is introduced by a presenter to an audience. Fraioui (2016) stated that oral presentation technique is seen as an effective strategy that is used to encourage student-centered approach in order to succeed in their speaking proficiency in the target language. Mandel (Fraoui, 2016) also defined oral presentation as a speech that is only given in a business, technical, professional, or scientific environment. The audience are likely to be more specialized than

those attending a typical speech event. Chivers and Shoolbred (Fraoui, 2016) claimed that doing a presentation is very good learning experience. In other words, oral presentation is a good learning experience for both the presenters and the audience. For presenters, they can learn on how to prepare a presentation starting from study the topic, find and study the references, make the presentation and deliver it. The presenters also learn on how to deliver the presentation in a structured way so the audience can understand the topic. Moreover, they experience on how to communicate with the audience during the presentation. While for the audience, they get new information from the speakers and can communicate with the speakers during the presentation. Both also experience using English as the mean of communication during the presentation.

Some researches have been conducted regarding to the oral presentation. Gavin Brooks & John Wilson (2014) in their research '*Using Oral Presentation to Improve Students' English Language Skills*' stated that oral presentation provides a teacher with a learner centered activity which can be used in the language classroom as an effective tool for improving the students' communicative competence. The research outlines some of the benefits of implementing oral presentations in second language classroom as well as some of the difficulties involved in using presentations in university language classes in Japan. Nowreya A. Al-Nouh & Muneera M. Abdul Kareem (2015) in their paper titled '*EFL College Students' Perception of the Difficulties in Oral Presentation as a Form of Assessment*' stated that oral presentation skill is believed one of the most important competence needed for the higher education and future careers. The research was conducted at the College of Basic Education (CBE) in Kuwait City, Kuwait. The participants were about 500 female students and a five point Likert Scale questionnaire was used to gather information.

Another research conducted regarding to oral presentation was done by Kho and Leong (2015). The research focused on identifying the causes of oral presentation difficulties faced by the students at a polytechnic in Sarawak. The instruments used in this research were questionnaire and structured interview to 223 respondents. The researcher found that there was a significant difference between engineering students and commerce students in term of difficulties in doing an oral presentation. Rima (2016) in her dissertation titled '*Improving Students' Speaking Proficiency in EFL Classes through Oral Presentation Technique*' focused to find out the relationship between speaking proficiency and oral presentation technique in order to develop students' speaking abilities. A questionnaire was given to 60 second year students of English. The findings confirmed that oral presentation technique helped the students to improve their speaking ability.

## Methodology

The research used a combination of quantitative and qualitative methods, an open-ended questionnaire and a structured interview were used to gather information. The participants consisted of 20 students of Bachelor of Applied Science of Mechatronic, year 2016/2017. The questionnaire consisted of 12 questions and it was given to 20 students who became the respondents in this research. While the students who were interviewed were chosen randomly. Some of them were high achiever, medium and low achiever. As mentioned before that oral presentation which came in form of group

presentation became the final task in the third semester. The students studied English for Engineering in the third semester. Actually this oral presentation was not the students' first experience of doing presentation in English class. Since the first semester, the students have done some presentations. The differences between the oral presentation the students did in the first and second were the topics and the form of the presentation. The topics delivered in the previous semesters were more general and most of them were individual presentation. Whereas the presentation done in the third semester was about engineering such as the machines in the workshop and it was a group presentation.

Before giving a questionnaire to the students, a questionnaire was given to 12 English teachers from all departments in Politeknik Negeri Ujung Pandang. The questionnaire focused on what things the teachers believed the students can learn from an oral presentation task. The result from the questionnaire filled by the teachers showed that all the teachers agreed that the students can improve their English skills through a presentation task. Beside that it also can enrich the students' vocabulary, use correct sentence structure, develop or increase students' self-confidence, develop the ability to work in a team, develop their ability in leadership.

The research questions were:

1. What are the students' perception on oral presentation task?
2. How does the students' perception match the teachers' perception on oral presentation task?

Based on the research questions then the purposes of the research were to get information about the students' perception on oral presentation task and to get information on how the students' perception match the teachers' perception on oral presentation task.

Before doing the presentation, there were several topics taught which helped them to do the presentation. The topics are: engineering terms, telling function of machines, tools, and equipment, how the machine works, making instructions using imperative sentences, telling process using passive voice, safety signs, and how to deliver a presentation. The students were expected to be able to use the language points in each topic in their presentation.

The students were divided into several groups consisted of 3 to 4 students. There were seven machines in the mechanical workshop. These seven machines became the topics of the presentation. the machines were lathe, oxy acetylene welding, shielded metal arc welding, bending, drilling, grinding and milling machine. The students have experienced to work with these machines since the first semester. The members of the group were determined by the students by picking up a paper with number on it prepared by the teacher. So if a student picked a paper with number one on it then it meant he or she belonged to the first group and so on. Each group was given 45 minutes to do their presentation. The presentation must have an introduction, body of presentation, closing, and question and answer session. The content consisted of history of the machine, the function of the machine, the parts and the functions, and how the machine works. Each group had to make a power point with pictures; they could also play a video about the machine presented. At the end of the presentation they must answer at least 3 questions from other groups.

In term of scoring the presentation, a scoring rubric was used. The rubric was adopted from some rubrics and it was made based on the need. The teacher scored each group both as a group and as individual. Some things that were scored as a group work such as how the presentation was opened properly, whether the group convey the objective well, the presentation was presented clearly, and whether the group informed about the rules of the presentation. in the body of presentation, the group was scored on the information contained, the material, the technical terms were well defined in language appropriate for the target audience, the slides were readable and clear, the use of pictures and other visual supports the main points of the presentation. A conclusion needed to be given to summarize the presentation. While for individual score, the members of the group were scored on several things such as how the speakers maintained good eye contact with the audience and was appropriately animated, the speakers used a clear, audible voice, well rehearsed, visual aids were well prepared, informative, effective, and not distracting, whether the speakers were within time limits and speakers were able to answer questions professionally.

## Findings and Discussion

This part will explain the findings of the research based on the research questions that have been set before as well as the discussion about the result. The first question of the questionnaire for the students was *“How do you feel about the oral presentation task. Choose one or more feelings.”* For this question, the students were asked to choose one or more feelings which represented their feeling about the task. The research provided the options of feelings such as happy, excited, challenged nervous, curious, confident, sad, angry, scared and upset. The result from this question showed that most of the students chose nervous, challenged and excited at the same time. It is about 84% of the students feel nervous, 68% of the students feel challenged and about 32% of them feel excited. None of the felt scared or upset. From this data it can be said that there was a positive attitude toward the assignment given in the classroom. As Gardner (Ahmed, 2015) stated that positive attitudes and motivation are related to success in second language learning.

Some excerpts from the interview that show how the students’ felt about the task:

*“I feel happy, challenged and nervous. Because when I talk or doing presentation in front of many people I would feel like what if I say is wrong or what if my vocabulary its not good, but at the same time I would feel challenged because from that presentation I will know how far I can talk in front of many people and how far my knowledge about vocabulary and after presentation I would feel happy because now I know how far my knowledge about presentation so in the future i can be better.”* (S05)

*“Because with oral presentation I can know my skill in verbal communication with english language. Im bit nervous at beginning of presentation but I can handle in the middle of the presentation. I feel challenged to speak in front of class with my friend as audience for getting used speak in public.”* (S06)

Next question which will be explained is *“Do you think the presentation task improve your reading, writing, listening and speaking skill?”*. The result showed that 100% of the students agreed that the presentation task improve their skills in English. Some of them stated that by doing the

presentation they do the speaking, writing, reading, and listening at the same time, which means that their skills are improved. The result of this question also matched the teachers' questionnaire result where all the teachers stated that the presentation can improve the students' skills in English.

The third question that will be discussed is "*What other benefits of doing an oral presentation task?*". The results are vary. About 47% of the students stated that the other benefit of doing an oral presentation is increase their confident, 16% believed that it increased their knowledge and 5% trained their leadership. the result of the teachers' questionnaire was also showed the same result where they believed that through oral presentation the students are not only improve their skills but also increase their confident, practice their public speaking, as well as train their ability in giving opinions. Based on the researcher's observation on her students, she noticed that some students who became the leaders of the groups gain more confident and could do their task as the leader in the presentation. Some members of the groups also became more confident in presenting their part.

Regarding to the topics taught before the presentation is represented in this question "*Do you think the topics taught before the presentation help you in doing the presentation? Explain.*" All the students (100%) agreed that the topics that are taught before the task helped them in doing the presentation. As mentioned before that before it came to the presentation, there were some topics taught. The topics contained the language points which would be used in the presentation. Beside that the topics came with some exercises that became useful practices for the students before doing the group presentation at the end of the semester.

The last question which will be discussed is "*Explain in what way the experience of presentation benefits you in the future.*" The response showed that about 90% of the students stated that the experience of doing presentation will benefit them when they work in industries or foreign companies. Some said that this experience will make them feel confident to speak in front of many people using English and will make give them more opportunity in their work in the future.

## Conclusion

From the results and the the discussion, it can be concluded that the research questions have been answered with sufficient evidence. From the questionnaire that has been given to 20 students of Bachelor of Applied Science of Mechatronic, year 2016/2017, showed that most of the students felt nervous and challenged at the same time. Nervous because it was the first time for them to do a group presentation and challenged because they realized that doing this task could help them to improve their proficiency in English. The students also stated that the task improved their listening, speaking, reading and writing at the same time though speaking got the highest part in the task.

In term of the second research question which is "How does the students' perception match the teachers' perception on oral presentation task?", the questionnaire filled by the teachers and the students showed a strong relation between them. The results of the teachers' questionnaire stated that through oral presentation the students will enrich their vocabulary, able to use correct sentence structure, apply the reading skill, improve their speaking, writing and listening skills, gain more self-

confident, and grow leadership. the results of the students' questionnaire were also stated the same with what the teachers' questionnaire.

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## Translation-Presentation Methods: The Students' Performance in Academic English Class

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Academic English for Accounting Students refers to the theories and principles of accounting. This study focuses to the use of translation-presentation methods to improve the students' presentation skill. This method was applied for seven weeks to do translation and four weeks for individual presentation in the odd semester 2017. There were two main instruments used in collecting the data; presentation scoring rubric and open-ended questionnaire. From the presentation score, it shows the students' final score. The mean score was 85.58 from 21 students; it is A grade based on PNUP academic score rules. The second finding shows that the students are very helpful in improving their presentation skill; they got many new words from translation activity and they were confident to do presentation individually because they know well what they present about. They also said that their accounting comprehension is renewed and improve as their main competence.

### Introduction

The teaching of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) in Indonesia is very challenging. Indonesia has more than 700 local languages with multi dialects and their own characteristics. *Bahasa Indonesia* is the only uniting language to communicate among society, but it is still interfere by the local language structure. With all of these differences, the government revise the curriculum in Indonesia regularly as well as English curriculum changes. Since EFL teaching in Indonesia became integral part of national education system, it follows curriculum innovations that can be seen by teaching English starting from elementary school. The brief history of English curriculum in Indonesia is starting from 1968 – 1975 curriculums known as structural oriented curriculum. Learn English in the classroom only listens to the language in the limited time and context by following the the principles of language teaching and learning set by *Departemen Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan*, 1975. The principles are; the teaching of English begins with the introduction of the English sound system and English grammatical system.

The next English curriculum is in 1984. It is marked the shift from focusing on language usage to language use. The 1984 English curriculum is intended to be a communicative one with three types of language activity: reading, dialogues, and writing (Madya, 2008). Ten years ahead, the curriculum has changed to the 1994 curriculum to strengthening the communicative orientation. The 1994 English

curriculum emphasized the mastery of communicative skills to be acquired through the implementation of the so-called meaning-based approach. In the late of 1990s, the government announced to make the teaching of English more contextual through CTL. In 2006, the English curriculum is based on the school-level curriculum, where English is set as compulsory subject at the junior and senior secondary schools and can be selected as a subject of local content (Government Regulation No. 23/2006).

The present curriculum changes stated that English is one of compulsory subjects that should be taught in Higher Education of Indonesia (Kepmendiknas No. 232/U/2000, UUSPN No. 20 year 2003). Also, in Government Law No.12 year 2012, article 35 part 2 stated that Higher Education prepare the students for having knowledge, skills, independency, and finding, improving, and implementing useful knowledge, skills, and technology. As well as the accounting association from different countries; Accounting education committees in the USA (American Accounting Association, 1986; Accounting Education Change Commission, 1990; American Institute of Certified Public Accountants, 1999; Albrecht & Sack, 2000) and Australia (CPA Australia, 1996; Mathews, Jackson, & Brown, 1990; Birkett, 1993; Institute of Chartered Accountants in Australia, 1998a, 1998b, 2001) have indicated a number of deficiencies in accounting education and have suggested changes in course emphasis. They agree that university courses can no longer be completely content-driven and limited to specific technical skills. If graduate students aim to succeed as knowledge professionals in the highly changeable global business environment, they have to possess a range of technical and generic skills. In this context, generic skills can be viewed as transferable qualities to suit the industry in which graduates work; these include but are not limited to communication, team, leadership, problem solving, analytical and interpersonal skills. Presentation is one of the technical and generic skills that should be possessed by accounting graduate students.

Many studies consistently agree that communication skills are considered the most important skills for new accountancy graduates as required by accounting practitioners and professional groups (Albin & Crockett, 1991; Borzi & Mills, 2001; Hock, 1994; L. Johnson & V. Johnson, 1995; LaFrancois, 1992; Morgan, 1997). Studies also reveal that accountancy employers have particular concern in regard to the recruitment of suitably qualified graduates with strong communication skills (Courtis & Zaid, 2002; McLaren, 1990; Zaid & Abraham, 1994).

By those rules, agreement, and study results, accounting department in Politeknik Negeri Ujung Pandang (PNUP) set English as students' specific skill like computer skill, computer application skill, business and management skills, and math. It was set for 5 semesters learning English for Diploma 4 and 4 semesters for Diploma 3, the main purpose of learning English is to equipt the graduate students to communicate in English both oral and written before they graduate and work in various industries. The English subjects include; English in General (studies about English grammar practice), Business English (discuss about business activities in the world), Academic English 1 and 2 (focus on writing in academic English 1 and presentation in academic English 2), and Professional English (covers the writing, listening, and presentation skills). Academic English 2 used a skill building approach and focused on giving presentation skill based-accounting. The Academic English subject is fully use accounting topics, it covers accounting history, accounting principles, accounting information system, financial report, and other relevance topics. For those, the lecturers try to give a better teaching approach to increase the student's English performance.

The presentation skill of academic English 2 includes: 1). Planning: Managing a seminar presentation, determining presentation objectives, selecting specific accounting topics which are available in Accounting Principles book written by Weygandt, Kieso and Kimmel. For example: Journal, ledger, cash flow statement, Account Receivable, internal audit, etc. 2). Delivering the presentation: Before the presentation/seminar, At the presentation/seminar, 3). Participating in presentation/seminar: before the presentation/seminar, during the presentation of the paper, during the discussion stage, 4). Presentation/seminar skills: Getting clarification, 5). Presentation/seminar skills: disagreeing 6). Presentation/seminar skills: signposting (useful phrases: introduction, ordering points, transition, conclusion 7).Presentation/seminar skills: Questioning 8). Presentation/seminar skills: concluding 9).Presentation/seminar skills: Using visual aids (stage 1: preparation, stage 2: practice, stage 3. Presentation, stage 4. Evaluation), timing management. 10). Evaluation for the presentation/seminar.

Presentation skill is important components of accounting education, it is one of the students' soft skill ability as the Government rule what the students must have. Students can improve their oral presentation skills when they know the expectations for effective presentations, give multiple group and individual presentations, and experience consistent instructor feedback (Kerby, 2010). Also, they are able to present good performance when they know what points they want to communicate to the audiences, the writer's assumption. Before all stages of the presentation done, the lecturer divides the material to the students; one student gets one unit from Accounting Principles book written by Weygandt, Kieso and Kimmel. They are responsible to master the whole parts of the unit by doing translation. Translation is used in this study to get clear information about the material that should be presented by the students. The translation model is undecided, as long as the students get the point of their materials, under the researcher guidance as well.

Knowing the points of the presentation means that they need long preparation on what their topics are. Therefore, they have 7 weeks to prepare their presentation material by translating the topics given. This is one of the traditional methods of teaching, the teachers ask the students to apply whatever the way that may help them to gain general meaning of the text (Kaplan and Norton, 1996 and Lawson et al., 1998). English presentation is the most difficult thing to do by non-English students; moreover they do not have enough preparations. As the prior information, the students feel nervous when they want to do presentation; they can not present their material well when they do not know well their topic. So, the present study offers translation-presentation methods to elevate the students' presentation skill in English. Doing translation to know better of their material, and then present it individually to have good performance in English.

## **Review of Related Literature**

There are several studies found that translation is an effective way to teach/learn grammar, syntax, and lexis of a foreign language (Mollaei, Fatemeh, Taghinezhad Ali, and Sadighi, Firooz, 2017). Furthermore, they explained that implementing translation in foreign language classrooms is not a way to train a translator but rather a method to assist learners in acquiring and improving their language knowledge and competence. There are tangible tracks of translation in language learning based on recent studies of applied linguistics. The objections to using translation in foreign language settings refer to a limited view of translation. This is to say that translation is a form of communication rather than structure manipulation.

Translation has been known as one of the cognitive learning strategies (Chamot & Kupper, 1989; Oxford, 1990). It means that learners are able to process, accept, and share their second language based on their first language. Husain (1995) reports that foreign language learners are able to comprehend and analyze the complicated structure of the second language rapidly and efficiently by means of translation. In several studies, translation is used as an affective, social, memory, and compensation strategy in order for assisting learners to learn foreign languages effectively through different methods. For example, Karimian and Talebinejad (2013) reported Iranian students' use of translation as a learning strategy and said that translation was a supportive and effective factor for learning English. Klaudy (2003) discussed pedagogical translation as a tool of enhancing learners' proficiency; the use of such translation with the purpose of teaching a foreign language is associated with Grammar- Translation Method.

Seeing the students' proficiency or their performance in academic English class is the focus objective of this study. So, the combination of translation and presentation method is used to know the students' performance. Presentation is the way to introduce, share, and demonstrate information to the public. It is the pivotal skill should be possessed by graduate students to have better job position. The issue of the role of communication abilities in making a presentation in public has implications for business communication and career success. Effective presentations will help students understand how to deliver their knowledge to the public successfully (Sukitkanaporn and Phoocharoensil, 2014). How to present an effective presentation? Of course, by knowing better what should be presented about (the content of the presentation). Another thing to effectify the presentation is clear points, making good use of visuals, and engaging the audience.

Presentation in language learning is customary in most tertiary institutions. PowerPoint software, which is popularly used to support oral presentations, not only reflects students' content mastery but also their presentation skills (Murugaiah, 2016). The tradisional presentation, or called classroom presentation is used in this study because the students need to share and listen the material directly from the presenters. In doing the presentation, the students often memorize or read the text on the slide (if the slide contains heavy text). It was happed because they do not know well their material. For those, the students are allowed to translate their material given and study the detail information of it for 7 weeks as writer stated in the previous part.

What are expected from the students' presentation? They are content of the presentation, information clarity, grammatical use, clear pronunciation, body language use, eye contact, audience interaction, and so forth. Those all can be achieved, again by knowing well their presentation materials. The ability to deliver a good presentation is critical skills for the students who do presentation in English but they are not English students, this is the target of English presentation in academic English class. This is the reason of accounting department of PNUP set English as the specific skill.

## **Research Method**

This research conveyed the combination method; quantitative and qualitative methods. Quantitative method is used to know the students' translation performance as well as their presentation performance in academic English class. While, qualitative method is used to gain information from the

students on their accounting comprehension as their major. This study focuses to the use of translation-presentation methods to improve the students' English performance; specifically presentation skill. Besides, the students' comprehension about theories and principles of accounting is also increase by translating from English to Indonesia. This method was applied for seven weeks to do translation; English to Indonesia, the result of the translation then presented individually in English for the rest of the meeting in the odd semester 2017. There were two main instruments/tools used in collecting the data; document analysis; students' translation result and presentation scoring rubric. Open-ended questionnaire is also need to know the students opinion toward the method used.

In collecting the data, the writer needs a full semester process. The translation result is as the students' mid test score and the presentation is as the final test score. The total score from the mid and final score is representing their English performance in academic English class. the following steps are the process in collecting the data:

1. 1<sup>st</sup> meeting, the writer with the students agreed the topics that should be presented in the end of the semester, and then the students choose their topics by blind or closed option. It was done by wrote the topics in a small paper, fold the paper, and students take out one of the paper as their presentation material. The students then copied the material.
2. 2<sup>nd</sup> – 7<sup>th</sup> meeting, the students started their translation activity under the guidance. In each meeting, the students have translation target. For an example, one topic consists of 6 pages means that the students have to complete one page translation in one meeting.
3. 8<sup>th</sup> meeting is the mid test. In the mid test, the students reported their translation result by using "bahasa Indonesia". It is used to see the students' comprehension toward their topics/materials. The score is given directly based on the point explained by the students and their response to the writer questions (see the point assessed for translation result).
4. 9<sup>th</sup> – 15<sup>th</sup> meeting is individual presentation. Each student has 20 minutes to present their materials and 10 minutes for question and answer. English academic class time allotment in a meeting is 150 minutes, divided by 30 minutes is equal 5. It means that there are 5 students do the presentation in a meeting, but in fact there were only 3 – 4 students did the presentation in one meeting due to the unintentional thing; like learning aid problem (visual aid). During the presentation, the writer record the students score from some criteria (see the scoring rubrics).
5. The last data collection is open-ended questioner to know the students opinion toward the method used as well as their accounting comprehension.

The data result from the mid test score and final test score then interpreted as the students' performance in academic English class.

Table 1: Assessment points of the translation result

Interval Score	Criteria/Assessment Points
$\geq 80$	The translation result is reported accurately; no additional and reduction meaning to the original text, the translation result is clear; information clarity is easy to understood, and respon well the writer questions.
70 – 79	The translation result is reported accurately; no additional and reduction meaning to the original text, the translation result is clear; information clarity is easy to understood, but can't respon well the writer questions.
60 – 69	The translation result is reported accurately; no additional and reduction meaning to the original text, the translation result is unclear; some points are missing, but able to respon the writer questions.
50 – 59	The translation result is reported inaccurately, the translation result is unclear; some points are missing, but able to respon the writer questions.
$\leq 49$	The translation result is reported inaccurately, the translation result is unclear; some points are missing, and no respon to the writer questions.

Adapted from Larson, 1991

Table 2: Scoring rubrics of the presentation

Interval Score	Assessment Criteria
$\geq 80$	Know the content very well, proper grammatical used, the information is clear, good pronunciation (voice intonation), interact to the audiences (eye contact, mobility, and use gesture), interested power point, and responding the questions from the audiences.
70 – 79	Know the content well, proper grammatical used, the information is clear, good pronunciation (voice intonation is flat), interact to the audiences (eye contact, mobility, and use gesture), interested power point, and responding the questions from the audiences.
60 – 69	Know the content well, some ungrammatical used, the information is not clear enough, good pronunciation (voice intonation is flat), interact to the audiences (less eye contact, mobility, and use gesture), interested power point, and responding the questions from the audiences.
50 – 59	Know the content well, some ungrammatical used, the information is not clear enough, bad pronunciation (voice intonation is flat), interact to the audiences (less eye contact, no mobility, but use gesture), interested power point, and responding the questions from the audiences.
$\leq 49$	Know the content but unclear information, some ungrammatical used, bad pronunciation (voice intonation is flat), interact to the audiences (less eye contact, no mobility, and no gesture), interested power point, and responding the questions from the audiences.

