**INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF LANGUAGE STUDIES**

ISSN: 2157-4898 (Print)  
eISSN: 2157-4901 (Online)

© 2016 - Mohammad Ali Salmani Nodoushan

*All rights reserved. No part of this journal may be reproduced in any form, by Photostat, microfilm, xerography, or any other means, or incorporated into any information retrieval system, electronic or mechanical, without permission in writing from the copyright owner.*

**DESCRIPTION**

*International Journal of Language Studies* is devoted to all areas of language and linguistics. Its aim is to present work of current interest in all areas of language study. No particular linguistic theories or scientific trends are favored: scientific quality and scholarly standing are the only criteria applied in the selection of papers accepted for publication. *IJLS* publishes papers of any length, if justified, as well as review articles surveying developments in the various fields of language study (including Language Teaching, Language Testing, TESOL, ESP, Pragmatics, Sociolinguistics, (Critical) Discourse Analysis, Curriculum Development, Politeness Research, Classroom Research, Language Policy, and so on). Also, a considerable number of pages in each issue are devoted to critical book reviews. *IJLS* commenced publication 2006 for people involved in language and linguistic studies.

*International Journal of Language Studies* is available from:  
EBSCO Publishing, Inc.  
10 Estes Street, Ipswich, Massachusetts, 01938-0682, USA  
Web: www.ebscohost.com  
E-mail: information@ebscohost.com  
Phone: +1-978-356-6500  
Fax: +1-978-356-6565

Printed in the United States of America by  
Lulu Press Inc., 3101 Hillsborough Street, Raleigh, NC 27607, USA  
Online Bookstore: http://www.lulu.com/spotlight/ijols  
Web: http://www.ijls.net/
Editor in Chief

- Salmani Nodoushan, Mohammad Ali, IECF, Iran

Associate Editors

- Catalano, Theresa, University of Nebraska–Lincoln, USA
- Dubinsky, Stanley, University of South Carolina, USA
- García Laborda, Jesús, Universidad de Alcalá, Spain
- Moore, Nicolas, Sheffield Hallam University, UK

Advisory Board

- Allan, Keith, Monash University, Australia
- Bailey, Kathleen M., Monterey Institute of International Studies, USA
- Bhatia, Vijay Kumar, City University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong
- Boxer, Diana, University of Florida, USA
- Brown, James Dean, University of Hawai‘i at Manoa, USA
- Connor, Ulla M., Indiana University-Purdue University, USA
- Cummings, Louise, Nottingham Trent University, UK
- Flowerdew, John, City University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong
- Gess, Randall, Carleton University, Canada
- Hyland, Ken, The University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong
- Jaszczolt, Katarzyna M., University of Cambridge, UK
- Lantolf, James P., Penn State University, USA
- MacSwan, Jeff, University of Maryland, USA
- Oller, Jr., John W., University of Louisiana at Lafayette, USA
- Purpura, James E., Columbia University, USA
- Zuckermann, Ghil’ad, University of Adelaide, Australia