The average scoring result then classified into five classifications based on the score scale used at State Polytechnic of Ujung Pandang as follows:

Table 3: Score scale of PNUP

Interval Scale	Value	Grade	Remark Classification
$\geq 80$	4	A	Very Good
70 – 79	3	B	Good
60 – 69	2	C	Fair
50 – 59	1	D	Poor
$\leq 49$	0	E	Very Poor

To get the average score, the following formula is used:

$$\bar{X} = \frac{\sum X}{N}$$

where:

$\bar{X}$	: Average
$\sum X$	: Total Score
N	: Number of students

## Result and Discussion

### 1. The students translation result

As stated in the previous part that the translation result of the students will be their mid test score refers to accuracy; no additional and reduction meaning to the original text, the translation result is clear; information clarity is easy to understood, and respon well the writer questions. The following table shows the students mid test score.

Table 4: The students' translation (mid test) result.

No	Classification	Interval Score	Frequency	Percentage (%)
1.	Very Good	$\geq 80$	13	61,90
2.	Good	70 – 79	8	38,10
3.	Fair	60 – 69	0	0
4.	Poor	50 – 59	0	0
5.	Very Poor	$\leq 49$	0	0
	Total		21	100

The table shows that there are 61,90% the students got very good score in understanding their material through translation activity and 38,10% got good score. It indicates that the students understand very well their material, only few students didn't give the proper respond to the writer questions. In line with (Mollaei, Fatemeh, Taghinezhad Ali, and Sadighi, Firooz, 2017) who found that translation is good for beginners who do not learn the critical level of proficiency in their target language for expression. In giving this mid score, the students explain their material orally in front of the lecturer. They started to explain the title of their material, then explain the sub topics, and the detail information of it. The last was answering the question given by the lecturer. They did it by using bahasa Indonesia because their text material is in English.

## 2. The students presentation performance

Regarding to the students presentation performance, the writer used rubric presentation to gain the students mean score. The rubrics are; know the content very well, proper grammatical used, the information is clear, good pronunciation (voice intonation), interact to the audiences (eye contact, mobility, and use gesture), interested power point, and responding the questions from the audiences. . The following table shows the students presentation score.

Table 5: The students' presentation score

No	Classification	Interval Score	Frequency	Percentage (%)
1.	Very Good	$\geq 80$	11	52,38
2.	Good	70 – 79	10	47,62
3.	Fair	60 – 69	0	0
4.	Poor	50 – 59	0	0
5.	Very Poor	$\leq 49$	0	0
	Total		21	100

Table 5 shows that most of the students got very good score in doing presentation, it is about 52,38%. 10 students or equal 47,62% who got good score. It indicates that the students are able to present more when they know their presentation materials. They know the content very well, proper grammatical used, the information is clear, good pronunciation (voice intonation), interact to the audiences (eye contact, mobility, and use gesture), interested power point, and responding the questions from the audiences, but some others are still flat in voice intonation.

After getting the translation and presentation result, the writer calculated the mean score of the students as the final score to see to what extent the students' performance in Academic English class. The average score was 82.16 from 21 students; it is A grade based on PNUP academic score rules, but it is not the final score yet. The final score of the students not only taken from the mid test score and final test score, but it is the calculation from assignment, formative, mid, and final test as well as the practical score. So, the average score of the students for the whole assessment is 85,58.

## 3. The students opinion on the method used and their accounting comprehension

As the compliment of the findings and discussion of this study, the writer distributed open-ended questionnaire to get the students' view on the use of translation-presentation method in improving their English performance as well as their accounting comprehension. Question 1: Do you get new vocabularies from translation activity? How much?

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Yes (Much)	16	76,19
Yes	5	23,81
No	0	

Question 2: Do your accounting knowledge improve after translating your materials?

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	21	100
No	0	0

Question 3: Are you more confident in doing presentation when you know your materials well?

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	21	100
No	0	0

Question 4: In your view, do the translation-presentation methods help you in improving your English performance?

“All of the students gave the positive response to this question; translation-presentation methods help them to improve their English performance. Their reasons are: translation make them know their material well, translating in the class under the lecturer guidance make them helpful, they get additional knowledge of accounting, they are more confident in doing presentation when they know well their material, they can memorize faster, and knowing the material can reduce their anxiety in doing presentation”.

The data from questionnaire shows that the students are very helpful in improving their English performance; they got many new words from translation activity (76,19% stated that their vocabulary increases very much), and they were confident to do presentation individually because they know well what they present about (100%). They also said that their accounting comprehension is renewed and improve as their main competence (100%).

### Conclusion and Recommendation

The study presents an insight of integrating translation and presentation in improving the students' performance in Academic English class. The students need a long time to prepare their material presentation, the lecturers' guidance is needed to help them in the process of their translation activity. By knowing the material well, the students are able to present their best when they do the presentation. They have passed the semester with a very good score in Academic English class, they met the requirement of the rubrics assessment for both translation and presentation. They were able to explain the detail information of their material in Bahasa Indonesia as well as in English by using their own language style. All of the students' achievement indicates that they have good performance in Academic English class.

Expectedly, this study will help the lecturers or the teachers who taught English for non-English students in helping the students reach their language target in vocational higher education. It is also expected that the result of this study can guide the students to understand their material firstly before communicating it to others and love to learn English. Although the result of this study indicates the students have good performance but the translation activity needs to be specified in its approach

used and its assessment criteria. For those, quantitative study on how the students improve their English and to what extent their English performance improved; their translation skill by using specific method is recommended.

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## THE FLIPPED ENGLISH CLASSROOM: PRO AND CONTRA

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**Abstract:** The main goal of successful flipped English classroom is to enhance student learning and achievement by reversing the traditional model of a classroom by focusing class time on student understanding rather than on monotonous lecture. This allows class time to be devoted to expanding on and mastering the material through collaborative learning exercises, projects, and discussions. Essentially, the task and teaching material that is typically complete at home will be done in the classroom, while the lectures that are usually done in the classroom are viewed through a video or read through a book before coming to the classroom. However, by flipping the English classroom it has also pro and contra from the experts, lecturers, and students. The paper describes the pro and contra of flipped classroom implementation in teaching and learning English.

### The Flipped Classroom

The flipped classroom has been developed and made popular by Bergmann and Sams (2012) who first used it to overcome the need to give assistance for students athletes therefore they can grasp what they missed in the class while they were absent for reason attending competitions. Initially, the purpose of this method was to record and create the video of some lectures on a particular subject to facilitate students who had missed the classes to catch up with the group. The design of this technology is main stages of the teaching and learning process such as classroom activities and homework reversed. That is, theoretical material studied by students individually by means of watching video lectures recorded by the teacher or downloaded from the Internet websites while classroom activities are devoted to fulfilling practical tasks and discussing the major issues with the lecturer. They have been consistent supporters of the individual approach to the student, considering that it is necessary to offer an occasion for students to learn in this way, at such times and in forms in which they want it.

The flipped classroom is defined as a pedagogical model in the book “Flip Your Classroom: Reach Every Student in Every Class Every Day” Bergmann and Sams (2012) compare the amount of time spent on learning activities in the traditional and flipped classroom. The comparison showed that in the flipped classroom much more time is devoted to practical activities instead of studying the theoretical material (75 minutes versus 35 minutes). The meaningful activities done at classroom since the students must watch the material given before coming to classroom. A typical flipped classroom strategy is for lecturers to prerecord lectures and post them online for students to watch on their own so that class time dedicated to student-centered learning activities. The design required students’ engagement with material and encourage critical thinking and problem solving. This student-centered model requires students be responsible for coming to class with a basic understanding of the materials,

so that they can fully participate in class discussion and activities. Content acquisition is self-paced and self guided, enabling students to manage when and how much content they view. It will develop interactive experiences, challenge students to think, and provide expert approaching and response since open-ended experiences within the classroom equip students for success by fostering critical cognitive development and promoting innovation through collaboration.

### **The Pros**

Soliman's research in 2016 regarding students' opinions of the flipped classroom strategy which applied in English for Academic class for Egyptian university students at the end of semester by providing five questions namely: what did you like about this semester?, what did you not like at all?, how did you feel about the online classes?, did you like getting the lectures at home?, and what do you think could be done to make the experience more enjoyable? The students' responses were positive regarding their satisfaction in implementation of flipped classroom as seen in the feedback for each of the questions:

1. The online classes are giving them more skills and experience involving in active class since the lecturer using diverse teaching methods to make the classroom atmosphere motivating and enjoying for us.
2. This English subject was the most subject that students achieved benefit and learned much. They liked how learned in class by doing meaningful activities and enjoyed how lecturer made them learned many things in the same time with no boredom at all in classroom.
3. Online classes are superior for the reason that quizzes can be completed at any time also to learn lectures from video and read as preparation before class is an excellent approach to learn.
4. The flipped classroom is truly advantageous to students as it is an indication to check whether they were working on the correct path or not.
5. The thing that students liked this semester was the online classes were efficient and easy to be understood.

A survey research conducted in National Tomsk Polytechnic University in 2015 at Russia by Evseeva and Solozhenko. The result stated that 85% of students involved in the survey agreed the idea of integrating the flipped classroom technology into the learning process. 15% of students were not motivated by this technology because of the problems they faced with such as the difficulties that students experienced working with the electronic course such as access to internet, limited time for finishing online assignments, complexity with self-discipline to manage their task properly. Almost all students which is represented by 98% declared ease of use of e-learning materials as one of the most important advantages of the course. 75% of students appreciated the great chances for collaboration and communication via e-learning. Flipped classroom offers lecturers flexible timetable, participation and motivation of students in studying English as a foreign languages and increase students' academic performance. Furthermore, it has a positive impact on students' self-discipline and self-directedness due to the reality that students lead on responsibility for their own learning pace. The flipped classroom has an enormous pedagogical possibility for both lecturers and students.

There are presently a growing number of lecturers experimenting by flipping their classrooms at KTH Royal Institute of Technology in Sweden. Therefore, Cronhjort and Weurlander in 2016 focused on group interviews and the students' perspective in order to inspect students' perception of

flipped classroom in engineering education. The learning situation included web-based interactive video films, where students had to answer quizzes in order to keep on watching the films, and interactive in-class sessions with clickers. In general, the students had unlimited experiences of flipped classroom in many subjects. Their research perceived strengths, drawbacks, and students' views on learning with flipped classroom. Overall, the students opinion were positive to flipped classroom where students experienced many advantages, but they also pointed out difficulties and had many opinions about how a flipped learning setting was best implemented. In the interviews, students also expressed their views on learning and described the process of studying. One of the students had dyslexia and described her experience and special conditions. Overall, students appreciated the flipped classroom design, although they identify some difficulties and areas of improvement.

Table 1. The Strengths of Flipped Classroom

Films	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Usable for repetition, e.g. before examination</li> <li>• Possible to rewind, allows time for making notes</li> <li>• Flexible: adjustable pace and watched at suitable occasion</li> <li>• Offer more possibilities than live lectures: may include pictures, animations [and show specific locations or situations discussed in the lecture]</li> <li>• Effective, well used time, lectures would be superfluous if films covered more</li> <li>• Super as preparations for dyslexics</li> </ul>
Quizzes during films	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Facilitate critical thinking</li> <li>• Give insight that you have not yet understood</li> <li>• Teacher receives feedback before lectures about what students find difficult</li> </ul>
Encourages students to prepare for lectures	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Makes cheating more difficult. Quizzes are better than handing in a paper [as a proof of your preparations]. With papers, many students only copy a peer</li> <li>• Students feel seen. The teacher can see if I have prepared.</li> <li>• Easier to understand concepts during lectures when you are prepared. Acquiring the concepts goes faster</li> </ul>
Creates a structure	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Deadlines and partial goals are appreciated.</li> <li>• Preparations for lectures get done</li> </ul>
Guidance	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Better than YouTube as it reflects what the teacher finds important</li> </ul>
In-class activities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Clickers make you more active. You desire to perform well.</li> <li>• Students remain awake and focused with clickers</li> </ul>
In-class feedback	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Clickers give feedback to each student</li> <li>• The teacher receives feedback from all students</li> </ul>
In-class interactivity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Gives faster communication and closer relationship between students and teacher</li> <li>• Facilitates asking questions. It is evident to what extent my peers [don't] understand</li> <li>• Interactivity is important, rather than a specific technique. Analogue discussions are also possible</li> </ul>
General aspects	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Better perceived retention</li> <li>• The course is perceived as a role model</li> <li>• Fun</li> <li>• Gives confidence</li> <li>• No perceived drawback</li> </ul>

Table 2. The Drawbacks of Flipped Classroom

Films	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Difficult to find a suitable degree of difficulty. It depends on whether students have read the textbook before the films</li> <li>• There is no index: It's difficult to find a certain passage</li> <li>• Ineffective [too long], too short, too easy or too personal films</li> <li>• Technical problems: Bad sound, didn't work on tablets</li> <li>• Students are distracted at home or on the web while watching the films</li> </ul>
Ineffective in-class activities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Too easy clicker questions, too much like repetition of the films, miss the challenge</li> <li>• Too difficult questions, I merely waited for him to present the correct answer</li> <li>• Too big span between the easiest and most difficult clicker questions</li> <li>• I get a feeling that the teacher is unprepared</li> <li>• Too many clicker questions give a messy impression</li> <li>• The greatest risk with clickers is that the lecture is merely a long sequence of questions, and nothing is ever presented</li> </ul>
Examples	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Students request more contextualization and real world examples</li> <li>• Students request more examples of examination problems including hints and guidance, or step-by-step solutions and confirmation that they have done correct</li> </ul>
General aspects	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Reading the textbook is not considered as an option</li> <li>• Better overview with traditional lecture notes. I need to go through the films before the examination in order to know that I don't miss anything</li> <li>• High pace and high work load</li> <li>• Difficult to take responsibility for one's learning, and judge whether I work enough</li> <li>• Clicker questions with a lot of text are difficult for dyslexics</li> </ul>

Table 3. The Students' Suggestion of Flipped Classroom

Films	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Focus on introduction of basic concepts, not on details</li> <li>• Short and informative</li> <li>• More materials should be covered in films</li> <li>• More challenging</li> <li>• Should whet the appetite and build confidence, establish a positive attitude to the subject</li> <li>• It mustn't be too difficult, you should not lose your self-esteem</li> <li>• Longer films could be divided in parts with add-ons to a basic film</li> <li>• Good when it contains reading instructions, a brief presentation, and some increasingly difficult examples</li> </ul>
Clickers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Should be used sparingly, giving the teacher necessary feedback</li> <li>• Important to find the right difficulty level and number of questions</li> </ul>
General	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Films should focus the lowest pass grade, class activities intermediate to high grades, and additional assignments the highest grade</li> <li>• The lecturer needs to complement the presentations of the textbook</li> <li>• Include an intermediate test with examination problems early in the course for feedback to students</li> </ul>

Bishop and Verleger in 2013 wrote paper provides a comprehensive survey of prior and ongoing research of the flipped classroom. The study characterized on several dimensions comprising the type of in-class and out-of-class activities. Results of this study showed that most research conducted to explore student perceptions and use single-group study designs. Reports of student perceptions of the flipped classroom are somewhat mixed, but are generally positive overall. Students tend to prefer in-person lectures to video lectures, but prefer interactive classroom activities to monotonous lectures. The evidence suggests that student learning improved for the flipped compared to traditional classroom. However, there is very little work investigating students' learning outcomes objectively. They suggested for future research to investigate the objective of learning outcomes using controlled experimental or quasi-experimental designs. The paper also recommended that researchers must have been carefully thinking about the theoretical framework they used to guide the design of in-class activities thus, additional research needed to examine the influence of flipped classroom instruction on objective learning outcomes.

The rationale of this scoping review conducted by O'Flaherty and Phillips in 2015 was to present an inclusive outline of relevant research regarding the emergence of the flipped classroom and the links to pedagogy and educational outcomes, identifying any gaps in the writing, which could bring up to date outlook design and evaluation. The five-stage framework by Arksey and O'Malley underpinned the scoping review. The results designated that there is much indirect evidence emerging of improved academic performance and student and staff satisfaction with the flipped classroom but a paucity of conclusive evidence that it contributes to building lifelong learning and other 21st Century skills in under-graduate education and post-graduate education. It is obvious that even though universities and work places distinguish efficiencies in the flipped classroom at a time of increasing cost-cutting measures, academics also see this as an opportunity for curriculum renewal and developing a more student-centered approach. The flipped model has the potential to enable lecturers to develop critical and autonomous thought for their students, building the competence for lifelong learning and consequently preparing future graduates for their place of work contexts. However, there is a risk that educators renewing their curriculum may not fully understand the pedagogy of how to interpret effectively the flipped class into practice. Based on this scoping review, there appears to be some misunderstanding of the key elements necessary for successful flipping sessions. From the findings there is no single model for the flipped classroom to date but core features of the flipped learning approach include: content in advance (generally the pre-recorded lecture), educator awareness of students understanding, and higher order learning during class time. Outcomes of implementing a successful flipped class approach should consider helpful student learning that facilitates critical thinking, and importantly improves student engagement, both within and outside the class.

A research conducted by Feng Teng in 2017 with 90 students of Hong Kong Baptist University who are learning English as a Foreign Language (EFL) were assigned to three conditions namely a structured flipped classroom by using a WebQuest active learning strategy, a semi-structured flipped classroom, and a traditional classroom. The results showed that the structured flip classroom were the most helpful instructional intervention in improving students' academic performance, followed by the semi-structured flip classroom and the traditional one. Data collected from the questionnaire and interviews pointed out that students were more satisfied with the structured flip classroom than the semi-structured flip classroom. The study concluded that the flipped classroom model could be a functional and promising pedagogical approach in EFL teaching. However, supplementary research needed to contribute to the information base of this approach across disciplines.

Table 4. Overall Differences for Three Formats

	EG 1	EG 2	CG
Flip structure	Structured flipped classroom	Semi-structured flipped classroom	Non-flipped classroom
Flip tool	WebQuests + Online videos	Online videos	None
Material delivery	In- and out-of-class learning materials were organized in the QuestGarden format. All the materials were delivered to the students before each lesson.	Out-of-class learning materials were printed and distributed to the students before class. In-class learning materials were printed and distributed to the students in the class.	In- and out-of-class learning materials were printed and delivered in an appropriate time during in-class activities.
Before and after class	Students watched online videos and read materials through WebQuests	Students watched online videos and read out-of-class learning materials	Students reviewed learning materials and completed assignments.
In class	Students worked on inquiry-based assignments.	Students read in-class materials and worked on assignments	Students listened to teacher's lectures and read materials.

Students in structured flipped classroom had more positive attitudes toward flipped teaching than those in the semi-structured flipped classroom. Additionally, students in the semi-structured flipped classroom uttered a higher level of satisfaction than those in the traditional classroom. Results in support of flipped teaching are important because student satisfaction is one of the primary goals of this model. In this context, students' responses regarding the usefulness, feasibility, and agreeability of the flipped teaching model establish the willingness of students to deploy skills acquired through flipped learning in future scenarios. Data collected from interviews further suggested the future application of flipped learning skills. Students found the structured flipped classroom environment more relaxed and pleasurable than the semi-structured flipped classroom. This demonstrated in a wide variety of categories: the format of learning materials, better active learning, and higher participation levels in and outside of class activities, active cooperation, and conducting self-assessment of learning outcomes. Overall, the flipped approach is convinced students' needs for autonomy, competency, relatedness, and thus, create greater conditions for intrinsic motivation, which lead to empowerment, development, engagement, and an ability to learn independently or at their own pace.

Recent research in 2018 conducted by Sojayapan and Khlaisang to 30 students in Thailand employed three instruments consists of flipped classroom model with online group investigation, a website for flipped classroom, and a learning management plan. The results reported that a flipped classroom with online group investigation possibly would promote team learning ability. Based on the research findings the availability of essential equipment such as computers and the Internet, as well as the skills required for information searching and communication, are principal. The content selection must be appropriate for this learning management model such as lecture-based contents that learners can re-watch videos for comprehension. This model allows learners to be responsible for their own learning pace. Furthermore, a flipped classroom can be applied with other teaching methods such as project-based learning and problem-based learning.

## The Contra

There is only one research from Jensen et al. conducted in 2015 which resulted contra for the application of flipped classroom in Brazilian university students. By implementing a quasi-experimental design, they made comparison between an active non-flipped classrooms and an active flipped classroom. Based on the result of the research, researchers concluded that flipped classroom does not have any effect in students' academic achievement compared with the non-flipped classroom. The conclusion of the research clearly stated that in choosing flipped classroom means the digitization of every session and unit from one subject. It needed extra time for lecturer in making and editing the video or selecting video from miscellaneous resources for students based on the topic given. In addition, in flipped classroom the students must read or learn the material before coming to the classroom, however due the different styles in learning and level of competency it is hard to expect that the students will be at the same pace in learning.

## Conclusion on Pro and Contra of Flipped Classroom Implementation

There are numerous potential advantages to this style of learning. Therefore the pros are:

### 1. Students have more control over their own learning.

In a flipped classroom, students are possible to boost input and control over their own style in learning. By providing short lectures via video or giving the students video from Youtube or other videos from educational sites such as TED Talks at home before coming to the classroom, students are given the autonomy to learn at their own pace. Students may pause or rewind the video which given by lecturer, write down several questions they may have without any hesitation, and discuss all of them with their lecturers and classmates.

These activities also allows students who need more time to comprehend certain concepts to take their own time in reviewing the material without getting left behind, and receive instantaneous support from lecturers and classmates. As a result, it will increase student achievement and improve student positive attitude and behavior towards teaching material inside and outside the classroom.

### 2. It promotes student-centered learning and teamwork

Flipped classrooms allocate efficient class time for mastering skills through teamwork projects and active brainstorming. These activities support students to learn the concepts from each other with the supervision of their lecturer. By allowing students to participate in their own learning activities, they are able to learn by self-discovery, which turns into the ability to communicate and present their ideas and opinions confidently. Therefore, lecturers are capable to recognize errors in thinking or concept application, and are more accessible for one-on-one interaction or in-group communication.

### 3. Subject and Teaching Materials are more accessible for lecturers and students.

Making video lectures available at all times online or providing tutorial and educational videos, students who are miss class due to join competition or illness, can catch up with the material quickly. This also gives lecturers more flexibility when they themselves are sick, or attending conference, or even having meeting outside campus, it will also eliminates make-up class and abundant assignments for students.

However, there has predictably been some criticism to this bold new model of teaching and learning. Beside many benefits of flipped classroom there are also some drawbacks, the contras are:

### **1. It can create or intensify a digital divide**

One of the most important issues is the necessity for students to have access internet via their laptop or smart phone in order to view the lectures. This is particularly hard for students who come from low-income family to purchase extra internet data or students who already have limited access to resources because they are living in remote area without internet access around.

### **2. It relies on preparation and expectation**

There is also the concern that since flipped classrooms is reliant on students' participation; students must be watched the video of lectures at home. Unfortunately, there is no method to undertake students will oblige or collaborate with the flipped model.

### **3. There is significant effort on the front-end**

Additionally, there is a concern that implementing a flipped classroom adds an extra workload for lecturers, as there are several elements in preparing teaching materials integrated carefully to allow the class to flourish. Responsibilities include taping, selecting, and uploading video and material of lectures, which will be take more time and skill, including introducing activity in the classroom that will improve the subject matter as well as motivate students to actively participate and prepare for class. Though lecturers can gradually integrated flipped elements into their classrooms, it will still require additional time and extra endeavor from lecturers.

### **4. Not naturally a Test Preparation Form of Learning**

Whether or not it is a good and proper to be implemented in classroom, but it is important to realize that flipped classrooms do not teach the students to do test. Flipped classrooms do not follow the model of teaching to improve standardized test scores such as TOEFL or TOEIC. However, lecturers and students are still required to spend an extensive portion of occasion in preparing for test, which in turn interrupts the flipped classroom process.

### **5. More time on Screen**

Every time lecturer starts flipping their classrooms, students will waste hours in front of screen of smart phone and laptop to watch the lectures. It argued that this has the possibility to cause serious problems to student's learning processes, as not everyone may be as proficient to learning through a screen of smart phone or laptop.

Overall, the use of flipped classroom stimulated the didactic, direct instruction lecture away from the classroom and into a more student-friendly environment of electronic technology. The core pedagogical concept did not change with the use of the flipped classroom but instead changed passive listening and learning to active participation of students in the classroom (Nolan & Washington, 2013). Employing videos made by the teacher or lecturer was not even necessary due to miscellaneous videos can easily be found over the internet such as from Khan Academy, YouTube, or TED Talk. Students could have possessed a technology device that they use to access the internet, as the technology

increasing very fast the flipped classroom is one way of incorporating new ideas inside the classrooms and outside the classrooms. Educators can form their own technology experience and bond it with the students' achievement in learning.

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## WHAT IF?: LEADING THE DRAMA EXPERIENCE

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**Abstract:** The use of drama in rehearsing and presenting a performance in the English Language is not a novelty. Although deemed beneficial for language learning, drama relies on predetermined actors, scripts, costumes and props. In contrast, process drama is not a performance-based activity. Rather, it is a process that creates an experience which promotes problem solving and self-discovery along the way. In this paper, experiences of using process drama as a pedagogy in a university English Second Language classroom is shared. The significance of inspiring learning experiences by integrating the arts, specifically process drama, in an engineering-based classroom is also discussed.

### Introduction

The importance of English in the Malaysian education system is incontestable. Basically, English is compulsory for all students, right from the kindergarten level, through the primary and secondary school levels, and up to the tertiary level. By the time a student completes his or her degree, he/she would have spent a total of 16 years learning English with two public English language examinations that are crucial for his/her career. The Sijil Pelajaran Malaysia (Malaysia Certificate of Education) English exam is taken in November at the upper secondary level, while the Malaysian University English Test (MUET) is offered in April and October, which has to be taken prior to a student's enrolment into a tertiary institution. The MUET is a language proficiency test for university admissions, and students' scores are aggregated into Bands, where Band 1 refers to an extremely limited user of English, moving upwards to Band 6, which refers to a very good user of English. However, Shagar, Suganya and Murad (2014) in their study reported that many graduates from public universities, though doing well academically, failed to speak proper English.

This finding does not auger well with the objectives of the English language curriculum for Malaysian secondary school students, which aims to enable students to communicate effectively, read and respond to texts independently, produce well-structured written texts, enjoy and respond to literary works and make confident presentations (Kementerian Pelajaran Malaysia, 2010). Towards this endeavor, the literature component has been introduced in the English language curriculum at the secondary level, with the intent of developing students' English proficiency via the literature component. In the secondary school English curriculum, the English literature component is integrated in the English classroom syllabus, with the literature component forming 20% weighting of the total 100% English examination score. The literature component comprises four elements, namely, poems, short stories, drama and novel.

In the drama component, students are required to be involved in plays. This means that students are required to read and comprehend the drama texts, analyze the elements literarily, and be involved in a follow-up session of the drama, with students required to re-act the scenes in the drama they have read. A drama technique opted by many English teachers is the use of scripted role-plays. Role play is generally linked to Communicative Language Teaching as it concentrates on communication acts and meaning-making. Additionally, it is an excellent way of developing interaction skills in students. The scripted role plays mostly used are controlled through set dialogues. Students may be given scripted dramatizations to complete the situations. In contrast, unscripted dramatizations are not usually practiced due to issues such as students' low English language proficiency level or inadequate peer support from other students.

Various studies have investigated different aspects of educational drama in the language arts (see Rosler, 2005; Schneider and Jackson, 2000). However, the use of process drama in the English Second language (ESL) setting (Hui and Lau, 2006; Kao and O'Neill, 1998) is not researched widely. As Kao and Neill (1998) pointed out, "there is little related literature dealing with the practice of process drama in the L2 context" (p. 10). Certainly, no research has been carried out to date on the use of process drama in the Malaysian context. This paper unfolds two objectives. It explains what process drama is and shares with the readers a process drama lesson that was implement on a group of engineering-based students in a tertiary institute of learning in the State of Johor.

## **The Basics of Process Drama**

Process drama is an "improvised role play in which the participants explore ideas and construct stories over time and often in several different episodes" (Ministry of Education, 2006, p. 6). It is a whole-group process that "focuses on developing a dramatic response to situations and materials from a range of perspectives" (Bowell & Heap, 2001, p. 7). The term "process drama" was popularized by Cecily O'Neill and derived from the teaching of Dorothy Heathcote in the 1960s. According to O'Neill (1995), process drama is built up from a series of episodes or scenic units rather than a single unit of its own. Besides, the structure of process drama "allows the gradual articulation of a complex dramatic world which enables it to be extended and elaborated" (p. xvi) compared to improvisation activities.

In process drama, everyone, including the teacher is involved. Both the teacher and students work together to create a "dramatic world". Students get a "kick" as the whole class is engaged in the activity. There is no external audience or a final "performance" in process drama, but rather it involves an internal audience in the group itself. The use of process drama provides a positive situation because certain elements of the drama allow participants to explore the experiences of certain characters. According to Kao and O'Neill (1998), the end product of a process drama is "always the experience itself and the reflection it can generate" (p. 12). Aitken (2007) agrees with this view and further suggests that in a process drama, the "teacher can generate experiential learning environments, share in the children's learning from within, shift the normal status and knowledge patterns within the classroom and allow new assessment and management possibilities to emerge" (p. 87). Process drama techniques thus allow more direct involvement in learning on the part of all students. This involvement increases the students' sense of personal commitment to the learning process. It also increases their

sense of trust and allows for more avenues of learning, resulting in a more natural production of the target language.

A starting point for all process drama is a pre-text. Materials like a letter, an article, a photo or any objects can be used as the pre-text. The pre-text establishes the situation and suggests roles and actions for the participants. Another defining feature of the process drama is that intervention of the teacher-in-role is seen as crucial, because the teacher, like the participants, enters the drama process in a specific role and guides participants' action from the inside. In process drama, the teacher is not the director of a final outcome, but facilitates the internal "audience" of the group itself. According to Kana and Aitken (2007), the aim of process drama is "to build skills of engagement, empathy and problem solving" (p. 700). Students involved in a process drama also takes on imaginary roles. According to O'Neill (1995), process drama "establishes an imagined world, a dramatic elsewhere created by the participants as they discover, articulate and sustain fictional roles and situations" (p.xvi).

## Why Process Drama

Process drama offers many advantages for second language acquisition. The second language learners learn a new language to accomplish communication skills and may discover and master the different styles and register which are different from their everyday speech. Kao and O'Neill (1998) emphasize that with process drama, students can use language in meaningful and authentic situations. They further highlight that "process drama is a powerful version of Communicative Language Teaching" (p. 77) as learners develop communicative competence in different settings and make use of functional language productively. In this case, language is learned through meaningful contexts and active interactions. Participation in process drama activities also increases students' integrative motivation and instills in them a desire to learn the language in order to interact in the target language.

## Methodology

This paper is conceptual in nature, sharing with the readers the types of activities that were implemented in an engineering-based ESL classroom at the tertiary level. Additionally, findings from the intervention were also discussed. In this research, we played the role of practitioner researchers, since we conducted the intervention and collected data at the same time. During the intervention, one of us took the role as the teacher as well as the researcher, working with the participants every week. Kemmis and McTaggart (1988) have noted that one of the characteristics of an action research is that it is carried out by practitioners rather than outside researchers. This research involved understanding the impact of process drama in an ESL setting, where the participants involved were engineering-based undergraduates, taking a basic communication course at a public university where the research was employed.

There were 31 participants, comprising six males and 25 females. Two of the participants were from Indonesia, two from Saudi Arabia, two of Malaysian Indians origin, 10 were Malays and 15 were of Malaysian Chinese origin. The students spent about 60-100 minutes in class for their weekly ESL session. The final stage of the project involved working with students who were willing to be

interviewed. 15 participants were voluntarily interviewed. What we presented under the sub heading ‘benefits of process drama’ simply summarized the participants’ perceived views of the activities.

## Planning a Process Drama lesson

Neelands (1992) suggests that there should be four stages of planning a drama lesson in the classroom. The first stage requires a need to clarify the aims and objectives of the lesson. This can be done by understanding the needs of the group, the theme of the lesson and the skills that need to be developed. A teacher planning a process drama can identify the key question that he/she wants the class to explore. The planning of the drama lesson then moves to the second stage, where the teachers need to select a starting point. This can be done by introducing certain concepts using materials comprising newspaper accounts, maps, music or even expressions of feelings within the group. Stage three involves understanding possible drama situations and techniques which requires working on the scenes in a variety of ways. Some techniques a teacher may use are telling a story from a different point of view, making predictions of an ending, making maps, designing costumes or props, making an outline of a character and many others. Finally, before implementing the drama lesson, a teacher needs to create an action plan out of the ideas that have been brainstormed. This can be done in a map form of possible sequences of ideas.

## Classroom Project Using Drama as Pedagogy

This teaching unit conducted during the intervention offered different approaches that can also be adapted in any drama classroom to meet the needs of ESL students.

Unit Duration	Two sessions
The “Big Question” “What If?”	Who should we approach if we have problems? (Revolving around a popular Malaysia folklore entitled ‘ <i>Bawang Putih, Bawang Merah</i> ’)
Pre-text	A collection of items put in a box
Suggested Activities	Story-telling, Recap, Out-Of-Role Discussion, Brainstorming, Freeze Frame, Thought Tracking, Playing in Role, Paired Conversation, Mapping, Overheard Conversation, Hot Seating
Resources	A box of items – plastic fish, toy swing, garlic, shallot A letter seeking help Mahjong paper & marker pens for mapping activity A scarf for <i>Bawang Putih</i> (name of one character in the drama) A briefcase for the counselor

### Learning Outcomes for drama

- ✓ Use the elements of role, action and focus techniques of facial expression and gesture techniques to explore the different roles within the drama.
- ✓ Investigate drama in past and present contexts and describe how communities express themselves through drama.
- ✓ Work constructively and creatively alone and with other members of the class.
- ✓ Develop imagination skills.

### Learning Outcomes for language competence

- ✓ Speak effectively to meet common objectives.
- ✓ Carry out a variety of language functions.
- ✓ Ask and respond to questions orally.
- ✓ Manage discussions and questions and answer sessions.

### Teaching and Learning

Sequence Initiation Phase		
Step 1	Pre-Text	Pass around a box containing these items: A toy plastic fish, a toy swing, garlic, and shallot. Ask students if they can relate the items to a folktale that they are familiar with. Get responses from students.
Step 2	Dramatic narration Story Recap	Activate students' prior knowledge of the folktale by asking each of them to give a line about the story.
Experiential Phase		
Step 3	A letter seeking help	Get someone to deliver a letter to the teacher. The letter can be shared so that the whole class is able to read it. Ask a student to read the letter aloud or you can read the letter to the class. Let others decide who the letter is from.
Step 4	Discussion	Discuss the content of the letter to make sure everyone understands the message in the letter. Ask students to imagine that they are all counsellors working in different schools or organizations.
Step 5	Playing in Role	Explain to the students that you will now be changing your from a teacher to become a Chief Counsellor. Leave the classroom, and walk back into the classroom with your briefcase. Greet all the counsellors. Ask the counsellors questions about their counselling experience and lead the discussion to help <i>Bawang Putih</i> . Discuss <i>Bawang Putih's</i> problem and get the counsellors' agreement to help <i>Bawang Putih</i> . Focus the counsellors' attention to find out reasons why <i>Bawang Putih</i> wrote the letter.

Step 6	Mapping	As a class, talk about where <i>Bawang Putih's</i> house is. Ask students to describe <i>Bawang Putih's</i> house and discuss how they can get to <i>Bawang Putih's</i> village to meet her. In groups, ask students to draw the layout of <i>Bawang Putih's</i> home. The students can brainstorm any additional features they wish to include. Each group is then required to put up their drawings, explaining how to get to the whole class how they intend to get to <i>Bawang Putih's</i> house.
Step 7	Freeze Frame	Ask the pupils to make a freeze frame image for a title "The locked door", imagining themselves as counsellors trying to save <i>Bawang Putih</i> from the locked house. Each group then presents the image to the class.
Step 8	Thought Tracking	Ask students to share the thoughts of the characters in the freeze frame scenes with the others. Tap each student on the shoulder as a signal for them to say something.
Step 9	Overheard Conversation	Tell students that they have finally arrived at <i>Bawang Putih's</i> house. They are greeted by <i>Bawang Putih's</i> stepmother. Ask pupils to dramatize a scene where the counselor wishes to meet <i>Bawang Putih</i> , while <i>Bawang Putih's</i> stepmother refuses to let the counselor meet her. Ask students to stand in two rows. The row on the teacher's left represents <i>Bawang Putih's</i> stepmother and the row on the right represents the counselor. Let the two rows converse in their respective roles as <i>Bawang Putih's</i> stepmother and counselor.
Step 10	Hot Seating	Tell students that they are going to hot seat <i>Bawang Putih</i> and as counsellors; they need to ask her questions pertaining to her problem and her relationship with the people around her. Leave the room, put on a scarf and play the role of <i>Bawang Putih</i> . Walk into the class and sit at the centre of the room. Get the counsellors to ask <i>Bawang Putih</i> questions.
<b>Reflective Phase</b>		
Step 11	Role-on-the-Wall	Leave the room, remove the scarf you had used and re-enter the class out of role. Have a discussion with the class about <i>Bawang Putih</i> from the hot-seating scene. Put up an enlarged simple figure of <i>Bawang Putih</i> on the wall (See Appendix C). Ask students to write the information they have discussed on the Role-on-the-Wall figure.
Step 12	Reflecting	Ask students to reflect what they have learned. Lead the discussion reflecting on what had happened. Question the students what they did and said in their roles as counselors. Ask students to share the different ways of advising someone in the context of 'past time' and 'present time'.

## Drama as a Means of Engendering the Inclusive Classroom

For the purpose of process drama, the participants were given roles as counselors who received a letter from the agonized *Bawang Putih*. The letter, which served as a ‘pre-text’, depicted *Bawang Putih*’s loneliness and agony. As counselors, the students discussed the reasons why the letter was written and listed other people whom *Bawang Putih* may approach to seek help. The stepmother’s character is described as nasty and resentful, so the group had to decide how to get to *Bawang Putih*’s village to meet her. Besides drawing the layout of *Bawang Putih*’s house, taking into consideration the swing on the tree and the pond, the class had to discuss their expectations when meeting *Bawang Putih*’s stepmother. The discussion of the drama also centered on the physical and personal challenges the counselors might face on their way to meet *Bawang Putih*. A ‘freeze frame’ was called for to depict the challenges and through ‘thought-tracking’, students shared their thoughts of the characters in the freeze frames.

Later in the drama, the participants dramatized a scene when the counselor was prohibited from meeting *Bawang Putih* by her stepmother. Towards the end, the class ‘hot seated’ *Bawang Putih* and they asked her questions pertaining to her problems, her relationship with her stepmother and half-sister, and her feelings for the prince. The teacher took the role of *Bawang Putih* in the hot seat. The class gathered information about *Bawang Putih* from the hot-seating scene and shared the information about *Bawang Putih* on the ‘role-on-the-wall’ figure. The class reflected on what they had learned and shared different ways of giving advice to different groups of people.

The lesson described above was one of the intervention sessions that was developed for a research that was carried out at a Malaysian university. The students were quite uneasy at first with this method of teaching, but they gradually learned to relax which helped them to overcome their shyness and improved their fluency in speaking the second language.

## Practical Drama Strategies

The following is a list of several process drama strategies that can be used in the second language drama classroom.

### Teacher in Role

Teacher takes on the roles of characters in a drama. (For example, the teacher takes on the role of the night watchman who is going to come through the village to make sure that everything is secure. When the night watchman rattles on the door handle, he will hear the participants talking to each other about the monster.)

### Still Image (Tableau)

The group constructs a picture describing what they want to say. (For example, the teacher asks students to create a tableau on *Pak Metih* and the people around him like his neighbours. One person comes to the centre of the group’s circle and focus on an image. Then, two or more people join this

tableau. Everyone will come to the circle with an image. The first person to come to the middle will be *Pak Metih*. The others will be the characters around *Pak Metih's* life.)

### **Freeze-Frame**

The group creates a series of still images that describe important moments in a drama. (For example, students create a freeze frame of the villagers behind their locked doors. They make a frozen photograph of the villagers behind their locked doors where nothing moves.)

### **Mantle of the Experts**

Students are asked to take on the roles of people with specialized knowledge. (For example, students act as counselors and share their counseling experience. The teacher identifies herself as the Chief Counselor and leads the discussion to help *Bawang Putih*.)

### **Thought-tracking**

Individuals are asked to speak aloud their private thoughts (For example, students form a tableau. The teacher goes around and taps on the shoulder of an individual. He/she articulates what he/she is thinking about at that moment.)

### **Hot-seating**

Students question the teacher in role or student in role to find out more information about the character. (For example, a student plays the role of a monster. He/she sits in the centre and other students questions him/her about his character.)

### **Meeting**

The students come together in a meeting (in role) to present information, plan action or solve problems. (For example, the teacher tells participants that as villagers from the community where *Pak Metih* lived, they will hold a meeting on how to improve their lives. Each group needs to present their suggestion to the others.)

### **Conscience Alley**

Students line up in two rows facing each other. One side gives a one-sided opinion, the other side gives another opinion. A student walks down the "alley," and each side tries to convince the person to support their opinions. (For example, the teacher gets participants to form two rows. One person will play *Pak Metih's* character and walk down the alley. He will listen to the voices he hears from both rows. One person needs to speak one at a time. They need to speak to *Pak Metih* and voice their opinions on whether he should take the job offer or focus on his family.)

## Role-on-the-wall

Students outline the figure of a person on a long sheet of paper. They then write on the paper feelings or thoughts they have about the person. The figure is put up on the wall. (For example, the teacher distributes a sheet of paper with an outline of *Pak Metih's* cut-out figure. Students discuss and write about *Pak Metih's* life, his role, his responsibilities and the various options that *Pak Metih* can take to change his family's life.

## Soundscapes

Students use voices to suggest the sounds of a certain setting within a story or movie according to the voices they hear. (For example, the teacher asks the participants to imagine hanging the 'Guernica and Long Live Peace' painting up on the wall. In slow motion, pupils need to focus on their actions and move according to the sound collage made by the other groups.)

## The Benefits of Process Drama

Process drama can be an excellent platform for second language learners to improve their competence when they use the language in a more functional way. Dodson (2000) believes that "...various language skills shouldn't be taught separately, for it is rare that we as language users only employ grammar or only employ speaking or only employ writing. Drama is an ideal way to bring together the skills of grammar, writing, speaking, listening, and pronunciation" (p.139).

The drama process intervention appeared to have enhanced the communicative ability of the participants, particularly in giving opinions more fluently and confidently. However, the difficulty students faced was coming up with the right words because of a lack of vocabulary. Other difficulties they experienced included grammatical insecurities and first language interference. These difficulties could be due to several reasons. One reason could be due to the lack of students' experiences in using the English language. Another probable reason could be related to their self esteem and the embarrassment students feel about their lack of proficiency or the negative responses they received for being incompetent in the English language. These kinds of negative experiences would hinder effective learning from taking place.

The study also found that in general the language performance of the participants from the undergraduate class was satisfactory in terms of their writing, speaking, listening and reading performances. Following the drama process intervention, the undergraduates showed improvements in many areas such as grammar, speaking and writing. Belliveau and Kim (2013) have suggested that drama in the language classroom is "ultimately indispensable" to second language learners because it "encourages adaptability, fluency and communicative competence" (p. 6).

Some speakers can be fluent in a target language but unsure whether they have used that language accurately. In the study, the participants were confident that they had become more fluent in speaking activities. However, they were not sure whether they have used accurate grammar. This is unsurprising as process drama tend to support spontaneity in speaking, since it is an approach which aims to enhance one's automaticity in using language.

Based on our experience in using process drama as a pedagogy, we contend that process drama should be implemented in ESL classrooms in other learning institutions. Process drama, unlike the usual drama activities carried out to complement a teaching unit, is more structured and continuous in nature. Our argument is that teachers need to be exposed to using process drama as a pedagogy, which will then put them in a position where they can consider using it in their lesson planning. In meeting the objectives of the ESL syllabus in Malaysia which aims to equip students with the ability to communicate effectively, read and respond to texts independently, produce well-structured written texts, enjoy and respond to literary works and make confident presentations (Kementerian Pelajaran Malaysia, 2010), it is timely that the Ministry of Education work with ESL teachers by giving them in-service professional development on how drama or more specifically, process drama, can be used in the ESL classrooms.

## Conclusion

Process drama offers much potential for English teachers to expand their classrooms to make it a livelier class and more learner-centred. Teachers need to be open minded when using process drama activities and they need to be willing to try an approach that could bring out the best in their students. Teachers should not be too tied up with demands of the formal ESL classroom. Rather, teachers should incorporate process drama activities into the topics covered in the ESL classrooms. Although teachers might initially feel burdened in preparing for the process drama lessons, the enthusiasm and motivation displayed by students in the process drama activities would certainly make the teachers' efforts worthwhile. With a little work and creativity, process drama in the English classroom could go a long way in motivating our students to speak the language.

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# STREAMLINING CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT – 8 PRACTICAL USES OF TECHNOLOGY

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**Abstract:** We live in an ever-increasingly inundated digital world. As teachers it can be overwhelming at times to know which technology we should use and how we should utilize it in our classrooms. This paper will share eight uses of technology for classroom teaching/management. They consist of technology most teachers will know or have access to – Excel, PowerPoint, smartphone cameras, and the online site Socrative. Uses range from aiding in streamlining key classroom routines, assisting in getting to know students, relaxing students by creating a warm, friendly environment, creating customized and interesting lessons, using fun and engaging review activities for the whole class, and simplified ways of conveying important messages to students such as what they should do upon entering your class or what they should do for homework. All are fairly simple to implement, time-saving, and can aid teachers in increasing student motivation and engagement.

## **Introduction – Importance of Emotions in the Classroom**

Over the past few decades (thanks to improvements in brain-imaging technology) research in the fields of neuroscience, as well as education psychology have made various new insights into how our brains function and how we best learn (Willis, 2010). Coinciding with this, internet technologies have changed our relationship (teachers and students alike) with information, in ways which can either significantly help or hinder student learning.

Such research has revealed that emotion plays a surprisingly crucial (and often overlooked) role in student motivation, learning, and retention. As early as the 1980s, linguist and educational researcher Steven Krashen understood this with his term ‘affective filter’ to explain the higher success rate of learners with low stress compared with the slower language acquisition for learners with high stress. He explained that anxiety and low self-image created a mental block that filtered out new learning (Krashen, 1982). Students can get into a stressed state when a lesson is tedious, not relevant, confusing, or anxiety-provoking, but if students feel at ease and were comfortable in their learning environment their attention and memory thrive.

Since then research has discovered the physical structure in the brain that correlates to Krashen's affective filter—the amygdala (Pawlak, Magarinos, Melchor, McEwen, & Strickland, 2003). Neuroimaging studies show that for students who are in a stressed state, information they are learning does not get through their amygdala to the higher thinking and memory centers of the brain, and thus does not get processed, associated with previous knowledge and experience, or stored for later recall effectively (Willis, 2006). Students are much more likely to remember curriculum content in which they have made an emotional investment (Sousa, 2011). Essentially, too little arousal, and students become unmotivated; too much, and they become unable to sit still and pay attention.

Before students can turn their attention to cognitive learning (the curriculum), they need to feel physically safe and emotionally secure in their school environment (Sousa, 2011). Studies show students who are happy achieve higher academic performance (Quinn & Duckworth, 2007) and their motivation to study lasts longer. If a teacher is caring, encouraging, and offers enthusiasm balanced with an optimal learning environment, this leads to greater brain plasticity, more neuronal networking and meaningful learning (Cozolino, 2002). All of this shows that emotions affect how and what students learn, and it is vital for instructors to understand and utilize this knowledge to maximize their learning.

### **Marzano & Pickering's Model of Student Motivation and Engagement**

Yet even if teachers understand the value of emotions, some of the biggest challenges that can affect student learning are largely outside of our control – factors such as student health, amount of sleep, time allocated to studying and homework, social life, club and part-time job responsibilities, home situation, etc. Fortunately, research has shown (Marzano & Pickering, 2013) there are two key factors within the purview of the teacher that are at the core of effective schooling – student attention and student engagement. In their model on learning, Marzano and Pickering identify several factors (teacher perspective) paired with emblematic questions (student perspective) as crucial determinants. Positive responses to these factors/questions correlate to increased student attention and engagement in the classroom. They are 1) emotions ('How do I feel?'), 2) interest ('Am I interested?'), 3) perceived importance ('Is this important?') and 4) perceptions of efficacy, or ability ('Can I do this?'). Positive responses to the first two affect student attention, while positive responses to the latter two affect student engagement. Thus for maximum learning to occur, teachers should strive for positive student responses to all four as often as possible.