Editorial Panel

- Allen, Shanley E. M., University of Kaiserslautern, Germany
- Angelovska, Tanja, Ludwig Maximilians University, Germany
- Barbieri, Federica, Swansea University, UK
- Berns, Margie, Purdue University, USA
- Carrió-Pastor, María Luisa, Universitat Politècnica de València, Spain
- Carson, Lorna, Trinity College Dublin, Ireland
- Chacón-Beltrán, Manuel Rubén, UNED, Spain
- Dewaele, Jean-Marc, University of London, UK
- Di Martino, Emilia, Università degli Studi Suor Orsola Benincasa, Italy
- Ditvall, Coralía, Lund University, Sweden
- Félix-Brasdefer, J. César, Indiana University Bloomington, USA
• Fernández Álvarez, Miguel, Chicago State University, USA
• Fuchs, Carolin, Columbia University, USA
• García-Álvarez, Iván, University of Salford, UK
• Gutiérrez-Rexach, Javier, Ohio State University, USA
• Harsch, Claudia, The University of Warwick, UK
• Herteg, Crina, 1 Decembrie 1918 University of Alba Iulia, Romania
• Huey Sonnenschein, Aaron, California State University, USA
• Ilie, Cornelia, Malmö University, Sweden
• Kelly Hall, Joan, Penn State University, USA
• Kessler, Greg, Ohio University, USA
• Kinginger, Celeste, Pennsylvania State University, USA
• Kitis, Eliza, Aristotle University, Thessaloniki, Greece
• Klee, Carol A., University of Minnesota, USA
• Miechowicz-Mathiasen, Katarzyna, Adam Mickiewicz University, Poland
• Mullany, Louise, University of Nottingham, UK
• O'Dowd, M. Elizabeth, Saint Michael's College, USA
• Parker, Stephen G., Graduate Institute of Applied Linguistics, Dallas, USA
• Pioariu, Mariana-Rodica, University of Alba Iulia, Romania
• Popescu, Teodora, Alba Iulia University, Romania
• Sifianou, Maria, University of Athens, Greece
• Sokolik, Maggie, University of California, Berkeley, USA
• Sousa, Alcina, University of Madeira, Portugal
• Vinogradova, Polina, American University, USA
• Wheeler, Rebecca, Christopher Newport University, USA
• Woore, Robert, University of Oxford, UK
Editorial Policy

*International Journal of Language Studies* is seeking submissions of previously unpublished manuscripts on any topic related to the area of language study. Articles should be written so that they are accessible to a broad audience, including those individuals who may not be familiar with the particular subject matter addressed in the article. Articles should report on original research or present original content that links to previous research, theory, and/or teaching practices. Contributors should note that articles containing only descriptions of software, classroom procedures, or those presenting results of attitude surveys without discussing data on actual language learning outcomes will not be considered. Full-length articles should be no more than 10,000 words in length, including references and appendices, and should include an abstract of no more than 150 words. Decision as to whether longer (i.e., up to a maximum of 25,000 words) papers will be accepted or not depends on *IJLS* reviewers’ comments as well as the quality of the manuscript itself.

Submission of an article implies that the work described has not been published previously (except in the form of an abstract or as part of a published lecture or academic thesis), that it is not under consideration for publication elsewhere, that its publication is approved by all authors and tacitly or explicitly by the responsible authorities where the work was carried out, and that it will not be published elsewhere in the same form, in English or in any other language, without the written consent of *International Journal of Language Studies*. Authors should acknowledge these points in a cover letter that accompanies their manuscript.

Receipt of manuscripts will be acknowledged, but they cannot be returned; therefore, authors should retain a copy of the paper exactly as it was submitted. Since page proofs cannot be sent to authors for last minute corrections, authors must proofread manuscripts carefully, giving special attention to the accuracy of quotations and references. Acceptance of an article means that authors have transferred copyright to *IJLS*. Authors are encouraged to download the copyright transfer form from the journal site, complete it, and sign and send it to *IJLS* via surface mail or through a fax machine. This transfer will ensure the widest possible dissemination of information. If excerpts from other copyrighted works are included, the author(s) must obtain written permission from the copyright owners and credit the source(s) in the article.

All article manuscripts submitted to *International Journal of Language Studies (IJLS)* go through a two-step review process.
Step 1: Internal Review

The editor(s) of the journal first review each manuscript to see if it meets the basic requirements for articles published in the journal (i.e., that it reports on original research or presents original content that links to previous research, theory, and/or teaching practices), and that it is of sufficient quality to merit external review. Manuscripts which do not meet these requirements are not sent out for further review, and authors of these manuscripts are encouraged to submit their work elsewhere. This internal review may take up to about 6 weeks. Following the internal review, authors are notified by e-mail as to whether their manuscript has been sent out for external review or, if not, why not. Authors can get their papers sent out for external review by making sure that:

- the copyright transfer form is completed, signed, and sent to *IJLS*;
- a cover letter accompanies the manuscript;
- they have cited papers from earlier issues of *IJLS* in their works;
- first person usage has been avoided for more clarity in the paper;
- no or very little formatting is used;
- the manuscript is strictly blind;
- the manuscript follows APA Editorial Style;
- the manuscript title is concise (preferably fewer than 10 words) and adequately descriptive of the content of the article;
- the manuscript is accompanied by an abstract of about 100-150 words;
- the abstract is written so as to provide the substance of the full paper;
- the manuscript is in native or acceptable native-like English;
- a set of 5 to 8 keywords separated by semicolon follows the abstract;
- paragraphs are not indented and no tabs are used;
- typeface is Cambria, Times New Roman, Georgia or Courier New;
- Arial typeface has NOT been used in any part of the manuscript;
- if their work contains phonetic/African/complex non-English symbols, they have embedded all fonts in their DOC file and have also sent a PDF version of the manuscript;
- no manual hyphenation is used (i.e., Space bar on the keyboard should not be used for indenting text);
- quotations longer than 40 words appear as separate blocks without quotation marks;
- all citations are referenced and all references are cited;
- no headers and/or footers are used whatsoever;
- no pagination is used;
- tables and figures appear in the correct position, are numbered consecutively, and are captioned according to APA Editorial Style;
• graphics in the manuscript are only in black-and-white or patterned format;
• gray shading is not used in diagrams and tables;
• the manuscript is only saved in Microsoft Word 2003 DOC format; and
• a separate file including author data (e.g., full name, affiliation, country, email, short biography) and acknowledgments is also submitted.

**Step 2: External Review**
Submissions which meet the basic requirements are then sent out for blind peer review from 3-4 experts in the field, either from the journal’s editorial board or from our larger list of reviewers. This second review process takes 4-6 months. Following the external review, the authors are sent copies of the external reviewers’ comments and are notified as to the decision (accept as is, accept pending changes, revise and resubmit, or reject). Our reviewers make decisions based on a set of considerations; if authors know about their standards, they can take a strong step in getting their work published in *IJLS*. We, therefore, suggest that before submitting their work to *IJLS*, authors should make sure that:

• the paper is easy to read and free from grammatical or spelling errors;
• the paper is based on rigorous academic standards;
• the paper is presented in a format which is accessible by *IJLS* audience;
• the paper focuses on justification, results and implementation, and has readable content cast in APA Editorial Style;
• technical material (e.g., guide to phonetic symbols, questionnaires, etc.) is appendixed;
• the paper has clarity of presentation, is well organised and clearly written.
• the paper makes a significant contribution to the body of knowledge related to *IJLS*;
• the topic is highly significant, breaks new ground, and provides a foundation for future research;
• the topic of the paper is relevant, timely, and of interest to the audience of *IJLS*;
• the rationale for the paper is well grounded; it is based on a known theory or on an interesting issue;
• The research methodology for the study is appropriate and applied properly;
• the material of the paper is technically accurate and sound;
• if this paper is a survey, it provides strong evidence of reliability and validity of the constructs;
• discussion of the results is based on analysis of data;
• results are not overstated or overgeneralized; and
• implications and recommendations are relevant and useful.
How to Submit Manuscripts
Contributors should submit their contributions in electronic form, as email attachment or on a computer disk. A short biographical note of the author/s is required as well as a complete address (in a separate file). Contributions should be sent to the editor in chief at: ijls.editors@yahoo.com. The electronic manuscript should be strictly anonymous; authors should not identify themselves in the electronic manuscript itself, or in the filename used for the manuscript.

Legal Notice
According to the guidelines available from the official website of International Journal of Language Studies, submission of a paper to IJLS means that the author(s) are automatically transferring the copyright for their work to the editor-in-chief no matter whether the submission is accompanied by the completed and autographed copyright form or not. Submission of a paper to International Journal of Language Studies also means that (a) the author has not made double or parallel submissions elsewhere, and (b) the paper has not been previously published, presented, or disseminated elsewhere.

Disclaimer
Articles published in IJLS do not represent the views held by the editor and members of the editorial board. Authors are responsible for all aspects of their articles except editorial formatting.