#### **Factor #1 – Emotions ('How Do I Feel?')**

As discussed above, in every situation the emotions students feel influence their behavior. Likewise, emotions also affect our students' level of motivation in the classroom, and beyond. "...learning, attention, memory, decision making, and social functioning... are profoundly affected by .... emotion" (Immordino-Yang & Damasio, 2007, p. 3). When students are in a state of positive emotion, they are more likely to be motivated and engaged on the task at hand, but if student emotions are negative, they are less likely to pay attention and engage in activities, especially those that are challenging or require an element of risk-taking. For optimal learning to occur, teachers should strive

to provide students with a physically safe and secure environment, as well as have their mental well-being fostered (Skinner, Kindermann, Connell, & Wellborn, 2009).

### **Factor #2 – Interest ('Am I Interested?')**

Even if students are engaged emotionally and respond positively to “How do I feel?” they may still fail to pay attention to an activity if they don't perceive it as interesting. Thus the second key factor that influences attention is student's interest, in the lesson and in us, their teacher. Some strategies that can increase the chance that students will have a positive response to “Am I Interested?” are to begin lessons with an interesting ‘hook,’ to ensure variety, and to use novelty and unusual information throughout the lesson.

### **Factor #3: Perceived Importance ('Is This Important?')**

Student attention applies to specific events (activities) that occurs throughout class (situational interest). Student engagement, however, goes beyond a single activity and even beyond a single class period (individual interest). What makes something important to a student is if and how (much) it pertains to their goals. We bring our goals to every situation we encounter. Thus engagement of a particular activity is dependent on whether we perceive that activity as relevant to one or more goals in our self-system. Connecting classroom learning to student goals can help maximize engagement. Some strategies to help get a positive response to ‘Is This Important?’ is to connect lessons to students' academic, future professional, and/or personal lives, and to provide choice and flexibility whenever possible.

### **Factor #4: Perceptions of Efficacy ('Can I Do This?')**

The final factor for increasing student engagement relates to the student's own view of their efficacy, or ability. They may be highly motivated and feel the content they are learning is important, but unless they also feel they are capable of completing the task, they will not be fully engaged. Some strategies to increase the chance that students will have a positive response to ‘Can I Do This?’ are to teach students metacognitive skills (how to think, reflect, use effective study strategies, etc.), self-theories (growth and fixed mindsets), and to correctly/effectively use feedback and praise.

Being aware of and utilizing these four factors (emotion, interest, importance, self-efficacy) can significantly aid in making our classrooms places of learning, high energy, positive feelings, and even fun.

## **Technology in the Classroom**

In addition to the research findings neuroscience and educational psychology are uncovering regarding students and learning, technology is another key dimension that is greatly altering the face of teaching. These days technology has become a natural and all-encompassing part of our students' lives. Technology is here to stay, and will only continue to become more pervasive in education. Teachers who ignore or neglect this fact will fall behind the times and struggle to motivate and engage their students.

“Technology is bringing new tools and new competition to higher education, but it is also changing the basic rules about how we operate as human beings. Technology is only a tool, not an educational strategy. While our use of technology will surely increase, our goal remains more learning. For this, colleges and universities will need to design much better environments that include vastly more thorough understandings of both how technology works and how learning works” (Bowen & Watson, 2017).

While using more technology increases our credibility with students, by itself it does not increase learning unless used effectively. Below are eight practical research-based uses of technology for the classroom, matched with four factors of motivation and engagement they utilize from Marzano and Pickering’s model.

## **8 Practical Uses of Technology for the (EFL) Classroom**

### **#1) PowerPoint: ‘My Self-Introduction’ (E, I)**

The 1<sup>st</sup> class of the semester, before even beginning to discuss details about the course, syllabus, textbook or grading, I always start off class with a short, self-introduction PowerPoint about myself. This could include basic information and pictures about where you the teacher are from (country, city), how long you have lived in the host country, reasons for doing so and being a teacher, as well as personal information about your family, hobbies, research interests, etc.

This is a helpful activity because first, students are naturally curious about their new teacher. Second, most students feel anxious or nervous at the beginning of a new semester, and sometimes the position/status of a teacher might make us appear intimidating, un-relatable, and/or unapproachable. By sharing personal information and pictures with our new class, it can help to lessen the gap between us being the ‘teacher’ to us just being a human being they can more easily relate to.

Not only do students get to know a bit about their teacher, but it can also aid in letting them find some connection (similarity) point to us for future conversations. (ex. students have often asked me advice about foreign countries I’ve visited that they themselves will be visiting soon, etc.) By inserting some interesting pictures and humor into the PowerPoint can serve as a nice initial icebreaker and makes the teacher seem more friendly/approachable overall, which can help lead to a warmer classroom environment.

### **#2) Smartphone: Student Pictures (Emotion, Interest)**

Learning our students’ names quickly shows them we value them as people. “Learning names is one of the most important ways you demonstrate you care” (Bowen & Watson, 2017). This can greatly aid in creating a warmer and friendlier classroom. Most university roster lists have only student names, yet brain research shows we’re better at remembering via visuals (pictures) than words alone (Sousa, 2011). Therefore during the 1<sup>st</sup> class (after having completed your own teacher Self-Introduction) tell students it is now your turn to learn about them, starting with their name.

In pairs have them come up and write their first names on a (mini) whiteboard, blackboard or poster paper, have them stand underneath it, (pose!), then take their picture with your Smartphone. Tell them this will be your homework, to learn their names by the next class.

Doing this on your smartphone is convenient because we always carry it with us, and can memorize our students' names during moments of free time, as well as always do a quick (stealthy) check during class if we happen to forget someone. This activity is effective because it is novel, works as an ice-breaker, and often evokes emotions of surprise, silliness, and respect (that you're making the effort). It also has an added bonus of letting your students get to see who their classmates are. I've also started uploading all the pictures onto our (private) class page on the university database, so students themselves can browse through the pictures to more quickly learn their classmates' names.

### **#3) Excel: Random Seating Chart + 'Let's Get Started' Activities (Emotion, Interest)**

Ideally EFL class sizes should be around 12 students to allow for maximum student-focused learning, but unfortunately this often isn't the case, with class sizes at times reaching into the high 20s or even low 30s. Especially in such large classes, giving all students opportunities to talk with and befriend their classmates is a crucial step to developing a warm and effective learning environment. Changing student seats each class helps achieve this. An easy way to facilitate this is by creating a randomized seating chart in Excel and displaying it on the screen each time as students enter your class.

In Excel, create a column with student names, a column with the seating number, and a random number column to left of student names (which you'll change each class). Make different tabs for your different classes, and create a copy of your classroom desk/chair layout, including seating numbers (see Figure 1). Before each class create a new random number setting using the function '=RAND(),' highlight the 'Random' and 'Student Name' columns, then re-sort how you like (ex. ascending, descending).

Since this will be on display when students enter the classroom, another useful addition is to include a 'Let's Get Started' activities list – this is what students should take out, turn in, review or prepare for before class starts. This way, once the bell for class rings, you can seamlessly begin your lesson without losing time, since your students will already be prepared and ready to go.

The first time or two doing this the seating chart might be a bit confusing for students, but they'll quickly get into the routine of entering your class, checking the screen, then taking their new seats and getting ready. This activity is novel, and also gives students the opportunity to work together and know all their classmates during the semester. In addition, they will get practice working with students of various ability levels, which helps with social-skill building, self-reflection and motivation.

*Figure 1: Example of seating chart & beginning of class routine*

A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N
1	Random	Name	Seat #	IS302 (FRIDAY)								Name	Seat #
2	0.202954	Yuma Kubomura	1	DOOR	SCREEN				WINDOW			Chino Koga	15
3	0.195607	Chihiro Fukushima	2									Riho Morita	16
4	0.923038	Haruna Murakami	3	X	X	X		X	X	X		Riho Sakai	17
5	0.096208	Mio Yamamoto	4	15	X	16		1	X	2		Sanae Maeda	18
6	0.898728	Masataka Ofuji	5	17	X	18		3	X	4		Takeru Ono	19
7	0.721914	Yuzuka Shimura	6	19	X	20		5	X	6		Daisuke Ishii	20
8	0.235939	Yuki Yamamoto	7	21	X	22		7	X	8		Ran Izutani	21
9	0.171908	Takato Shingu	8	23	X	24		9	X	10		Sayaka Tamura	22
0	0.441675	Takemune Kaji	9	25	X	26		11	X	12		Yuki Osawa	23
1	0.467121	Reina Hara	10	X	27	X		13	X	14		Shoko Uraji	24
2	0.570049	Erika Yamada	11	X	X	X		X	X	X		Akari Sueyoshi	25
3	0.649795	Mai Tsuruga	12	X	X	X		X	X	X		Ken Shirakata	26
4	0.935761	Haruka Nakatani	13									Jumpei Onishi	27
5	0.776773	Kazushi Akata	14										
19				`Let`s Get Started~!!` Activity									
10													
11				1.) Take out Textbook and Class Folder									
12				2.) Review for Chapter 3.1 Quiz									
13													

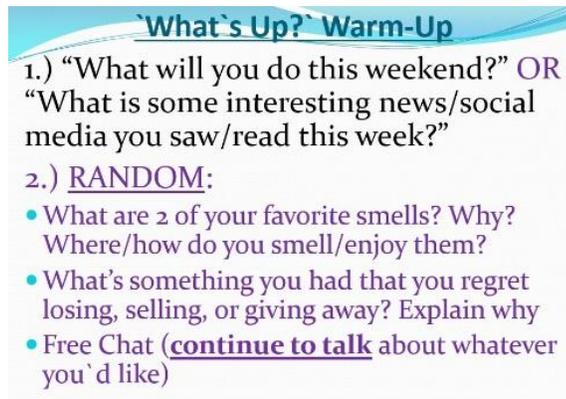
**#4) PowerPoint: ‘What’s Up?’ Warm-Up + Prior Class Reflection/Review (Emotion, Interest)**

Now that students have new seats, as well as new partners for the day, next you should allow for a fun icebreaker to help them get to know each other a bit. Students must feel safe and comfortable before real learning can occur (Sousa, 2011). Once they do their affective filters will drop and they’ll be able to relax and work together more effectively. A warm-up also allows for English speaking/listening practice, since often students will be coming from a non-English language class, or our class may be their first (English) class of the day. Thus it is good to give their brains a little time transitioning from their L1 before diving into a lesson.

PowerPoint is a simple and useful technology for this warm up activity. Before each class create or find 2-3 interesting/unique questions for students to discuss with their new partner. After a few basic self-introduction questions (until classmates know each other), introduce your first question (I keep this one always the same, about weekend plans and an interesting (news) story they saw/heard/read recently), followed by 2-3 new random questions. The teacher should briefly read and explain the questions and share your own personal examples when possible. I also sometimes insert relevant pictures into the PowerPoint to help illustrate my example and make them more interesting and easy to follow. Then have all students stand up (stretch!), say hello, good morning/afternoon and begin. Doing this standing is great because it allows their blood to circulate, energizing them and also making them more engaged in their discussion. Allow around 5-8 minutes for discussion, have students thank their partner and take their seats.

If possible the teacher should join a few student pairs each time, to get to know about their students’ lives and show you are interested in them. Learning about your students on a personal level – their interests, hobbies, successes, challenges and stress – will show them that you value them as a person and are sincerely interested in their education, which also will help lower their stress and affective filter.

**Figure 2: ‘What’s Up?’ beginning of class warm-up questions**



Immediately following this, an effective activity is a brief, 1-2 minute reflection/review of what was covered during the prior class, and any questions they may have before getting started with the new lesson. Students tend to have multiple classes, so we can’t expect them to remember everything we covered last time. This review time allows them to bond further with their partner and also remind themselves of the class content. This allows for a seamless transition into the new lesson, with energized students in their new pairs.

#### **#5) PowerPoint: Vocabulary Review Games (Cloud Cover, Bingo) (Emotion, Interest, Perceived Importance, Ability)**

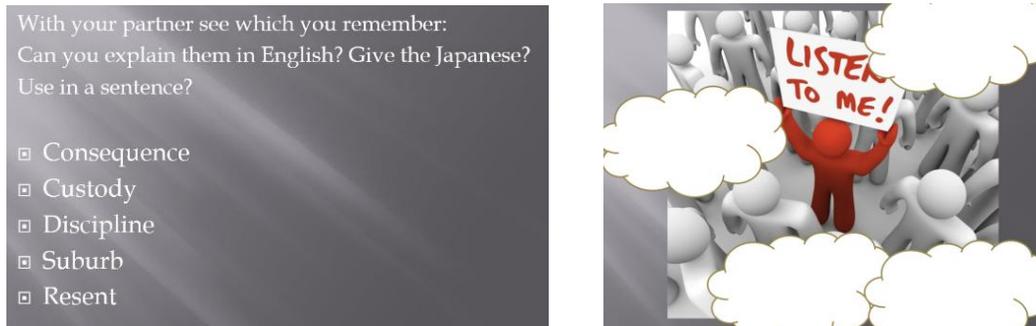
Learning and being able to correctly use new vocabulary is one of the key needs when studying a new language. Research shows that low-stakes competition increases student motivation, engagement and learning (Sousa, 2011). An effective and enjoyable way to do this is through gamification – using fun/practical vocabulary review activities that pit students (alone, in pairs, or in groups) against others in friendly competition. PowerPoint is a great too for this, and two fun, relatively easy games that can be implemented in the classroom are Cloud Cover and Bingo.

#### **Cloud Cover:**

For Cloud Cover, choose 5-6 key words that students found difficult or were new/important for a given listening, reading, or unit. Before class search the Internet for interesting/amusing pictures that correspond to the word in some way, and add it to a PowerPoint slide. Cover the picture with shapes (clouds), and using animation have them disappear one by one. Student will be in pairs/groups, and gradually uncover the picture, having student pairs/groups try to successfully identify the vocabulary word that matches the picture, and write a correct sentence describing the picture. Allow for the first three teams who raise their hands, hear their responses, and then go over your sample answer. You can award points for correct responses, and even provide a small prize/snack to the winning team if you’d like.



**Figure 3.1: ‘Cloud Cover’ Vocabulary List and Sample Slide**

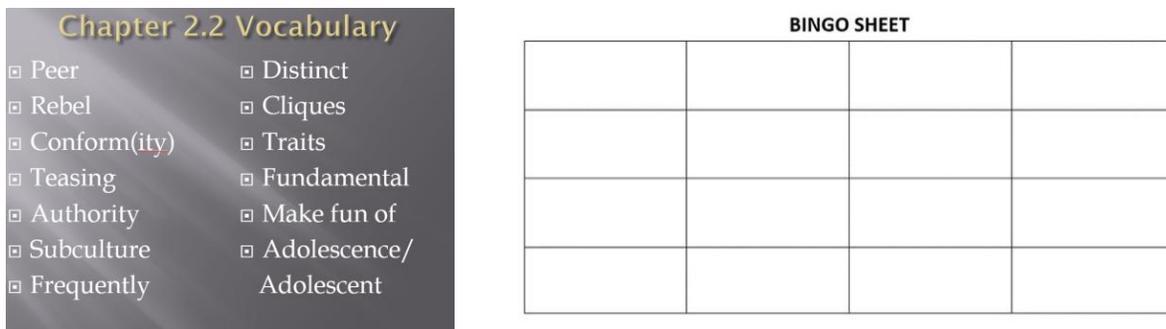


**Bingo:**

For Bingo, as an end of chapter/unit review, choose 16 key words and put them on PowerPoint slide. Distribute a Bingo grid and students randomly write the 16 terms in the blank boxes. One by one, say either the definition or an example of the words at random. Students need to cross out the correct word. 2-3 complete rows leads to BINGO (winner). For more challenge you can show pictures of the words instead and see if students can write the word from memory.

Both of these (and various other games) invoke students’ interest, emotion (pictures should be emotion-evoking), let students know which terms are important, and quizzes their own knowledge and ability via game-like conditions. This can allow for a nice respite from a lesson and increased student motivation/engagement.

**Figure 3.2: Bingo Vocabulary List and Sample Bingo Sheet**



**#6) Website: Socrative (Interest, Perceived Importance, Ability)**

Another challenge of teaching, especially in large classes, is achieving whole class participation. Recent technology such as ‘Clickers’ and certain websites or aps provide great ways to do this, and can “provide instant feedback, increased engagement/satisfaction of class, and foster more honest feedback” (Bowen & Watson, 2017).

One I like to use is Socrative. It allows for use of free (basic functions), and there is no registration necessary for anyone but the teacher. The teacher creates a 'classroom' (free, simple), and before class or during a class activity can easily create True/False, Multiple Choice, Open-Ended questions, or Quizzes. The teacher then provides students with the link and name of created classroom to students and either using a computer or their smartphone, students can enter your 'classroom' and see the question(s) you've set for them.

After answering, student names and their responses, or only their responses (anonymous setting) will appear on the teacher's computer/main screen for all to see. This can be used to involve all students, gauge student understanding on the spot, class brainstorming or sharing ideas, etc. Afterwards the website can email student results to you in an Excel file. This is also excellent for obtaining data for research purposes, or for altering and revising lesson plans. Students enjoy this because it's novel, interesting to see how their responses compare to their classmates, and can be used for effective learning, lesson review, testing, or even gamification (they have a space race game).

**Figure 4: Socrative Website Options**



#### **#7) PowerPoint: Student Birthdays; Homework + Announcement Slide (Emotion, Interest)**

Another easy but rather effective way to create a warm and friendly classroom is by showing you care about your students by remembering and celebrating their birthdays. On the first day of class pass around a key information sheet, asking students to write down their name, email, birthday, etc. After class enter this data into a class roster on Excel, and use it to keep track of upcoming birthdays. In PowerPoint, create Birthday slides (there are various templates already for this). Before each class check if any students' birthdays fall during the week. If so, simply add (copy/paste from Excel) their name and birthday to the PowerPoint. At the end of class (before showing the homework PPT slide), smile, announce that we have a student birthday, then show the birthday slide with their name and begin a round of applause for the student. I like to offer them choice between chocolates/sweets after they share with the class their birthday plans.

I've found this to be an incredibly effective, emotion-evoking gesture. The first time a semester I do this I often get a surprised collective gasp from the class that I cared enough to remember, share and reward them on their birthday.

**Figure 5: Sample Birthday PowerPoint Slides**



After this, to conclude class, show a slide with the homework assignments and the day/date they are due by. This slide can also be used for any important announcements, details, or messages. Allow students to take a picture of the slide (saves time copying). In my classes I require absent students to email me, and I will tell them what they missed and email them the day's homework slide and any missed handouts, so they will be fully prepared for next time.

**Figure 6: Sample PowerPoint Homework/Announcements Slide**

**HOMEWORK — AE5, Week 6**

FOR Wednesday (5/18): (Computer Class)

- 1.) Finish 'Newsletter Assignment - Article For Partner' (#11)
- 2.) Search for 1 final article/video about YOUR topic, and do 'Newsletter Assignment (HW) (#12) (should be done before you start essay)

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FOR Friday (5/20): (Textbook Class)

- 1.) Do Self Reflection handout (#14) for Chapter 1 - Marriage, Family and the Home
- 2.) **Chapter 2:**
  - Do Reading 1 - The Influence of Culture
  - Complete the Critical Thinking Sheet (#15)
- 3.) Review Chapter 1, Reading 3 for mini-quiz

### **#8) PowerPoint: (Midpoint) Class/Teacher Student Feedback Share (Emotion, Interest, Perceived Importance)**

Customizing class lessons and teaching style to student preferences when possible shows students you care about their learning. It can also lead to increased motivation and engagement, since

students see they can actually influence and help shape the activities of the class and their own learning. A simple but effective way of doing this is by asking students to share their thoughts and advice about the class and teaching style.

Usually around the halfway point of semester, distribute to students a blank, (colored for novelty) piece of paper. Explain that as they have now had the chance to get acclimated to your activities/routines/teaching style, you'd like to give them a chance to let you know their feedback, positive, as well as constructive. Using PowerPoint, show students the slides you made of what information they should share and how to write it on the paper, then give students time to anonymously (they shouldn't write their name on it) fill it out.

What really makes this effective is after class, read through and tabulate common responses or unique responses, then put them into new PowerPoint slides. At the beginning of next class share and go over the results together with your students. For constructive feedback they gave that you found particularly beneficial or useful, also show the changes you plan to make to accommodate them (when feasible) and to make the class more effective for them.

Many universities require a standardized student feedback questionnaire at the end of each semester. This activity differs from this and is more effective because you do it in the middle of the term, so you still have opportunities to make changes which can further improve the latter half of the semester, and you initiate it yourself (you're not doing it because you have to). It is rare for teachers to actively ask and act upon student feedback, especially constructive (negative) points. Not only asking for it, but showing it to students along with active steps you will be taking to address it show students you truly care about their opinions and feelings, and that you are doing what you can to accommodate them and their learning experience to the best of your ability.

**Figure 7: Sample Course Reflection Slides**

**Course Reflection – Pros + Changes**

<b>+ Teacher/Style</b>	<b>BACK</b>	<b>Δ Teacher/Style</b>
Write here all the positive things about your teacher:	Write here any advice you have to me to help me teach you more effectively!	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>✓ Teaching style</li> <li>✓ Behavior/Personality</li> <li>✓ Attitude</li> <li>✓ Communication</li> <li>✓ Other</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>❖ Teaching style</li> <li>❖ Behavior/Personality</li> <li>❖ Attitude</li> <li>❖ Communication</li> <li>❖ Other</li> </ul>	

**Course Reflection – Pros + Changes**

<b>+ Class</b>	<b>FRONT</b>	<b>Δ Class</b>
Write here all the positive things/things you like about this class! (lesson, textbook-related, etc.)	Write here any advice you have to help me make this class better for you!	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>❖ Things you'd like to do/add to the class</li> <li>❖ Things you want to do less/stop doing</li> <li>❖ Things you dislike</li> <li>❖ Confusing/stressful/etc.</li> <li>❖ Other</li> </ul>	

**Class +**

- ✓ Seats always change (chance to meet/talk with different classmates each class)
- ✓ Many discussion chances
- ✓ Interesting topics in class (connects to our lives)
- ✓ Appropriate level and good assignments
- ✓ "What's Up?" Warm-Up
- ✓ BGM

**Class \ Comments (smaller issues)**

- ❖ **More vocabulary learning**
- Will try to think of and add new activities to class
- ❖ **Need more thinking time for mini-quizzes**
- Review more **before class** so you know material better
- ❖ **Can't understand class videos**
- I'll provide video title/where to find it; I'll add video links to LUNA (so you can watch again at your own pace); I'll try and post before class so you can watch earlier

## Conclusion

By using technology while keeping in mind Marzano and Pickering's four factors of emotion, interest, importance and ability, teachers can design lessons and activities that maximize student motivation and engagement. Technology will continue to find an increasing presence in our future classrooms, so it is crucial for teachers to understand how best to utilize it to maximize their learning environments.

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## VOCABULARY LEARNING FOR JAPANESE LEARNERS OF ENGLISH

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**Abstract:** The present study aims at highlighting the importance of systematic vocabulary instruction and the possibility of solutions via the use of triangle meaning models to the challenges that polysemy sets for learners. Vocabulary acquisition is an essential part of EFL (English as a Foreign Language) learning. However, Japanese learners of English often fail to appropriately grasp the meanings of words in context. One of the root causes of this failure is polysemy, the coexistence of multiple meanings in words. This is partly due to their haphazard ways of learning vocabulary. The study reveals that Japanese learners of English are likely to take the meanings of polysemous words that they have memorized as their central meanings, and that can frequently lead to misreading. One solution is to enhance the function of learners' mental lexicon by creating connections among polysemous meanings based on prototype theory.

### Introduction

It is an undeniable fact that the larger their vocabulary is, the more fluent EFL learners become in reading. Meara (1996) points out the importance of vocabulary and says "all other things being equal, learners with larger vocabularies are more proficient in a wide range of language skills than learners with smaller vocabularies" (p. 35). A large number of studies support the strong correlation between vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension skills (Zhang & Aual, 2008; Alderson, 2000; Joshi, 2005).

In Japan, reading comprehension is one of the largest sections on English entrance examinations for universities and English proficiency tests. Japanese students devoting every spare moment to cramming as many English words as possible into their minds by flipping through English vocabulary books in trains or any number of other places have been a common sight. It is well described by Mizobata (2006), who noted: "This requirement is often regarded by them as an ascetic practice." (p. 8, present author's translation). The volume of vocabulary is regarded as a key to success in learning English, but that very volume seems infinite to EFL learners. Among all the various forms of vocabulary challenges, polysemous words most often mislead EFL learners due to their ambiguity. Learners inevitably labor under the difficulties of choosing the appropriate meaning when encountering polysemous words in a reading text. Ineffective vocabulary instruction can be seen as responsible for learners' vocabulary skill deficiencies that pose a key obstacle to their success in reading English. Therefore, there is a tremendous need to establish vocabulary instruction that clearly

focuses on the meanings of polysemous words. Such systematic vocabulary instruction should enhance learners' knowledge of polysemy for fluent reading without bewildering them with multiple meanings and would free them from the ascetic practice of memorization.

### **Mental Lexicon and Meaning in Acquiring Vocabulary**

How do learners acquire and expand their vocabulary? Some researchers use the concept of a mental lexicon to explain the related processes and functions. Pinker (1994) argues that adult native speakers of English have generally acquired more than 60,000 words and stored them in their mental lexicon, which is distinct from a paper-based dictionary lexicon. While both mental lexica and paper-based dictionaries represent the meaning of a word along with pronunciation information, they do so in different ways. (Aitchison, 1987).

The uniqueness of mental lexica is highlighted by their different ways of organizing words compared to those employed by paper-based dictionaries; that is, mental lexica do not arrange words in straightforward alphabetical order as book dictionaries do. Human speech errors caused by confusing words with similar meanings have frequently been observed. For instance, a speaker mistakenly uses *can opener* for *nutcracker* when wanting to crack a nut (Aitchison, 1987). This provides evidence that humans store words in mental lexica on the basis of meaning, which allows them to spontaneously access words with the appropriate meaning during communication. It also implies that word meanings are added, related, associated, and mapped in mental lexica in the process of acquisition.

Nakamori (2013) suggested that Japanese learners of English might be applying the processes of acquiring native Japanese vocabulary to English vocabulary learning. As a result, they add new English vocabulary to the mental lexicon of their native language, Japanese. This can potentially result in the incorrect usage known as Janglish (Japanese English) by Japanese users of English, such as using the word *depart* to mean department store when communicating in English. When reading, they often misunderstand the English phrase *fire department* as meaning some kind of place to go shopping. It is important to sort out this mixed vocabulary network of their native language and English. Although the use of the Japanese language to teach and learn the meanings of English words is inevitable, meanings kept in the mental lexicon should not be limited to translated meanings. In order for a mental lexicon to be properly organized, the concepts associated with words have to be emphasized. Learners should acquire a conceptual knowledge of words and not just translations to profoundly acquire vocabulary.

### **Difficulty of Acquisition of Polysemous Words**

Ambiguous meanings make the acquisition of vocabulary difficult since most words have more than one meaning. According to Murphey (2010), more than 40% of English words have more than one meaning. Jackendoff (2002) points out that the ambiguity is often attributed to two categorizations: homonymy and polysemy.

The definition of *polysemy* varies depending on the researcher. Taylor (2008) defines it as the association of two or more related senses within a single linguistic form. Some researchers distinguish polysemy from homonymy, attributing to the latter the feature of the same spelling and sound but not meanings, of which seems to be no association. Polysemy involves associated and related meanings,

and polysemous words share one concept consisting of multiple associated meanings. However, the history of homonyms in the English language often shows that superficially different meanings originally derive from the same context and are semantically connected. Therefore, it is extremely hard to draw a line between homonymy and polysemy; thus, different dictionaries and different researchers treat the categories differently. Although it is an important and interesting topic to explore, it requires technical lexical study of the history of the English language and is thus beyond the scope of EFL research. Therefore, in this research, polysemy and homonymy will be treated the same without distinction. This study considers all words with the same spelling and the same sound to be examples of polysemy.

Polysemy is generally difficult to master for Japanese learners of English as it is for most EFL learners. Certain factors pertaining to learning English explain the difficulty. First, in Japan, the size of vocabulary has been more emphasized than the depth in order to maximize learners' scores on English tests. The belief is that larger is better. Therefore, many Japanese learners cannot help associating one word to one meaning and then moving on to the next new word to memorize, thereby increasing the size of their vocabulary. However, once they actually read English texts, they inevitably face high-frequency words, which usually have multiple meanings, and they find that the word meanings they have stored in their minds are insufficient. This can be a huge obstacle to reading comprehension because they often apply the one meaning they have in their mind to polysemous words, without regard for their multiplicity of meaning.

In addition, Chinese characters used in Japanese are ideograms; therefore, Japanese learners of English are quite used to figuring out meanings by looking at words. On the other hand, the meanings of English words must be derived from alphabetic letters, which are phonograms, the meaning of which can never be understood simply by looking at them unless the meanings have previously been learned. If learners do not know the meaning of a word, there is almost no way to figure out the meaning: it cannot be guessed by looking at how the word is constructed. That makes them see the learning of English vocabulary, as noted above, as an endless ascetic practice.

Clipperton (1994) suggested that new words should be first presented without any context for the most effective learning to take place. Carter (1987) added that while advanced learners may benefit from learning vocabulary in context, beginning learners probably benefit the most when words are presented in lists of translation pairs. In the Japanese context of learning English at school, especially for beginners, students are apt to learn new words from reading passages in textbooks used in school English classes and to apply the first meaning of the word that they learn to any context. Context is essential to comprehending the meaning of a reading text, but it can be a confusing factor if readers are beginners with limited vocabulary, experience, and previous knowledge of English-speaking contexts. They usually do not expect that the words they have already learned have different meanings in different contexts unless they are provided with systematic instruction on polysemous words. Laufer (1996) pointed out that learners familiar with one of the meanings of a polysemous word do not abandon that meaning even if it does not make any sense in a given context. That frequently induces mistakes in reading comprehension. Without systematic vocabulary instruction, after all, every polysemous word seems like a completely new word to learners every time they discover a different new meaning of the word by incidental learning. Then they tend to feel overwhelmed by the ambiguity of vocabulary. Learning vocabulary, especially polysemous words with multiple meanings, can be such a patchy process that learners fail to acquire the meanings of words effectively and correctly.

Therefore, it is necessary to consider the processing of meaning and how meanings are categorized and constructed in order to develop effective instruction for polysemous words.

### **How to Process Polysemy in Mental Lexicon**

It is of great importance to understand how humans process polysemy when they come across it. Since the knowledge helps facilitate the effective construction of meanings in the mental lexicon, here, three ways of access to the mental lexicon are considered. The first way is frequency or familiarity access, which refers to rapid access to the most common meaning among multiple meanings. The second is exhaustive access, in which humans activate all the meanings in the lexicon at once and then erase them, starting from the least possible one. The third way is selective access, which refers to accessing the appropriate meaning from the beginning according to the context.

Depending on learners' proficiency, their ways of access vary. To employ exhaustive access and selective access, learners need to be advanced in English learning because these two ways require them to know the multiples meanings of a word in the first place. Only with a complete knowledge of the meanings of words can learners benefit from these means of access. Beginning learners, therefore, have no choice but to depend on frequency or familiarity access due to their limited knowledge and experience of reading English words.

### **Prototype Theory and of Related Meanings of Word**

How do people categorize things in the world and define concepts of them in the mind? Tanaka, Sato and Abe (2006) suggest an innate human ability to categorize things on the basis of some particular characteristics. They introduce the classical series of experiments of Rosch in 1970s and claim that those studies led to the development of, prototype theory, which explains how some members of a category are more central than others. In prototype theory, many of our mental concepts are viewed as prototypes, and the classification and definition of things depend on one typical thing which first emerges in the mind as a prototype of the category. For example, as a prototype of the category of bird, most people are likely to have a typical flying bird in mind and not flightless birds like emus or ostriches.

Langacker (1991) suggested a semantic network model to show how words are related in the mind according to meaning based on schema (e.g., something white), prototype (e.g., snow), and expansion (e.g., fair-skinned). Humans place one prototypical meaning in the center of the mental lexicon of a word. As discussed in the previous section, the mental lexicon stores words on the basis of meaning. When using a language, the central meaning is often accessed from the mental lexicon and spontaneously applied to try to understand the word in question. Such spontaneity facilitates efficient and smooth interactions. Needless to say, many words in different contexts do not always have the central meaning of the category and often have a less prototypical one.

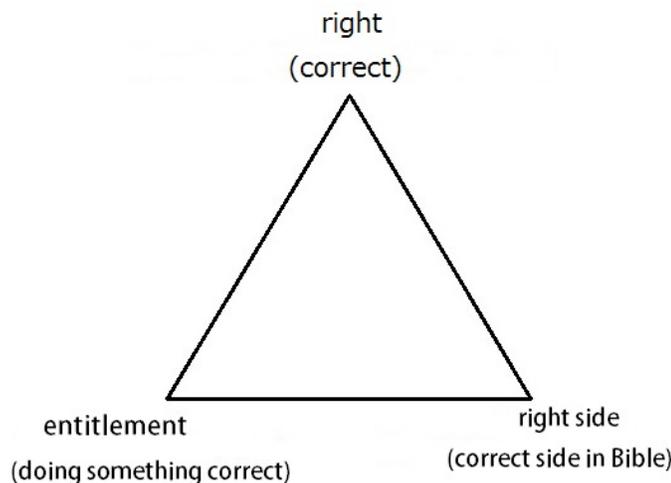
### **Visualization of Related Meanings of Word in Language Learning**

According to Stevick (1986), the definition of visualization is “a composite that we perceive (more or less vividly) as a result of the interaction between what we have in storage and what is going

on at the moment” (p. 16). Images formed in the mind play an important role in language learning. He described the importance of images in language learning as something to make “the networks more solid, more complete, and more stable” (p. 51). Arnold (1999) used the term *mind’s eye*, with which humans see mental images, suggesting an intimate connection between knowing and seeing. She meant that knowing is to have seen not only with the physical eyes but also with the “mind’s eye,” which implies involvement of the use of imagination. An essential factor in vocabulary learning is shifting the focus from the form of a word to its meaning. Visualization of the meaning of a word can bring a vivid and personal meaning to the learning process. It also encourages learners to see the images associated with words instead of thinking their definitions. Working with visualization, learners start with an image and move to the meaning, avoiding translation with the use of L1. Translating the mental picture directly to the meaning renders the process more efficient.

The use of visualization facilitates a learner’s deep engagement with word meanings. But how do learners best accomplish this visualization of word meanings for efficient learning? The awareness of the prototype provides a clear image of how the central meaning is related to the subordinate meanings; at the same time, it highlights how polysemy expands the meanings to subordinate levels from the central meaning. This is practiced effectively not only through oral explanation of the word but also by means of the model image given to learners. For example, take the word *right*. The idea can be taught as follows. The central meaning is *correct*. The category of “right” also has subordinate meanings: (1) a “right” as an entitlement, which is something that it is correct for someone to receive, and (2) in the Bible, *right* means “the correct side,” which is the right side, not the left. By providing Figure 1 to learners, the triangle of meanings that coalesce around the central meaning constructs a mental lexicon for the word *right*. For *right* and other words taught in this way, the central meaning functions as a cue to help learners activate their mental effort and access the triangle image of *right* in their mental lexicon as needed. With a clear image of the meanings connected to the central meaning, learners do not have to vacillate over ambiguous meanings. Hence, the suggestion to be made at this point is that vocabulary instruction, which facilitates the understanding of prototypes of words and the visualization of the images of related meanings of polysemous words, can be one solution to the challenge of vocabulary acquisition.

Figure 1. Triangle meaning model for the word *right*



**Materials and Methods**

The goal of this study was to determine whether Japanese university students of English regard the central meaning of a word as its most familiar meaning. To examine the feasibility of vocabulary instruction based on prototype theory as outlined in the previous section, it was necessary to investigate how learners process polysemous words with a choice of central meaning. In this study, thirty basic words were selected from two of the most popular junior high school English textbook series for three grades in Japan (six books in total). The subjects were eighteen university students aged 19–22 who had been learning English in formal English classes since their junior high school days. They were asked to number the meanings of words from 1 to 3, 1 being the most familiar and 3 being the least familiar. In the case that they did not know the meaning, they wrote an X in the parentheses. For example, three meanings were shown for the word *right*. (1) right: not left ( ), correct for a particular situation ( ), legal claim ( ). The list of thirty words appears in Table 1.

On the actual survey form (Appendix A), all the definitions of thirty words were written in Japanese to avoid confusion. It was expected that vocabulary instruction based on prototype theory would make vocabulary meaning acquisition efficient if the word meaning most familiar to students was consistent with the central meaning acknowledged by three highly reliable dictionaries: *The Oxford English Dictionary*, *Webster’s*, and the *Dictionary of English Lexical Polysemy*. This implies that learners have a mental lexicon with a central meaning that is organized in such a manner as to potentially expand to related meanings to form at least one triangle as shown in Figure 1. Instruction was provided on the concept of a prototype and its multiple related meanings, and it was explained that the most familiar meanings of the words would be consistent with the lexicographical central meaning.

Table 1 *Thirty Basic Polysemous Words Selected for the Study*

right	like	call	bear	fall
hard	kind	move	air	bar
bill	capital	cell	chair	company
fair	dear	great	safe	school
sound	will	practice	free	present
diet	mean	minute	line	screen

**Result**

The study revealed that for eleven out of thirty words, the meaning most familiar to the subjects were the lexicographical central meaning. Taking one of those words, *right*, as an example, all the subjects checked “correct” as the most familiar meaning and all the dictionaries used in the study also list the meaning “correct” as the central meaning of *right*. The meanings most familiar to learners were identical with the central meanings of authentic lexicographical sources for eleven words. Table 2 shows the words.

Table 2 *Words for Which Learner Central Meanings Matched Lexicographical Ones*

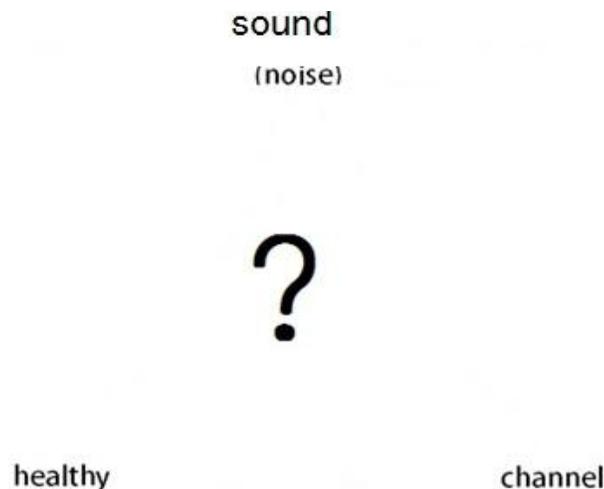
right	like	call	bear	fall	right	like	call	bear	fall	right	like
hard	kind	move	air	bar	hard	kind	move	air	bar	hard	kind

The central meanings of the eleven words follow. 1) right: correct; 2) fall: move from a higher level to a lower; 3) move: take action; 4) air: atmosphere; 5) bill: invoice; 6) chair: seat; 7) dear: favorite; 8) safe: secure; 9) school: institution; 10) sound: noise; and 11) mean: indicate.

It is, then, necessary to examine how the eleven words can expand their meaning from the central meaning. There exists a sufficient possibility that learners' familiarity with the order of meanings could be consistent with the lexicographical central meanings simply by coincidence. Therefore, a close examination was undertaken in the second stage of the study to confirm whether the most familiar word really played the role of central meaning from which to expand meanings to subordinate levels. If not, that could mean that the most familiar word could possibly be connected to two other meanings but not in a triangle meaning model as we have defined it.

The results of the abovementioned examination in the second stage showed that formation of a triangle of meanings is impossible in the case of some words. Specifically, a triangle meaning model for some words cannot be visualized due to a lack of any connection to multiple meanings. In this study, there are two examples of non-visualizable words. One is *sound*, the central meaning of which is "noise" and whose other two meanings, "healthy" and "channel," cannot be bridged by the central meaning, "noise" (Figure 2). The other is *mean*, for which there is no way that the central meaning, "indicate," can be inherent in its other meanings, "malicious" and "average," which are lexicographically listed at the second level.

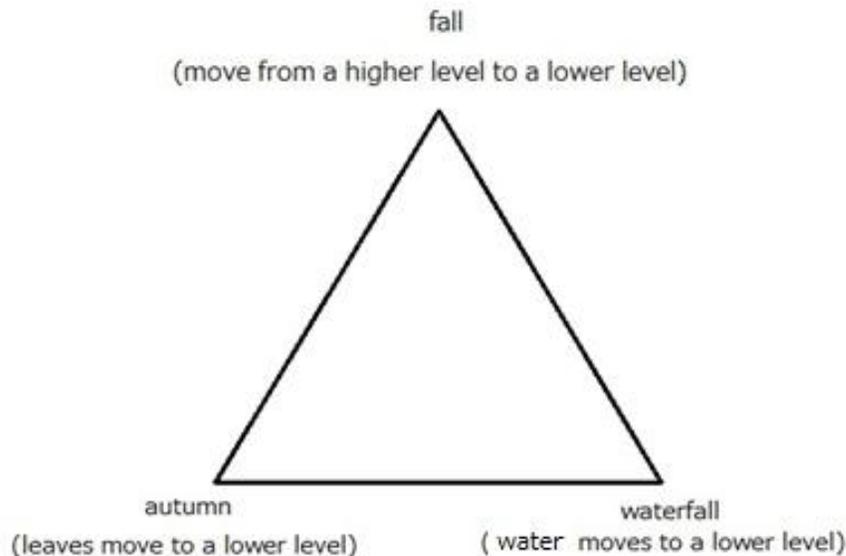
Figure 2. Non-visualization



## Discussion

Vocabulary instruction based on prototype theory is possibly feasible only for a limited number of the words in this study. In addition to the example of the central meaning of *right* shown in the previous section, here is another example: the meanings of *fall* connected to the central meaning (Figure 3).

Figure 3. Triangle meaning model of “fall”.



The central meaning, “move from a higher level to a lower level,” is coherent in the three meanings in the triangle. The visualization of such triangles in the mental lexicon enables learners to acquire the meanings of polysemous words as an image. After visualizing the related meanings in their mental lexicon, learners can then deeply understand a word in a holistic manner instead of memorizing a word and its meaning by rote learning.

The triangle meaning model suggested above can be applied to the remaining nine words just as it was to *right* and *fall*. In instruction, learners are first provided with knowledge of prototype theory by oral explanation and then via triangle meaning models of words in order to acquire a holistic image of word meanings and to strengthen the visual image in the mental lexicon.

Aside from certain exceptions such as *sound* and *mean*, by attempting to visualize word meanings in the mind, learners can deeply grasp semantic nuances of words. When provided with vocabulary instruction based on prototype theory, learners can be encouraged to visualize word meanings; during this practice, learners naturally discover that the meanings of some words can be visualized while others cannot. By a process of trial and error, learners get in the habit of constructing networks of meanings in their mental lexicon when it is possible but have to depend on other strategies when it is not.

## Conclusion

The study revealed some important findings to support vocabulary instruction based on prototype theory. First, students’ familiarity with the meaning of words was shown to be lexically consistent with the central meanings of some words. That means that providing learners with knowledge of prototypes of words and images of triangle meaning models for words can be feasible and effective in vocabulary instruction. Instead of incidental vocabulary learning through reading, this

type of instruction raises learners' awareness of related meanings of polysemous words. When learners face words with multiple meanings, they learn to undertake a more efficient process to understand word meanings, such as exhaustive access or selective access rather than familiarity access. Knowing that there is the possibility of mutually related multiple meanings prevents learners from applying the most familiar meaning to just any context. It does not, however, suggest that conventional ways of vocabulary instruction that teach word meanings through reading should be abolished. They remain effective and efficient when used in combination with vocabulary instruction based on prototype theory in which learners are provided with not only knowledge of prototype theory but also a holistic image of word meanings by means of triangle meaning models. Learners gain knowledge of the central meaning and subordinate meanings of a word and then try to form a triangle meaning model with them. At the same time, using a conventional form of reading instruction, learners learn to use context to figure out the appropriate meanings, aided by awareness of prototype theory. This combined form of instruction allows even learners at the beginner level to process polysemous words by exhaustive access and selective access.

The study also revealed that the use of triangle meaning models is not a complete solution to the acquisition of all polysemous words. As for those words for which central meaning does not cohere, the mental lexicon simply cannot construct a visualization of related meanings in a triangle; therefore, even if learners are given the knowledge of prototype theory and are encouraged to visualize meanings in their mental lexicon, multiple meanings are never visualized in relational form and remain unorganized in mind. Hence, other methods of vocabulary instruction should be suggested in the future, although vocabulary instruction based on prototype theory is still effective in habituating learners to exploring the possibilities of meanings related to central meanings.

Although the word selection and research methods in this study were carefully designed, there were nevertheless limitations since this study is EFL research with Japanese learners of English as subjects. It would also be intriguing to study the case of native speakers of English. Do they have similar orders of familiarity with meanings in their minds? If not, what accounts for the differences? Do they construct mental meanings in a different way? The findings might have important implications and suggest other possibilities in EFL teaching and learning.

Further research should deal with many more polysemous words and explore the expansion patterns of multiple polysemous meanings based on prototype theory. This could make vocabulary instruction based on prototype theory more available to many English teachers because they would be able to create teaching materials integrating triangle meaning models easily using the various expansion patterns. It is also left up to the next researchers in this area to examine the efficacy of teaching expansion patterns of multiple meanings of polysemous words to learners. Whether or not learners can guess the surrounding meanings of the unknown polysemy if they know the expansion pattern should be investigated with an eye to providing another potential method of teaching vocabulary.

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### Appendix A

アンケート対象語彙と3つの訳の選択肢一覧表

right 右 ( )	like 似ている ( )
正しい ( )	~のように ( )
権利 ( )	好きだ ( )
call 呼ぶ ( )	bear 生む ( )
呼び寄せる ( )	熊 ( )
電話する ( )	耐える ( )
fall 落ちる ( )	hard 一生懸命 ( )
秋 ( )	困難な ( )
滝 ( )	硬い ( )
kind 種類 ( )	move 感動する ( )
親切な ( )	動く ( )
性質 ( )	提出する ( )
air 空気 ( )	bar 酒場 (バー) ( )
放送する ( )	木 ( )
雰囲気 ( )	法廷 ( )
bill お札 ( )	capital 首都 ( )
請求書 ( )	大文字 ( )
法案 ( )	資本 ( )
cell 独房 ( )	chair 議長 ( )
細胞 ( )	いす ( )
携帯電話 ( )	司会をする ( )
15. company 仲間 ( )	16. fare 公平な ( )
会社 ( )	評定が可の ( )
交際する ( )	天気のよい ( )
17. dear おやまあ ( )	18. great 偉大な ( )
親愛なる ( )	大きい ( )
大切な ( )	~親等 ( )

19. safe 安全な ( )	20. school 群れ ( )
野球のセーフ ( )	学校 ( )
金庫 ( )	学派 ( )
21. sound 音 ( )	22. will 助動詞として ( )
健全な ( )	意志 ( )
海峡 ( )	遺言 ( )
23. practice 実行する ( )	24. free 無料の ( )
練習する ( )	自由な ( )
風習／習慣 ( )	釈放する ( )
25. present 現在の ( )	26. diet 常食 ( )
贈り物 ( )	ダイエットする ( )
出席する ( )	国会 ( )
27. mean 意味する ( )	28. minute (時間の単位) 分 ( )
卑劣な ( )	些細な ( )
平均の ( )	議事録 ( )
29. line 線 ( )	30. screen 仕切り ( )
セリフ ( )	画面 ( )
ひも ( )	審査選考 ( )

## **Lived Experiences of Filipino Educators – Enduring Differences at Foreign Academic Institutions through Cultural Pliability and Technology Integration**

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**Abstract:** This study explored the lived experiences of educators in Surigao del Norte and Surigao City formerly teaching in foreign academic institutions. Through qualitative inquiry which is grounded on Giorgi's psycho-phenomenological research design, the study described the lived experiences of three interviewee-educators. Transcribed and reviewed records of the interviews revealed five thematic lived experiences of Filipino educators abroad: (1) adapting foreign educational system: a call for pliability; (2) driving forces for a better life; (3) coping with culture and value differences: a bitter reality; (4) a challenging experience with multi-faceted learners; (5) redirecting path: a way back home. Conclusion revealed the key to endure differences is giving respect to other norms, apply interactive activities to foreign multi-faced learners, and technology-integration in classroom discussion. Recommendations based on the findings are cited. Furthermore, an in-depth comparative research on the Filipino educators' teaching experiences in Western and Asian countries is recommended.

### **Introduction**

Professionals make up the country's intellectual capital and they serve as hope in building this country. Human talents and skills are widely regarded as prime national assets. Societies in all stages of development tend to look upon their "stocks" of human resources as "capital," and to husband the talents and skills of individuals as the source of leadership in a complex world (Hidalgo, 2002).

Unfortunately many educated or professional people leave a particular place or profession and move to another one that gives better pay or living condition.

The Public Services Labor Independent Confederation (PSLINK) already predicted this on the year 2009 saying that the United States will need two million teachers in this coming decade, and Arab countries, which would need at least 450, 000 teachers. According to the data in the years 1998-2008, it recorded around 4, 000 Filipino teachers mostly Math, Science, English and Special Education teachers left the country.

Exploring the lived experiences of Filipino teachers who are teaching in foreign institutions through writing narratives based on hearing the voices of these Filipino teachers will provide new insights for our government to continuously transform our educational system. This research study will

give chance to the Filipino teachers formerly teaching in foreign education institutions to speak for themselves as a local teacher and as a teacher in a foreign land.

Finally, the findings of this research study will give authentic evidences to the readers to hear the living voices of Filipino teachers working abroad. The informants' lived experiences will be the source of insights, views, themes and realizations to country's educational system, governance, local teachers and teachers teaching abroad.

This study aims to explore the lived experiences of the former teachers teaching in foreign educational institutions. Specifically it seeks to answer the following research questions:

1. What are the experiences of the Filipino teachers teaching in the foreign lands?
2. What factors urged the informants to come back to the country?
3. What factors motivated them to teach abroad?

## **Review of Related Literature**

The teacher is a person who provides education for students. Teachers are highly respected member of society who has a fine command of language and an expert of knowledge of their subjects. They are well-organized people, too. They know how to handle classroom routines and they accept a certain amount of clerical work as part of the job. Above all, they know how to get along with other including their supervisors and the rest of the faculty (Maleska, 1987). They are the people considered as the builders of nation for advancement and development.

Data from the Philippine Overseas Employment Administration (POEA) shows that roughly 9.5 million to 12.5 million Filipinos currently work or reside abroad. This translates to a statistical computation to around 10-11% of the total Philippine population. Every year it is estimated that more than a million Filipinos work abroad, or around 4,500 Filipinos every day including professional teachers (National Statistics Office, Philippine Overseas Employment Administration, 2013).

The identification and analysis of the causes of the skilled professionals working and rendering services abroad including Filipino educators are essential to the flow of this research study. The pertinent literature provided, strengthened the study through showing the causes of pushing one country's skilled workers and professionals to work outside shores and exposing theories definitions which explain furthermore these factors.

The causes are often shown in a bipolar model of 'pulls' exerted factors operating in the migration. This is known the pull-push approach; the push factors are depressing characteristics in the country of the origin, which produce emigration. On the other hand pull factors are the attracting factors/features in the country of destination that induce immigration (Adams, 2003).

Among the primary push factors are the following: underemployment, economic underemployment, low wage or salary, political instability, over production and underutilization of Highly Qualified Manpower (HQM), lack of research and other facilities, lack of freedom, discrimination in appointment and promotion, poor working facilities, lack of scientific tradition and culture, unsuitable institution, desire for a better urban life and desire for higher qualification conditions. These are the main reasons, which push our professionals to their proficient intelligence and talents beyond our shores (Ghosh and Ghosh, 1982).

On the other hand, some of the principal push factors are the following: better economic prospects, higher salary and income, better level of living and way of life, better research facilities, modern educational system and better opportunity for higher qualifications, prestige of rich, scientific and cultural tradition, attraction of urban centers, availability of experienced supporting staff, frequent chances of a lucky break in life, technological gap and allocation of substantial funds for research (Ghosh and Ghosh, 1982).

Considering these alluring factors, one would surely trade his patriotism and nationalism to satisfy hungry stomach. Skilled professionals often leave the country for greener pastures which they could attain only in foreign countries.

Dualism is the other theory behind this, which implies that the world economy has a dualistic structure. One part of the economy is dominated by the technologically-advanced, industrially-developed rich countries (DCS), and the other part is represented by capital-poor, agricultural economies (LDCS).

The points of differences between two countries are the following: in developed countries the wage is high; there is labour shortage so the demand is high, population growth is low, high quality manpower is essential, the rate of profit is very high and they are technologically rich and exporter of technology. While in the less developed countries, the wage level is low, the demand for labour is low yet labour profit is very low and there is prevalent unemployment, the rate of profit is very low and they are technologically poor. The implication of this theory is those skilled professionals would flock towards the arena in developed countries (Ghosh and Ghosh, 1982).

In another vein, the entire notion is also a result of socio-psychological factor, which is up to now prevalent in our society known as the “myth of the superiority of the west.” It implies that even though Filipinos are now free from western oppression, the power of their superiority is still existent. Western countries, undeniably, are still on their peak in terms of economical and technological status (Ghosh and Ghosh 1982). Everything western is an obsession for many and they patronize them. As a matter of fact, affluent Filipinos spend their holidays outside the country. Filipinos view western concept ideal, from education down to leisure. This theory shows a symptom of a larger disease – lure of the west and not unrelated strangled of the bureaucratic culture in the LDCS (Ghosh and Ghosh 1982).

Another prime factor is the belief that money dictates “brain drain.” If the person perceives adequate income, he would grab the opportunity abroad rather than stay and settle for low income. Man’s decision of flying outside the country is governed by his living standard. The greater the money, the more likely the professionals will migrate. In every Filipino, fulfillment precisely means good working condition plus high salary. This kind of fulfillment, which everyone longs for, is completely packaged in other countries.

The abovementioned factors, theories and experience shared by a Filipino educator who worked in a foreign land which evidently give authentic supports and proofs of why Filipino skilled professionals including Filipino educators are enticed to work abroad or in other countries are very essential in validating informants’ answers during in depth interviews. The factors, theories and the

experience shared are bases for the researcher in identifying if the informants' expectations in working outside shores are met. Basically I believe as a researcher of this study, my informants who are Filipino educators abroad and now have returned in the Philippines and continued the teaching profession are given the chance to be heard regarding their lived experiences in foreign lands which could be the source of formulating significant themes which could be a big help to the readers who seek information about the study.

## **Methodology**

### **Research Design**

This study used Giorgi's psycho-phenomenological research design. The purpose of Giorgi's phenomenological psychology research is "to capture as closely as possible the way in which the phenomenon is experienced" (Giorgi & Giorgi, 2003b, p.27). In Giorgi's work, phenomenology is used to look for the psychological meanings that constitute the phenomenon in the participants' life world. The idea is to study how individuals live, that is how they behave and experience situations (Giorgi, 1985). Their descriptions are based on their personal experiences within the context in which the experience is taking place (Makoe, 2007).

### **Sampling and Selection of Informants**

This study used a purposive sampling and used a criterion sampling. The informants should be: teachers in Surigao City and Surigao del Norte, both male and female, teaching in a private education institution in foreign land, having 2 to 10 years of experience teaching abroad and presently teaching in public or private schools in the country.

### **Instrument**

In order to capture my informants' personal journey regarding their lived experiences in working as teachers in foreign institution and why they decided to come back to the country, I used biological questionnaire and conducted an interview with a prepared interview guide questions.

### **Data Collection**

The data in this research were basically obtained through a series of in-depth interview with three Filipino teachers who worked as teachers in foreign educational institutions. I interviewed while taking down notes and recorded via digital recorder the informants' regarding their experience of teaching in other countries. The researcher used an Interview Guide. The transcripts were reviewed by the investigator while listening to the digital recorder in order to check for accuracy. To protect the identities of the participants, recorded conversations and transcripts and all other study materials were coded with an identification number known only to the investigator. No participant's name was written on any study document. To prepare the transcripts for coding during data analysis, the investigator read and re-read them to capture the essence of the stories told by the participants.

Data which were gathered through the notes taken and digital recorder were transcribed and analysed by the researcher.

Figure 1

Flow chart of data analysis

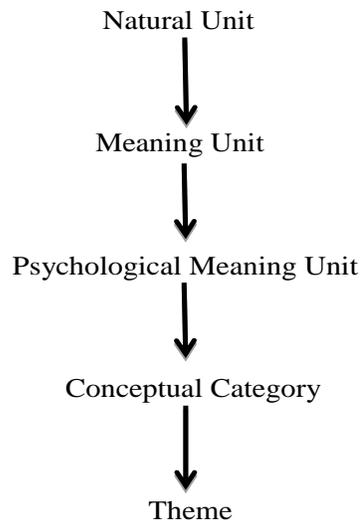


Figure 1 illustrated the flow of how the data were analysed and interpreted in order to emerge the substantial themes of the study regarding the lived experiences of teachers formerly teaching in foreign educational institution which is the purpose of the study.

## FINDINGS & DISCUSSION

Adapting Foreign Educational System: A Call for Pliability, Driving Forces for a Better Life, Coping with Culture & Values Differences: A Bitter-Better Reality, A Challenging Experience with Multi-faced Learners and lastly Redirecting Path: A Way Back Home where the themes revealed in the study.

The first theme, Adapting Foreign Educational System: A Call for Pliability, depicted the flexibility of the Filipino educators teaching in foreign lands as they adapted to new educational system and teaching strategy. Their experiences of adjusting and responding to foreign teaching environment specifically to shifting to new educational system conveyed how flexible a Filipino educator and an educator is. The second theme, Driving Forces for a Better Life, exposed that teachers worked in other countries for family needs, personal needs and professional development. Information transpired from informants' experiences regarding this theme, helped in understanding further human needs as presented in Maslow's hierarchy of needs. The third theme, Coping with Culture and Values Differences: A Bitter-Better Reality, showed how Filipino educators struggled and were able to survive in foreign countries with different orientation, culture and proven a lot of differences. As they related their tractability in adjusting to co-teachers, parents and students with different races who were portraying various attitudes as well as in adapting to the norms of the environment showed the Filipino characteristics in dealing with other races. The next theme, A Challenging Experience with Multi-faced Learners, viewed the informants cleverness in applying the appropriate teaching strategies to be used in foreign institution inclined to the varied intellectual capability of the students. They presented

techniques in applying approaches and strategies to diversified students. The fifth theme, *Redirecting Path: A Way Back Home*, confirmed that Filipinos are certainly family oriented or having close knit family ties as they conveyed the reasons of coming back home in the country after several years of teaching in foreign land is deeply rooted to be reunited with family.

The first theme emerging from the data analysis portraying how educators formerly teaching in foreign educational institution developed the important characteristic of an educator in *Adapting to Foreign Educational System: A Call for Pliability*. The three informants related that before they venture in teaching in a foreign country they had experienced of teaching in country's private institutions for several years ranging from two to six years. All the informants lived the experience of being opened to unfamiliar kind of educational system in foreign land upon their initial year in foreign institution. They needed to deal with and adapt to a totally different educational system to follow. The efforts and the strategies being exerted by the informants as they related their stories enriched the flexibility characteristic of the educators in which it is an important characteristic an educator should possess in order to transmit good learning to students. The two informants showed that they adapted the foreign educational system as they followed the syllabus provided by the school in teaching the students.

The educational system that they had followed both have standard exam prepared from a foreign renowned university. The standard exam is not prepared by the teacher who taught the subject since the country served is under a district colony. It is evident in I.A. statement when he (Ia1.62) said, *"with my teaching experience abroad it was difficult."* The syllabus served as the primary instrument of the two informants to slowly adapt the foreign educational system indulged. The teachers were required by the system to help the students pass the standard exam. The first informant's foreign institution taught implemented a reward strategy to teachers who can produce 100% passers of the standard exam in a particular subject. The Filipino informant quickly thought of an idea in order to answer the foreign educational challenged driven by giving bonus in a form of money as motivation to the educators in the institution.

Flexibility of the first informant was exercised by applying an appropriate teaching strategy that would answer the demand of foreign educational system. As stated by him (Ia1.158), *"My teaching style there was like in a Review Center since I found out that the students want to know answers to the possible questions that will come out in the Past Year Exam."* He followed the teaching pattern of giving concepts, conducting evaluation and using Past Year Paper to prepare the students for the Cambridge exam. Practicing of answering standard exam questionnaires were done to students to sharpen them so they will be ready enough to take the standard exam. All the informants also shared that they needed to update and prepare themselves for the advanced topics in foreign institutions. The two of them said that the topics tackled in High School were the topics met as they were in college and even in master's degree subjects. The two informants expressed that they needed to double their efforts in order to cope with the advanced topics to be taught. I.A. detailed that he prepared himself to a particular subject for a year by preparing the lessons so he can master it the following year. The preparation was done through finding references, doing research through internet and using his stock knowledge from college and master's learning as well as to own country's teaching experiences. Another informant shared that she struggled with the language used as the medium of instruction in foreign land as part of the educational system. She performed adaptability by practicing patiently herself to the language so she can transmit the learning effectively to the students. I.B also conferred

that she could not apply her way of teaching in the Philippines to the school taught in foreign land since the students needed a spoon-feeding of learning the lessons. She realized everything must be done for the students to understand. Her cleverness in applying the appropriate strategy was tested, therefore she cleverly thought of applying the discussion method most of the time. I.C. expressed her experience of flexibility by willingly and open-mindedly embraced the new educational system faced to uplift her teaching skills. She appreciated much the high-end multimedia incorporated in teaching the lessons in foreign land. It tested her ability to plan interactive classroom activities with the aid of technology.

Based on the informants' stories of how they adapted to foreign educational system transpired that the theme Adapting Foreign Educational System: A Call for Pliability was achieved through willingness and open-mindedness in using the provided materials by foreign institution such as syllabus and high-end multimedia, cleverness in applying an appropriate teaching strategy that would answer the demand of foreign educational system, preparedness and resourcefulness for the advanced topics through finding references, doing research through internet and using stock knowledge from college and master's learning as well as to local teaching experiences and stretchiness of patience in using a foreign language as a medium of instruction. These qualities honed the flexibility of the informants which is a significant characteristic an educator should possess in the field of teaching. Attaining flexibility in foreign land is as equal in conquering human needs as elaborated in Maslow's (1954) hierarchy of needs in succeeding belongingness, esteem and self-actualization.

The second theme identified was Driving Forces for a Better Life. The informants undoubtedly said that they taught in foreign institutions for financial reason for the needs of the family. As evidence I.A. (Ia.21) stated, "*The main factor that motivated me to work abroad is of course the salary.*" According to the first informant the salary earned in the Philippines is lesser compared abroad and it is undeniable. The informant confidently said that the wage he earned in the country from teaching was doubled and even tripled in foreign land. The first informant confessed that his earning from teaching in a private institution and even doing part timing to other private institution in the Philippines was not enough to sustain a growing family. I.A. also related in his story that his dream of finishing engineering degree also drove him to venture in foreign land. He thought that he could gain scholarship while he was teaching. He realized that he could not afford to send himself in foreign land's engineering school. The informant's dreamed of finishing engineering degree in foreign land was not realized. The second informant also conveyed that she enjoyed the better salary earned in foreign land compared in the Philippines even she was just a part-timer as she landed the foreign land because of an invitation. Lastly I.C. expressed that greener pasture for compensation and teaching skills enhancement motivated her to grab teaching in foreign land. Both were achieved the better compensation and professional development in Korea.

Founded from the educators formerly teaching in foreign institutions related experiences, it was clear that their primary reason of working in foreign land was because of bigger salary promised which was personally experienced, realizing unfinished dream and for teaching skills enhancement in order to get a better life. As mirrored in Maslow's (1954) hierarchy of needs money sustain the highest need of human being which are the physiological needs, on the other vein to Herzberg (1959), it is just considered a hygiene factor which produced short-term changes in a job attitude performance. The theories explained why a certain person will really find way to earn better compensation even leaving

family behind just to work outside shores of the country where a better life for family and self are assured.

A third theme was that the Filipino educators were able to experience in Coping with Culture & Values Differences: A Bitter-Better Reality. The three informants made known the two faces of reality regarding teaching experiences in foreign institutions, the better and the bitter reality. Two of the informants experienced dealing with Muslims in foreign land they had served as educators. According to the first informant, dealing with Muslims was not new to him since he studied in a university settled in a Muslim community therefore mostly enrolled students were Muslims. As a Muslim and as a Christian portrays a lot of differences and so the country lived in with different orientations and traditions are visibly extremely different. Muslims are very sensitive in terms of religion. The two informants talked that they were very careful in correcting papers of the students and to the words they used that would not touched against their religion or hurt the students. The secret weapon of the informant to work harmoniously with colleagues, students despite differences and the kind of environment worked in is showing respect to other culture to beget respect in return. As what he (1a3.5-6, 8) shared, *“I easily adapt to them. It was just only a matter of respecting each other’s differences and values. I show respect to their traditions and so they are to me.”* I.A. also added that the bitter attitude of his foreign colleagues was being frank; they said words right to your face expressing what they wanted and did not want. At first the informant was hurt because he was not used to it but eventually understood and accepted that he was in a foreign land with different orientation. A bitter reality was experienced by I.B. as she was judged and discriminated by the parent for a missed responsibility of informing a parent about the cancellation of classes. She was not only judged but the whole Filipino race, just only for a single mistake committed concerning her child. As evidence she (Ib3.30) related, *“I was very afraid then, the parent said, that is why Philippine (pronouncing it Filipin) no good, no good, (it was stated in Malay language.”* She was able to cope with the situation by accepting the mistake and gave incentive to the parent of free tuition fee as she was the School In-charge. On the other side a better experience was related by I.C. as she was able to first hand proved how Korean students were disciplined, responsible, respectful, modernized and how they give value to their culture by living it in their daily activities in school. The Koreans according to the informant were very respectful especially to their teachers and parents, disciplined in obeying school rules and valued their culture such as taking off shoes and replacing them with sandals before entering a school building. Their rooms were all provided with high-end technology.

The informants’ experiences in coping with foreign culture & values differences which had observed a bitter and better reality pointed out that the key to survive, is giving respect to their norms and traditions, understanding their attitude, accepting committed mistake with all humility, showing tolerance and patience to bitter differences until coping is achieved and learning from the good experiences in foreign land which can be applied back home in the local land. As quoted from I.C. (Ic3.9) with her nice experience in Korea, *“as I observed with their culture and values this has led me to appreciate and respect other nationalities inasmuch as we appreciate and respect ourselves.”*

The fourth theme that developed was A Challenging Experience with Multi-faced Learners. All of the informants confirmed that students in foreign institutions love to be given and to do interactive activities. Therefore students went to laboratory or outside the classroom and done hands on activities that were related to the tackled topic. I.B. shared that she applied games in measuring students’ ability about the topic and they enjoyed it. The first informant expressed that they made it sure that the

students will not be bored rather they will have fun while learning. The informants also said that the approaches and strategies applied in the country were also applied in foreign land. The advanced topics in foreign lands were prepared by the informants through finding references and doing internet research which they believed can find a lot to supplement the lessons. The approach of teaching in foreign land was spoon-feeding as stated by the first informant since the students looked for immediate answers to questions in preparation for the standard exam. Both the teacher and the students prepared for the exam since the exam was formulated by a foreign standard university. One informant also shared her experience in foreign classroom as she taught that the topic should be discussed again and again. She even extended the time table indicated for the topic depending on the student's pace of understanding and until mastery was achieved. The questions in the evaluations were problem solving, showing solution to the problem no multiple choices or true or false type of exam. The informants also related that foreign institutions used multimedia in conducting lessons. The classrooms in foreign land were equipped with multimedia resources which have helped in the smooth and fast delivery of the lessons. I.C. (Ic4.6) once a teacher in foreign land concluded, "*I believe that using multimedia, just like in most if not all Korean classrooms, results to a better grasp of the lessons and make a teacher's task lighter.*" The two informants admitted that foreign educational system is better than the country's educational system since it follows a definite standard and according to them Filipinos are better in comprehension than the foreign students. Filipino students interrupt during class discussions while foreign students just listen.

With the stories expressed by the informants regarding their foreign classroom experiences in A Challenging Experience with Multi-faced Learners revealed that Filipino educators applied interactive activities to different learners in foreign institution to learn while having fun, used strategies and approaches appropriate to the lessons, discussed topics repeatedly until students mastered the topic, extended time table in particular topic depending students pace of comprehension to ensure students learned the topic, merged technology in conveying lessons, prepared for the advanced topics taught, formulated evaluations which answered in showing solutions and stretched patience in order to teach effectively to students who have varied characteristics as a learner.

The last theme appeared were the factors that led the informants Redirecting Path: A Way Back Home. The three informants strongly stated that they found their way back home to be reunited with their family. The first informant conveyed that even though he could go home twice or thrice a year then, time came that it was not enough even though he earned better in foreign land. He (Ia5.4) even confessed, "*Personally I do not want to work abroad and leave my family but practically on the other hand I needed to leave for the needs and wants of my family to provide.*" It was clearly sent by the informant that venturing abroad was all because and for the welfare of the family even if it takes sacrifices leaving the family for several years. The second informant said that she wanted and chosen to be near to her family again after several years of teaching abroad and contented as of now from the government's compensation from her teaching profession. The last informant also shared that she decided to come back home after two years of teaching in Korea to be with her family again. She missed them a lot, so that urged her to come back home. The informant is now teaching in a public school and is very glad in applying what she has learned in foreign institution.

The informants' related reasons of Redirecting Path: A Way Back Home formulated a reflection that in the end to be near with the family is what still matter the most over money. After all real happiness is achieved as you stay together with the family. I.A. (Ia5.3) remarkable statement was,

*“The reason why you go abroad is because of your family, the reason also that you will go back home is also your family.”*

In their described lived experiences of Filipino educators formerly teaching in foreign educational institutions viewed that they survived in foreign land through flexibility in dealing to all aspects and persons, bravely grabbed the opportunity in teaching abroad for a better life not only for thyself but foremost for the family, enjoyed the better reality and adjusted to the bitter reality in foreign land, accepted the challenge of effectively planning the lessons and stretching patience in mentoring multi-faced foreign learners and Filipinos will always be known for being family oriented as they found their selves back home together again with the family even spent many years in foreign land while enjoyed the better compensation.

Based from the informants’ stories of how they adapted to foreign educational system transpired that the theme Adapting Foreign Educational System: A Call for Pliability was achieved through willingness and open-mindedness in using the provided materials by foreign institution such as syllabus and high-end multimedia, cleverness in applying an appropriate teaching strategy that would answer the demand of foreign educational system, preparedness and resourcefulness for the advanced topics through finding references, doing research through internet and using stock knowledge from college and master’s learning as well as to country’s teaching experiences and stretchiness of patience in using a foreign language as a medium of instruction. These qualities honed the flexibility of the informants which is a significant characteristic an educator should possess in the field of teaching. Attaining flexibility in foreign land is as equal in conquering human needs as elaborated in Maslow’s (1954) hierarchy of needs in succeeding belongingness, esteem and self-actualization.

Founded from the educators formerly teaching in foreign educational institutions related experiences, it was clear that their primary reason of working in foreign land was because of bigger salary promised which was personally experienced, realizing unfinished dream and for teaching skills enhancement in order to get a better life. As mirrored in Maslow’s (1970) hierarchy of needs, money sustains the highest need of human being which are the physiological needs, on the other vein to Herzberg (1959), it is just considered a hygiene factor which produced short-term changes in a job attitude performance. The theories explained why a certain person will really find way to earn better compensation even leaving family behind just to work outside shores of the country where a better life for family and self are assured.

With the stories expressed by the informants regarding their foreign classroom experiences in A Challenging Experience with Multi-faced Learners revealed that Filipino educators applied interactive activities to different learners in foreign institution to learn while having fun, used strategies and approaches appropriate to the lessons, discussed topics repeatedly until students mastered the topic, extended time table in particular topic depending students pace of comprehension to ensure students learned the topic, merged technology in conveying lessons, prepared for the advanced topics taught, formulated evaluations which answered in showing solutions and stretched patience in order to teach effectively to students who have varied characteristics as a learner.

The informants’ related reasons of Redirecting Path: A Way Back Home formulated a reflection that family is what still matters the most. I.A. (1a5.3) remarkable statement was, “The reason

why you go abroad is because of your family, the reason also that you will come back home is also your family.”

## Conclusion

The three educators in the study verified that the primary reason of working as educator in foreign land was because of bigger salary promised which helped the family to have a better life. Secondary reasons were fulfilling unfinished dream and enhancing teaching skills. They have apparently conveyed from the interviews that flexibility was very necessary in surviving the totally different foreign educational system compared to the used Philippine educational system. The informants testified that flexibility can be achieved through willingness, open-mindedness, cleverness, preparedness, resourcefulness and stretchiness of patience in dealing to the various aspects in foreign educational institutions. They have also attested that they embraced the advanced topics of the foreign institution through preparedness. The informants highly suggested that our country's educational system should set a standard exam which cannot be manipulated and prepared by a renowned university which will be conducted all throughout the country.

Data drawn from the informants would show that Filipino educators experienced the bitter and better reality in foreign lands as they experienced culture and values differences. They concluded that the keys to endure differences are giving respect to other norms, understanding their attitude, accepting committed mistakes with all humility and showing tolerance to differences until coping up is achieved. The Filipino educators asserted that they applied interactive activities to foreign multi-faced learners. As educators they assured that foreign learners learned while having fun. They prepared themselves for the advanced topics to be taught and formulated evaluations which required giving solutions. They applied strategies and approaches appropriate to the topic. The educators admitted that they extended time frame to a particular topic depending to the learners' pace of understanding to guarantee mastery. In foreign institutions the informants acknowledged the integration of technology in presenting lessons to discuss.

The educators of this study lived the characteristic of being a Filipino as they reflected that family is what still matters the most over money.

The three informants are now back home in the country, two of them are now teaching in the public schools and the other one is in a private school. They are very glad to apply and share the experiences that they had in foreign educational institutions.

## Implications of the Study

This study has drawn attention to several areas of significance that may have implications to the lived experiences of Filipino educators formerly teaching in foreign educational system. Specifically would.

1. Give enlightenment to the government to elevate the salary of the educators both teaching in private and public institutions so that our country will not be left by best educators and taught in foreign institutions instead.

2. Contribute to the formulation of programs and trainings to the aspirant educators to be socially, intellectually and professionally ready in order to be competitive and can respond to the challenges of teaching either in the country or foreign institution.
3. Provide insights to the heads in the Department of Education in transforming some aspects of country's educational system.
4. Expand the discourse surrounding the Filipino educators formerly teaching in foreign institutions, thereby helping to fill a small part of the void in the research on lived experiences of educators teaching in foreign lands.

### **Recommendations**

In the light of the findings and conclusions presented in this study, the following are the recommendations.

1. Tertiary education should formulate programs and curriculum that would prepare aspirant educators to be competitive not only locally but also globally.
2. Department of Education should review the educational system so that educators and learners would be globally competent.
3. Close knit family trait should be preserved which is remarkably well-known among Filipinos.
4. Department of education also should implement a continuous education such as advance trainings and seminars to regularly upgrade the educators to compensate the demand of modernization.

Further research should be conducted investigating, in depth the Filipino educators teaching experiences in western countries to give comparison to the Filipino educators teaching experiences in Asian countries.

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## A Sociolinguistic Overview of the Hindi Language

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**Abstract:** This paper provides a sociolinguistic overview of Hindi with focus on the interaction between the Hindi language and sociolinguistic variables such as the geography, ethnicity, social class, and gender. The paper begins with an overview of the multilingual landscape of India through an introduction to the various language families and their constituent languages that are spoken in India as accounted in the various censuses conducted so far. Subsequently, the paper explores the manifestation of various sociolinguistic variables in the use of Hindi. Language and geography provides the geographical distribution of Hindi and its major dialects. Language and ethnicity focusses on the various tribal populations of India, their mother tongues, and the linguistic challenges faced by these populations. Language and social class examines the code-switching habits of the English-educated upper class of India. Finally, language and gender analyses the manifestation of gender in Hindi in terms of syntax and grammar, and the pragmatics of language use.

### Introduction

South-Asia is a region that is defined by diversity – diversity in geography, religions, culinary practices, culture, festivals, clothing, and languages. Chief among these different aspects of diversity is linguistic diversity which is marked by the presence of an overwhelmingly large number of languages and dialects which has led some scholars to refer to South-Asia as the ‘the linguistic laboratory of the world’ (Bhatia & Ritchie, 2013, p.843). When this linguistic diversity is applied to the large population of the region, the implication is that almost one in every four inhabitants of the world, which is about 1.4 billion human beings, speaks one of the South-Asian languages (Bhatia & Ritchie, 2013). This South-Asian characteristic is also typical to India. In fact, linguistic diversity is considered to be a “hallmark of India” (Bhatia & Ritchie, 2013, p.794) and India is often referred to as “one of the sociolinguistic giants” (Bright, 1960; Choudhry, 2003; Pandit as cited in Srivastava, 1990, p. 38). This diversity is reflected in the 1961 *Census of India* report stating that 1,652 self-reported mother tongues are spoken in India (Mohanty, 2006). However, Bhatia & Ritchie (2013) argue that as the census demands for self-reported languages, the languages claimed as mother tongues by the respondents “may be a language or a nonlanguage – a reflection of regional, religious, caste, social, ethnic, literary, script affiliation, and even occupation” (p. 849). While this statement cautions the readers regarding the conclusions that can be drawn from the 1961 census report, another key takeaway from the statement is that language and social identity in India are marked by complex sociolinguistic relationships. Trudgill (2000) also describes some important sociolinguistic variables namely

geography, ethnicity, social class, and gender. This essay will analyze the relationship between Hindi and some of these sociolinguistic variables.

### **Multilingualism in India**

According to the 1961 Census of India, there are 1652 self-reported mother tongues and an even larger number of dialects spoken in India (Bhatia & Ritchie, 2013; Mohanty, 2006; Mallikarjun, 2002). These mother tongues and dialects can be classified into six language families – Indo-Aryan, Dravidian, Austro-Asiatic, Tibeto-Burman, Andamanese, and Tai-Kadai (Blench & Dendo, 2007; Bhatia & Ritchie, 2013; Jha, 2010; Morey, 2008) which include 300-400 languages (Mohanty, 2006). Bhatia and Ritchie (2013) categorize some languages from these families as major languages based on numeric strength, sociopolitical significance, literary tradition, and/or regional representation (Bhatia & Ritchie, 2013). The 11 major Indo-Aryan languages that are spoken in India are: Hindi, Bengali, Punjabi, Assamese, Marathi, Oriya, Konkani, Nepali, Gujarati, Urdu, and Sindhi. The 2002 *World Almanac* ranks Hindi and Bengali as second and fifth in the world on the basis of the total number of speakers (Bhatia, 2013). The four major Dravidian languages are Tamil, Telugu, Malayalam, and Kannada. The Austroasiatic languages spoken in India can be further categorized into three branches – the Munda subfamily which includes Santhali, Mundari, and Ho, the Mon-Khmer branch which includes Khasi, and the Nicobarese branch which includes dialects, which do not necessarily qualifying as major languages within Bhatia and Ritchie's aforementioned criteria, such as Car-Nicobarese, Chowra, Teressa, Central dialects, Southern dialects, and Shompen (Thomas & Headley, 1970; Parkin, 1991; Whitehead, 1925). Interestingly, Blench and Dendo (2007) argue that Shompen/Shom Pen is not related to the Nicobarese branch or any other branch of the Munda family and is in fact a language isolate. The Tibeto-Burman languages are spoken largely in the northeastern part of India and the major languages include Tibetan or Bhotiya (Bhatia & Ritchie, 2013).

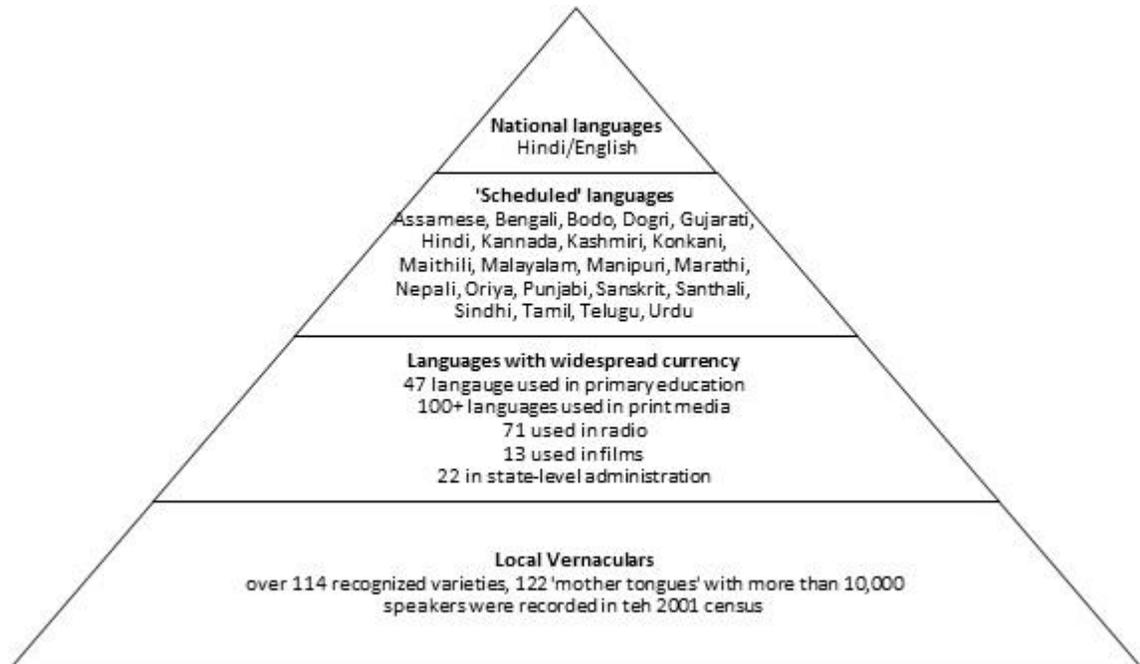
While the preceding four language families are mentioned in most of the literature describing the linguistic scenario in India (Bhatia & Ritchie, 2013; Dasgupta, 1970; Sridhar, 1996), there are two more language families that include languages that are spoken in India but are discussed in only limited literature – Andamanese and Tai-Kadai. These language families and their constituent languages are also absent in Bhatia and Ritchie's (2013) categorization of major languages. The fifth language family is Andamanese and due to the isolated nature of the Andaman islands as well as Andamanese, there is limited research and history available on this language family. Andamanese comprises of two branches: Little Andamanese which includes Sentinelese, Jarawa, and Onge, and Great Andamanese which includes North Andamanese such as Cari, Bo, Kora, and Jeru, South Andamanese such as Bea, and Bale, and Middle Andamanese such as Kol, Juwoi, Pucikwar, and Kede (Zide & Pandya, 1989). Additionally, languages from the Tai-Kadai language family are found in the north-eastern state of Assam. While some of the languages from this family have become extinct, three distinct daughter languages – Tai Khamti, Tai Phake, and Tai Aiton continue to be spoken by small groups (Morey, 2008; Diller, 1992). Tai-Khamyang was another daughter language that was reported to be spoken only by older adults of a single village (Morey, 2008). Another language from the Tai-Kadai family, Tai Ahom, although extinct continues to survive in a ghost state as Tai Ahom is used only for religious purposes by a few surviving priest-officiants called the Ahom *deodhai* (Morey, 2008; Diller, 1992). The final piece to the mosaic of linguistic diversity in India is Nihali or Nahali – a language isolate that is spoken in central India (Ayub & Tyler-Smith, 2009; Whalen & Simons, 2009; Blench & Dendo, 2007).

Although the existing research records that languages from these six families are spoken in India, the 2001 *Census of India* mentions the following families – Indo-European (sub-divided into Indo-Aryan, Iranian, represented by Pashto and Persian, and Germanic, represented by English), Dravidian, Austro-Asiatic, Tibeto-Burman, and Semito-Hamitic (represented by Arabic). The census explains that languages and mother tongues that were reported to be spoken by less than 10,000 speakers were not included in the classification (Census of India, 2001). Although the 1960 *Census of India* presented the oft-quoted figure of 1,652 mother tongues which were categorized into 193 classified languages (Sridhar, 1996), the linguistic surveys in the census reports that followed reported reduced numbers. The 1971 *Census of India* reported statistics for the 15 scheduled languages including the constituting mother tongues and 91 other languages/mother tongues (Pattanayak, 1990). The 91 other languages/mother tongues included a category titled 'other mother tongues'. The *Census of India* 1971, 1981, 1991, 2001, and 2011 adhered to the criteria of disqualifying languages from featuring in the census if their speakers' strength was less than 10,000 (Census website). These attempts at reporting a reduced number of mother tongues in the Census probably arose as a result of opinions such as those of Ishwaran (1969, as cited in Pattanayak, 1990, p. 2) who stated that reporting such a large number of mother tongues can be misleading as 91% of the Indian population speak one of the 15 languages (as of 1969) that are provided in the Constitution of India. However, Pattanayak (1990) suggests that such a categorization was an attempt to restrict the list of languages for practical purposes. As a result to the discontentment regarding the criteria of excluding languages with less than 10,000 speakers, a private organization initiated *The People's Linguistic Survey of India* in 2010 with specific focus on minority languages such as those spoken by tribal and nomadic communities (PLSI website).

Out of the many languages of India, 23 languages are constitutionally recognized scheduled languages adopted by the Constitution of India under the Eighth Schedule (Jha, 2010). Appendix 1 provides a list of these 23 scheduled languages and also provides details regarding the language family, the Indian states where they are spoken, and the number of mother-tongue speakers as provided in the 2011 Census of India. Additionally, in terms of language usage in media, about 104 languages are used for radio broadcasts, 87 for print media, and 13 for cinema (Mohanty, 2006; Annamalai, 2001 as cited in Vaish, 2008, p. 9). The wide variety of mother tongues and even scheduled languages has led to the emergence of bilingualism or multilingualism as a dominant characteristic of India. Mohan (2004) adds that within the rich multilingual tradition of India, "languages act as facilitators rather than barriers in communication" (p.131).

However, Mohanty (2006) points out that while India is a multilingual country shaped by the coexistence of many languages, nearly 80% of Indian languages are endangered. India tops the list of the countries in the *Atlas of the world's languages in danger* with 196 endangered languages (Mohanty, 2010). While many languages are maintained, many others are neglected and discriminated against: "In terms of their constitutional legal, political, economic, and educational status, Indian languages are hierarchical in the sense that some languages are privileged with access to power and resources while others are disadvantaged due to various forms of neglect" (Mohanty, 2006, p.262). At the top of this hierarchical pecking order sit two languages: Hindi and English. Hindi written in the Devanagari script is recognized as the official language of India under Article 343 of the Indian constitution while English is the constitutionally recognized associate official language (Mohanty, 2006; Hall, 2002). This linguistic hierarchy can be depicted in the form of a pyramid-type structure, shown in Figure 1.

Figure 1. Linguistic situation in India. From *The Handbook of Bilingualism and Multilingualism* (p. 847), by T. K. Bhatia and W. C. Ritchie, 2013, USA: Blackwell Publishing Ltd. Copyright 2013 by Blackwell Publishing Ltd.



Such a hierarchical linguistic situation leads to the marginalization and neglect of minority languages. Although maintenance norms related to bilingualism and multilingualism in India do lead to maintenance of minority languages, they do not guarantee equality in power, resources, and opportunities for speakers of all languages. This makes the process of mother tongue maintenance also a process of marginalized survival as majority of funds for education, information and broadcasting, etc. are targeted at speakers of the dominant languages and speakers of minority languages find themselves relegated to the periphery (Mohanty, 2006; Mohanty, 2010). The fact that the eighth schedule of the Indian constitution recognizes 23 languages formalizes the hierarchy in languages and the resulting linguistic inequality. This also translates into educational neglect wherein apart from the scheduled languages, very few languages are featured in the school curriculum (Mohanty, 2006). While the dominance of English is a colonial consequence, the one Indian language that enjoys maximum power in India is Hindi.

## Hindi

Hindi is the second most widely spoken language in the world in terms of the total number of speakers, claiming about 450 million first and second language speakers across the world and is viewed, along with English, as one of the two link-languages in India (Hall, 2002; Bhatia & Ritchie, 2013, Shapiro, 1989).

Linguistically, Hindi belongs to the Indo-Aryan language family which is a branch of the Indo-European language family. Much like its other Indo-Aryan relatives, Hindi is said to be historically

derived from Sanskrit which was one of the primary languages of classical Indian civilization (Shapiro, 1989). The relationship between the modern Indo-Aryan language and Sanskrit is similar to the relationship between the modern Romance languages such as French, Italian, Spanish, and Portuguese and Latin (Shapiro, 1989).

Hindi in its standardized form is referred to as *Khari Boli* literally meaning 'standing language' (Shapiro, 1989). However this standardized form does not have a long history of acceptance as the standardized version of Hindi and until a few centuries back was considered one of the many vernacular varieties of Hindi. Until the end of the nineteenth century the majority of literary works in Hindi, such as the works of Surdas and Tulsidas, were written in normalized forms of regional vernaculars such as Braj and Avadhi (Shapiro, 1989). Khari Boli was originally a dialect of Hindi spoken in the surroundings of Delhi, in western Uttar Pradesh and some parts of Uttarakhand and Himachal Pradesh which included places such as Delhi, Meerut, Rampur, Moradabad, Bijnor, Muzaffar Nagar, Saharanpur, and the plains of Dehra Dun (Mishra & Bali, 2011; Gopal, 1967). The primary reason behind Khari Boli's rise to prominence was that Khari Boli was the language spoken in Delhi – the capital of India for thousands of years (Gopal, 1967). Consequently, whenever a new dynasty or ruler took control of Delhi – whether they were the Afghans, Persians, or Turks – Khari Boli was adopted as the common language to communicate with the local population (Kachru & Comrie, 1987). These interactions between the foreign invading forces and the local population which took place in army camps and marketplaces shaped Khari Boli. As the geographical expanse of the kingdoms associated with Delhi expanded or shifted, Khari Boli moved to other places and came in contact with newer languages and regions (Gopal, 1967).

## Hindi and Geography

In India, Hindi is primarily spoken in what is called the Hindi Belt. The Hindi Belt comprises of geographically connected states located in North-central India which share "a common basic language system, a common inventory of castes, tribes, and religious communities, and a broadly common framework of historical traditions" (Gould, 1980, p. 602); the common basic language system referring to Hindi and its varieties (Jaffrelot, 2000). The Hindi Belt includes the following states: Bihar, Chhattisgarh, Delhi, Haryana, Himachal Pradesh, Jharkhand, Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh, and Uttarakhand (Hill, 2002; Bhatia & Ritchie, 2013). Gumperz (1958) proposes that language distribution in the Hindi-speaking areas of North India can be divided into three forms of speech: the village dialect, the regional dialect, and Standard Hindi. The village dialect is the variety of language spoken at a local level and there might be a variation in the dialect spoken between two villages. The regional dialect is prevalent in market centers or towns and reflects uniformity in speech over a larger area as the regional dialect excludes the divergent local features of the village dialects (Gumperz, 1958). Finally, Standard Hindi is spoken in larger cities and might not be native to a majority of the population except only to a few groups who are resident to those cities. However, this assertion about the lack of native speakers of Standard Hindi is countered by Gopal (1967) by pointing out that Standard Hindi is essentially Khari Boli which is native to western Uttar Pradesh where Khari Boli is spoken even in the villages. Additionally, Gumperz's work on the linguistic scenario in India spans the first two-three decades after the independence of India and so his research may not reflect the long-term impact of mediums such as language policies of north Indian states, education,

television, and the internet on the amount of speakers that might identify themselves as native speakers of Standard Hindi.

Hindi comprises of a plethora of regional dialects. According to the 2001 Census of India, there are a minimum of 50 dialects of Hindi that are spoken in India that have speaker populations ranging from 11,000 for Khairari to about 250 million for standard Hindi (Mishra & Bali, 2011). Although Hindi comprises of a vast variety of dialects, these dialects can be roughly divided into two categories - 'western groups' and 'eastern groups' (Mishra & Bali, 2011; Hall, 2002; Shapiro, 1989). The 'western groups' include the following dialects – Braj which is spoken in western Uttar Pradesh and the neighboring districts in the states of Haryana, Rajasthan, and Madhya Pradesh, Bundeli which is spoken by about three million speakers in south-western Uttar Pradesh and north-central Madhya Pradesh, Kannauji which is spoken by about six million speakers in west-central Uttar Pradesh, Bangru (sometimes also referred to as Haryanvi) is spoken by about eight million people in Haryana, Delhi, and some areas of Uttar Pradesh, Uttarakhand, and Himachal Pradesh, and Khari Boli which is spoken in western Uttar Pradesh, Delhi, and parts of Uttarakhand and Himachal Pradesh. The 'eastern groups' include Avadhi/ Awadhi which is spoken by about 2.5 million speakers in central and north-central Uttar Pradesh, Bagheli which is spoken by about 2.8 million speakers in north-central Madhya Pradesh and south-central Uttar Pradesh, and Chhattisgarhi which is spoken in Chhattisgarh. The geographical distribution of some of these dialects can be seen in the map (Mishra & Bali, 2011, p. 1391) provided in Figure 1. Additionally, there are other linguistic varieties which are considered as dialects of Hindi by some and as distinct languages by others. These include Rajasthani, Maithili, Magahi, and Bhojpuri (Hall, 2002; Shapiro, 1989; Mishra & Bali, 2011; Gumperz, 1958).

*Figure 2. The Eastern and Western Dialects of Hindi. Adapted from “A comparative phonological study of the dialects of Hindi,” by D. Mishra and K. Bali, 2011, Proceedings of International Congress of Phonetic Sciences XVII, p. 1391.*



Apart from the varieties of Hindi that are spoken in the geographically adjacent states of India, another aspect of geography is movement and migration of Hindi-speaking population to other parts of the world and India (Hall, 2002; Jayaram, 2004). This migration has led to the rise of varieties of Hindi that reflect an influence of the local languages spoken in the destination of these migrants (Jayaram, 2004). While there is large population of Hindi-speaking diaspora in different parts of the world (Jayaram, 2004; Eisenlohr, 2006), a number of varieties of Hindi have appeared as a result of local and migrant population interaction in regions within India.

Traditionally, religion and devotional literature has played an important role in bridging geographical distances and bringing various speech communities in contact with Hindi. Haridwar, the first town where the river Ganges or Ganga, as it is known in India, touches the plains is considered one of the holiest pilgrimage sites and has attracted many pilgrims for the past centuries. Haridwar falls in the region where Khari Boli is spoken thereby leading to a contact between Khari Boli and speakers of other dialects and languages (Gopal, 1967). Additionally, other important sites of pilgrimage associated with incarnations of Hindu Gods are also located in regions that speak one of the dialects of Hindi such as Avadhi and Braj Bhasha being spoken in areas associated with Rama and Krishna (Gopal, 1967). An interesting example of a variety of Hindi that attempted to overcome geographical barriers was a mixed speech called *sadhukari bhaashaa* (the language of the saints) that was spoken by travelling saints and ascetics and was used in their sermons, devotional music, and literature (Hall, 2002; Bhatia & Ritchie, 2013). This variety was free from any prescriptive norms.

Apart from religion, another reason why Hindi speakers moved and migrated to other parts of India was trade and business. Notable among the destination of these migrants were the urban centers that were the center of trade and business such as Mumbai, Kolkata, Hyderabad, and Chennai. Hall (2002) mentions local varieties of Hindi that have developed as pidgins or lingua franca. Some examples are *bombaiya hindi* as spoken in Mumbai (formerly known as Bombay), *bazaru hindi* as spoken in Kolkata (Hall, 2002), and *dakkini hindi* as spoken in Hyderabad. While migration to the aforementioned big cities happened since more than a century or two, a relatively recent phenomenon was the migration of Hindi-speakers to rural areas in Punjab. This migration was a consequence of the agricultural revolution referred to as the Green Revolution. The Green Revolution which was a popular name for the Intensive Agricultural District (Development) Program that started in the 1960s and led to an increase in agricultural output and the development of the agricultural sector through the use of High Yielding Variety seeds, fertilizers, pesticides, land consolidation, better irrigation and transport infrastructure, mechanization of agriculture, agricultural credit services, and increase in research (Singh, 2011; Chakravarti, 1973). As a result of the Green Revolution farmers in Punjab experienced economic prosperity and moved from rural to semi-rural or urban areas in India or in developed countries abroad (Sethi, Ghuman & Ukpere, 2010). This migration created gaps in farm labor at working class-level and led to an influx of Hindi-speaking rural farm labor to fill-in these gaps (Sethi, Ghuman & Ukpere, 2010; Bhatia & Ritchie, 2013). Although Hindi is spoken by a larger population in India, migration of Hindi-speaking population to a predominantly Punjabi-speaking region has reflected that class is an important factor in such situations. There has been substantial research that analyzes the trend and characteristics of migrant farm labor in Punjab and the hardship faced by them but there has been little research on the linguistic aspect of the issue. Reading between the lines of a few sources (Sethi, Ghuman & Ukpere, 2010; Dhaliwal, 2014) shows that many migrant laborers do not speak or understand Punjabi upon first arriving in Punjab but gradually learn to speak the language. Perhaps since the farm labor features at a socially lower rung than their Punjabi employers, the farm labor learns to speak Punjabi instead of their employers using Hindi.

Another aspect of geography and language is the use of Hindi by the Indian diaspora present in various countries across the world. Outside of India, Hindi is used as lingua-franca by South Asian immigrants across the world and is spoken in countries such as the USA, UK, Australia, South Africa, Fiji, Mauritius, Trinidad, Guyana, and South Africa along with others (Kachru & Comrie, 1987). Moreover, Hindi enjoys some form of official status in Fiji, Mauritius, and Guyana (Shapiro, 1989) – countries where Indians were taken as indentured labor under British colonialism (Saunders, 2018; Kale, 2010).

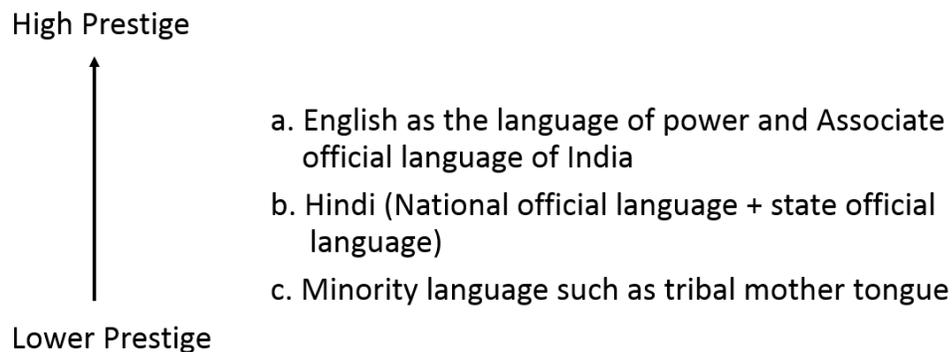
### **Hindi and Ethnicity**

The Indian subcontinent constitutes of a population of morphologically, genetically, culturally, and linguistically diverse inhabitants (Majumder, 1998). Culturally, the people of India are categorized as tribals, which make 8.08% of the population, and nontribals (Basu et al., 2003). There are up to 450 tribal communities in India. These communities speak up to 750 dialects belonging to either the Austro-Asiatic, Dravidian, or Tibeto-Burman language families. Research (Basu et al., 2003; Vaish, 2008) states that sociocultural and linguistic evidence shows that the tribals, specifically the Austro-Asiatic tribals, were the original inhabitants of the Indian subcontinent. These tribal communities are viewed as less-mobilized, disadvantaged groups that live in remote rural regions and practice animistic forms of religion (Vaish, 2008). A majority of the modern nontribal population belongs to Hindu religious groups and are stratified into a hierarchy of four primary caste classes: Brahmin (priests), Kshatriya (warriors and rulers), Vysya (business community), and Sudra (menial labourers) (Basu et al., 2003). Additionally, there is the existence of a variety of religious communities practicing various religions such as Islam, Christianity, Sikhism, Buddhism, Jainism, Judaism, and so on. The nontribal population primarily speaks languages that belong to either the Indo-Aryan or Dravidian families (Basu et al., 2003). The religious diversity is also reflected linguistically. Bhatia and Ritchie (2013) explain that linguistic choice behind greetings associated with basic social encounters can reflect the religious identity of the speaker, the listener, or both. For example, a Hindu speaker may use *namaste* or *namskaar* which is drawn from Sanskrit, a Muslim speaker may choose *salaam* which is drawn from Perso-Arabic, and a Sikh speaker may employ *sat sri akaal* which is drawn from Punjabi. Additionally, a Hindu speaker may use other variants such as *jai shree Krishna*, *raam-raam*, and *jai mata dii* to display regional (rural) or ethnic affiliation (Bhatia & Ritchie, 2013). Since the ethno-cultural identity of the population is largely congruent to their linguistic identity, ethnolinguistic identity is an important variable in the sociolinguistic landscape of India.

Of specific interest is the ethnolinguistic identity of tribes and nomadic groups that find their languages marginalized due to the fewer number of speakers in comparison to the population of speakers of Indo-Aryan languages, specifically Hindi. A key point in this situation is the language and education policy of the states with relatively significant tribal populations. Mohan (2004) explains that these tribal languages are pitted in an unequal battle against Hindi and English – both being superimposed languages. English, being the language of the developed world and being perceived as the language of the future, is viewed as a prestige marker. Hindi is viewed as the symbol of national integration and the language of wider communication (Mohan, 2004). In such a situation, English is considered most prestigious, followed by Hindi and the tribal mother tongue is placed at the bottom, as shown in Figure 3. Eventually, this perception of prestige affects the language choice of the speakers which leads to the gradual reallocation of mother tongue domains in favor of Hindi. Research (Mohan, 2004) has also revealed that the competence level of young speakers from tribal communities is gradually become higher in case of Hindi as compared to their mother tongue. Mohan (2004) explains

that tribal identity is viewed as comprising of markers such as (i) linguistic, (ii) religious, (iii) customs. So, the loss of one marker is not seen as the loss of the entire identity. Additionally, language choice in favor of high prestige languages reflect an aim to improve interpersonal relations, increase psychological and material rewards and to reduce the costs (Mohan, 2004). However, an analysis of the acceptability of various registers of Hindi within some tribal groups showed that instead of the standard variety, the vernacular or colloquial variety of Hindi had greater acceptability (Mohan, 2004).

*Figure 3. Status of prestige affecting language choice. Adapted from Tribal identity and acceptance of Hindi: a sociolinguistic study of tribals in Jharkhand (p. 128), by S. Mohan, 2004, New Delhi: Jawaharlal Nehru University.*



The 1981 census reported that the total population of scheduled tribes in India was 51,628,638 which comprised of 613 different tribal communities who made use of 304 tribal mother tongues (mother tongues that were not claimed by nontribal speakers) (Sridhar, 1996). These 304 tribal mother tongues could be categorized into 101 distinctly identifiable languages (Sridhar, 1996). A majority of the tribal communities are linguistically heterogeneous in terms of their mother tongue for example the largest tribal population is found in the central Indian state of Madhya Pradesh (present day Madhya Pradesh and Chhattisgarh) which constitutes 22% of India's total tribal population and comprises of 58 tribes that have 93 mother tongues that can be classified into 38 languages (Sridhar, 1996). Additionally, in case of Assam, which constitutes 7% of the national tribal population, there are 22 tribes that speak 60 mother tongues that can be categorized as 40 languages.

Another important influence on the speech habits of tribes is the dominant languages which the tribal communities come in contact with as the geographical boundary of the area inhabited by a tribal community might be surrounded by more than one area or a tribal community might be living in a geographically non-contiguous area falling under the influence of different dominant languages. This is exemplified by the situation of the Santhals which have a population of about 3 million. Out of the total population, 30% come in contact with Bengali in West Bengal, about 13% come in contact with Oriya in Odisha, and about 49% come in contact with Hindi in Bihar (Sridhar, 1996). Additionally, Santhals also inhabit Assam. In each of these states, the majority community attempts to impose their own dominant language over the region resulting in an attempt at detribalization founded on the expectation that the Santhals are to give up their tribal traits including their language (Sridhar, 1996). Fearing that they will lose their tribal identity and cultural values, Santhal tribal leaders initiated a movement to preserve tribal education. This movement was called the Adivasi (aboriginal) movement.

The goal of the movement was to safeguard the survival of the tribe from assimilation and absorption through the creation of new linguistic and cultural markers. The demands of the group included those for a separate tribal province, political representation, and the institution of Santhali and other tribal languages as media of instruction in schools (Sridhar, 1996). In December 2003, the Constitutional (100<sup>th</sup> Amendment) Bill 2003 was passed by the Parliament of India giving Santhali the official status of a constitutional scheduled language (Mohanty, 2006).

A similar movement took place in case of the Bodo tribals of Assam. The movement originated in a demand for Bodo-medium schools for Bodo children who were forced to attend Assamese-medium schools. The Bodo movement was essentially an assertion of the language rights of the Bodo tribals and spanned over a period of four decades (Mohanty, 2006). The movement witnessed prolonged agitation, armed conflict, and political negotiation for the assertion of the linguistic, educational, and political rights of the Bodo people and culminated with Bodo being granted the status of a constitutionally scheduled language through the same constitutional amendment bill which granted Santhali the official status (Mohanty, 2006).

### **Hindi and Social Class**

When analyzing social class in case of India, Rubdy (as cited in Chand, 2011, p. 15) explains that there are two cultures in India: the first is predominantly rural and reflects strong Hindu beliefs; the second comprises of the urban elite culture which includes professionals who display a more cosmopolitan, modern, and secular perspective. These two groups are socially, economically, and culturally distant and inhabit detached social spaces with dissimilar lifestyles and world views. The defining characteristic of the Indian upper class is not a specific kind of power but is the possession of the following three qualities: their social distance from the subaltern classes, their consistent economic prosperity, and access to liberal, English education (Chand, 2011). Having being educated in English, the elites command English effortlessly and this proficiency becomes the linguistic and social border that separates them from the other social classes. However, regarding Hindi, the liberal elites display significant linguistic insecurity about the quality of their Hindi. Additionally, their Hindi is viewed as imperfect or 'broken' by non-urban Hindi speakers (Chand, 2011). Another common characteristic of this elite class is their failure in successfully negotiating advanced written Hindi. The educational background of the elite class is usually expensive English-medium schools with strict English-only rules and a mentality of devaluing Hindi wherein study of Hindi becomes optional in secondary school while study of English is continued throughout the schooling. Additionally, Indian elites are reported to associate Hindi with radical Hindu ideologies and divisive politics and do not view Hindi as a national language or a national lingua franca (Chand, 2011).

As the upper social classes display greater familiarity with English, their Hindi speech is characterized by extensive code-switching, especially when dealing with complex academic or abstract scientific topic (Verma, 1974). Such behavior of English-using bilinguals is termed as registrational bilingualism (Verma, 1974). Code-switching is not a random occurrence but is a verbal strategy where the speakers are making conscious choices to switch between languages based on concepts of appropriateness and effectiveness. Often, code-switching to English is also a class marker and is employed to place the speakers in the educated upper class. So, while Hindi terms express intimacy and personal connection, English terms reflect education and social status (Verma, 1974). The primary variables that control code switching in the Indian upper classes are level of education and topic of

discourse. “The higher the level of education and the more technical the topic of discourse, the greater the degree of mixture and frequency of switching” (Verma, 1974, p. 158). Appropriateness can also include viewing purely Sanskritic items as sounding too formal for informal conversations and hence resorting to codeswitching. This mixed style of communicating has become the symbol of group identity for the Indian upper class (Verma, 1974).

Interestingly, the prevalence of codeswitching has caused changes to the formal grammar of Hindi. This can be observed in three aspects: change in the meaning of causative verbs, introduction of new semantic dimensions to some expressions, and echo-word formation (Bhatia & Ritchie, 2013). The case of causative verbs is described by Bhatia & Ritchie (2013) as follows:

The addition of the suffixes *-aa-* and *-waa-*, leads to the formation of the first and second causative verbs in: *paR* ‘to study/read’, *paRaa* ‘to teach’ and *paRwaa* ‘cause x to cause y to study/read’. We claim that mixing with English has resulted in the introduction of a new class of transitive/causative verbs of a mixed type, i.e. *study karnaa* ‘to research (on a topic); lit. *study + karnaa* ‘to do study’, *teach karnaa* ‘to teach’, *study karwaanaa* ‘to guide research’, *teach karwaanaa* ‘to guide teaching’. The verb *study karnaa* ‘to research’ is not just a paraphrase or translational equivalent of Hindi *paR* ‘to study/read’; the English-based verb expresses the meaning ‘to study a topic from the viewpoint of research’ and the causative counterparts, i.e. *study karwaanaa* ‘to guide research’, *teach karwaanaa* ‘to guide teaching’ highlight the ‘facilitative’ (i.e. help the cause to do a particular act) while the Hindi causative marks ‘compulsive’ meanings. (p.861)

In terms of semantic restructuring, prior to borrowing vocabulary from English, Hindi contained two conjunct verb expressions conveying the meaning ‘to travel’: *yatraa karna* (Sanskrit-based) and *safar karna* (Persian-based). The former conveys the meaning of a leisurely trip with religious connotations whereas the latter denotes ordinary travel. However, the English-based *tour karnaa* expresses the concept of a business trip which is contrary to the original English meaning of the verb *tour*. Hence, a new semantic dimension is expressed by code-switching (Bhatia & Ritchie, 2013).

Echo-word formation is a linguistic feature that is found, especially in Hindi, at a pan-India level. In Indian English, echo-word formation is observed frequently such as the word *fit* being rendered as *fit-vit* ‘fit, etc.’ (Bhatia & Ritchie, 2013) and the word *English* being rendered as *English-Vinglish*, the title of a 2012 Indian film.

## Hindi and Gender

Regarding the manifestation of gender in Hindi, the most noticeable manifestation occurs in the following forms: grammar and syntax, pragmatics of address, pronoun choice, greetings, and kinship terminology, generic masculines, gender reversal in terms of endearment and respect, and taboo words (Hall, 2002). At the level of syntax, adjectives, verbs, nouns, and postpositions in Hindi are marked for feminine and masculine gender. Verbs are gender-marked in all three persons (Hall, 2002). For example:

I am eating a mango (first person masculine). I am eating a mango (first person feminine).

*Main aam kha raha hoon. Main aam kha rahi hoon.*

You are eating a mango (second person masculine). You are eating a mango (second person feminine).

*Tum aam kha rahe ho. Tum aam kha rahi ho.*

He is eating a mango (Third person masculine). She is eating a mango (Third person masculine).

*Woh aam kha raha hai. Woh aam kha rahi hai.*

The change between feminine and masculine reference in standard Hindi is easily identified as many nouns, verbs, postpositions, and adjectival modifiers manifest gender. In case of animate objects, the grammatical gender usually corresponds to the “natural gender”. However, grammatical gender is largely arbitrary in case of inanimate nouns. For most nouns in Hindi, the *-a* ending symbolizes masculine singular, the *-e* ending denotes masculine plural, the *-i* ending represents feminine singular, and the *-iyan* symbolizes feminine plural (Hall, 2002).

This two-way gender system based on masculine and feminine is observed in all dialects of Hindi, except the pidgin or lingua-franca varieties (Hall, 2002). However, there are variations in the systematization of gender in different dialects. For example, grammatical gender of inanimate objects might differ from one dialect to another. Interestingly, the employment or non-employment of gender agreement as used in the standard variety of Hindi can sometimes function as a marker of register providing details about the speaker’s gender, education level, linguistic proficiency, and insider-outsider status (Hall, 2002). For example, speakers who employ non-standard gender agreement can be viewed as *dehati* (a rural illiterate, a villager) in the urban areas or regions speaking *Khari Boli* whereas speakers employing the standard gender agreement in areas where non-standard gender agreement is prevalent can be viewed as either foreign or over-educated. (Hall, 2002).

With regard to pragmatics and gender in Hindi, Valentine (1986) and Hall (2002) highlight some key characteristics. Firstly, address terminology is noteworthy. As Hindi has three second-person pronouns which are used depending on the social positions of the interlocutors as determined by their gender, age, marital status, and class (Hall, 2002). Within a married couple, it is often observed that while the wife may use the honorific second person pronoun for the husband, the husband usually employs the less respectful/ more intimate second person pronoun for the wife. The second highlight regarding pragmatics of gender in Hindi is that male speakers initiate more conversational topics and female speakers do conversation maintenance. While a male speakers use questions and statements as inquiries and requests for information to initiate a conversation, female speakers on the other hand make use of conversation maintenance devices even for initiating conversation (Valentine, 1986). However, instead of viewing this as conversational control by male speakers, Valentine (1986) views this as two types of power used by two speakers for attaining cross-sex conversation. Thirdly, while female speakers use questions and statement for conversation maintenance for sustaining and continuing the conversation, male speakers use questions as requests for information and statements as conversation initiating tools. Fourthly, the discourse topic is developed and shifted gradually and smoothly without any sudden change in the topic in the speech of female speakers whereas male speakers define the topic narrowly and change topics suddenly and abruptly (Valentine, 1986).

The third area where gender is manifested in Hindi is in terms of generic masculines. There are a few lexical items which are essentially masculine nouns but are used generically for both male and female referents (Hall, 2002). These include *dost* ‘friend (male or female)’, *mitra* ‘friend, ally (male or female)’, *sathi* ‘companion (male or female)’, *yatri* ‘traveler (male or female)’. While feminine

counterparts for these masculine nouns do exist, such as *saheli* ‘female friend’, *sakhi* ‘female friend/companion’, their usage is limited to specific reference to a feminine referent. Unlike the masculine nouns, these feminine nouns are not used for generic purposes (Hall, 2002). This phenomenon also takes place at a sentence level such as the sentence *koi aya hai* which means ‘someone (male/female) has come’ displays masculine verb agreement with *koi* ‘someone’ but can refer to both a male and a female person. However, the sentence *koi ayi hai* which means ‘someone (female) is here’ will always refer to a female subject. Although generic feminines such as *savari* ‘passenger’ do exist, they are comparatively rare (Hall, 2002).

The fourth aspect is gender reversal for terms of endearment and insult. Apart from the generic masculines, use of gender in Hindi usually agrees with the referent’s gender. However, terms of endearment and insult are a notable exception. One example of such a term of endearment is the use of the masculine term *beta* ‘son’ in place of the feminine term *beti* ‘daughter’ when addressing a young woman or daughter. In such a situation the term *beta* (when addressed to a female) takes the meaning of ‘dear’. Hall (2002) argues that this might be due to the traditional value attached to sons in the Indian culture. This phenomenon can also be observed in terms of respect wherein the honorific masculine term *sahab* ‘sir’ is used to refer to women with a sense of deference (Hall, 2002). Examples of this are *memsahab* ‘madam/lady’, *profesar sahab* ‘professor’, *daktar sahab* ‘doctor’, *waqil sahab* ‘advocate’. The use of these forms of masculine address with reference to a woman are considered to be highly respectful (Hall, 2002). The opposite scenario wherein a feminine noun or form of address is used for a man is largely absent and terms that implicitly imply effeminacy are used as terms of insult by questioning the recipient’s masculinity.

Lastly, concerning taboo words and gender, a South Asian linguistic taboo is regarding naming avoidance. A woman from a traditional Hindu household is required to show respect and deference to her husband by not uttering his name. The same taboo applies to the names of her husband’s father, husband’s brothers, as well as any other male family members (Valentine, 2008). The extent of naming avoidance includes avoiding utterance of any words that may have any sound association with the name of a male family member. Valentine (2008) describes, “a wife avoids the Hindi word *dhaniyaa* “coriander” or any word phonetically similar to it because her husband’s elder brother is named *dhanii raam*. Instead of *dhaniya* the wife substitutes the common phrase *harii botal waalaa masaalaa* (“the spice in the green glass bottle”) to erase any sound association between the brother’s name *dhanii raam* and the spice *dhaniyaa*” (p. 433). The cultural norm behind naming avoidance is that uttering the husband’s name would reduce his life span. In order to adhere to the linguistic taboo, women employ circumlocution and address their husband through evocative and interjection such as *are* or *suno ji* (please listen) (Valentine, 2008).

## Conclusion

India is considered one of the ‘sociolinguistic giants’ of the world (Pandit as cited in Srivastava, 1990, p. 38) and this sociolinguistic variety is reflected not only in the number of languages spoken in the country and the socio-political relationships between these languages but also in terms of the manifestation of sociolinguistic variables within the use of a particular language. The most widely spoken of the Indian languages is Hindi and it displays complex manifestations of the sociolinguistic variables of geography, ethnicity, social class, and gender.

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Appendix 1  
*Scheduled languages of India*

Name	Language family	State/spoken in	Number of mother tongue speakers
1. Assamese	Indo-Aryan	Assam	13,168,484
2. Bengali	Indo-Aryan	Bengal	83,369,769
3. Bodo	Tibeto-Burman	Assam	1,350,478
4. Dogri	Indo-Aryan	North-western area	2,282,589
5. Gujarati	Indo-Aryan	Gujarat	46,091,617
6. Hindi	Indo-Aryan	<i>Hindi belt</i> : Bihar, Chhattisgarh, Rajasthan, Haryana, Delhi, Himachal Pradesh, Jharkhand, Madhya Pradesh, Uttar Pradesh, and Uttarakhand	422,048,642
7. Kannada	Dravidian	Karnataka	37,924,011
8. Kashmiri	Indo-Aryan	Jammu and Kashmir	5,527,698
9. Konkani	Indo-Aryan	Goa	2,489,015
10. Maithili	Indo-Aryan	Bihar	71,936,894
11. Malayalam	Dravidian	Kerala	33,066,392
12. Manipuri	Tibeto-Burman	Manipur	1,466,705
13. Marathi	Indo-Aryan	Maharashtra	71,936,89
14. Nepali	Indo-Aryan	Himalayan region (India)	2,871,749
15. Oriya	Indo-Aryan	Orissa	33,017,446
16. Punjabi	Indo-Aryan	Punjab (India)	29,102,477
17. Sanskrit	Indo-Aryan	No state	14,135
18. Santhali	Munda	Chhota Nagpur, Chhattisgarh, Jharkhand, Orissa	6,469,600
19. Sindhi	Indo-Aryan	Metro areas of western India	2,535,485
20. Tamil	Dravidian	Tamil Nadu	60,793,814
21. Telugu	Dravidian	Andhra Pradesh	74,002,856
22. Urdu	Indo-Aryan	Jammu and Kashmir/ India (India)	51,536,111
23. English	Indo-European	Associate official language	226,449

*Note:* From *The Handbook of Bilingualism and Multilingualism* (p. 847), by T. K. Bhatia and W. C. Ritchie, 2013, USA: Blackwell Publishing Ltd. Copyright 2013 by Blackwell Publishing Ltd.