Mohammad Ali Salmani Nodoushan
Editor
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pages</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Author(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1-14</td>
<td>Professional reflection: Forty years in applied linguistics</td>
<td>James Dean Brown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15-30</td>
<td>Factors affecting multiple-choice cloze test score variance: A</td>
<td>Takaaki Kumazawa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>perspective from generalizability theory</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-48</td>
<td>Modern Standard Arabic in Algeria: Problems and challenges</td>
<td>Fatima Nor El-Houda Dahou</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49-70</td>
<td>Two approaches to the teaching of grammar and their implications</td>
<td>Tamilla Mammadova</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>71-90</td>
<td>Using learner corpora in language teaching</td>
<td>Tsoghik Grigoryan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>91-110</td>
<td>Linguicism and nationalism: A post-colonial gaze on the promotion of</td>
<td>Nene Ernest Khalema</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Afrikaans as a national language in apartheid South Africa</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>111-124</td>
<td>Improving English conversation skills through online conversation</td>
<td>Hayas Saniboo &amp; Kemtong Sinwongsuwat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>lessons and classroom interactions with English speakers</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>125-148</td>
<td>La bindi nga que tu know-la nyass jusqu'a le feu sort seulement:</td>
<td>Lozzi Martial Meutem Kamtchueng</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Examining strategies of intensification in Camfranglais</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>assessing locally defined EIL. New York: Routledge.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Indexing/Abstracting Information

*International Journal of Language Studies* is covered by the following indexing/abstracting systems:

- ISC Master Journals List (ISC)
- Regional Information Center for Science and Technology (RICeST)
- Educational Research Abstracts (ERA)
- Linguistic Bibliography (LB)
- Cabell’s Directories of Publishing Opportunities
- EBSCO Communication & Mass Media Complete (CMMC Database)
- Linguistics and Language Behavior Abstracts (ProQuest LLBA)
- Linguistics Abstracts Online (Wiley-Blackwell LAO)
- The MLA Directory of Periodicals
- The MLA International Bibliography
- Index Copernicus Journals Master List (IC)
- Citefactor Indexing

Cataloging Information

*International Journal of Language Studies* covered by the following catalogues:

- The MLA International Bibliography
- The MLA Directory of Periodicals
- The Catalog of Landman Library (SPARC)
- Google Scholar
- The Linguist List
- WorldCat
- Genamics Journal Seek Database
- Fremdsprachenwissenschaftliche Fachzeitschriften im Internet
- Open J-Gate
- Informindia
- Interlibrary Exchange Information

Interlibrary Exchange Information

For information on academic journal interlibrary exchange, please see the following page: [http://www.ijls.net/abstracting.html](http://www.ijls.net/abstracting.html)
A professional reflection: Forty years in applied linguistics

James Dean Brown, University of Hawai'i at Mānoa, USA

I begin this professional reflection on my forty years in applied linguistics with a bit of background information to help put my professional development into perspective. I then write, more or less chronologically, about my experiences with language testing research, quantitative research methods, curriculum and program evaluation, shifting interests in research methods, and expanding research topics. I end by reflecting on three lessons that I have learned over the years: first, people have played a very important role at all stages of my career (i.e., nobody succeeds without help); second, we all tend to stereotype and pigeonhole each other professionally, but it would be wiser to recognize that people in our field are multidimensional and likely to continue learning and changing throughout their careers; and third, the field of applied linguistics is constantly shifting, changing, and growing. Most importantly, I have enjoyed every minute of my ride through applied linguistics. Isn't that the point?

Keywords: Language Testing; Applied Linguistics; JD Brown; Professional Reflection

1. Introduction

Because nobody is a professional applied linguist without first being a person, I will begin with a couple of paragraphs describing who I am as a person in order to put the rest of this paper into context. When I was born, I was very young. That happened in Harrisburg, Pennsylvania in 1946, where my Pennsylvania Dutch identity formed very early. From the age of two, I was trained as a musician in woodwinds and piano, but at seven I rebelled and switched to the French horn, which stuck throughout my youth. I attended the Oberlin Conservatory of Music as a French horn major on full scholarship, and two years later I was dismissed for academic reasons with a D+ average. It seems I didn't have the study skills to pass English Composition, Psychology, US History, and such. For obvious reasons, I found myself in the US Army from 1966-1969 and served in the 82nd Airborne Division and Berlin Brigade. After the military, I bounced around Europe for a year (running a restaurant in Spain for about five months of that) and then went back to school in 1971 on the GI bill at Pasadena Community College (PCC) on probationary status. I was
so afraid of failing again, that I got nearly straight A’s as a music major. Two semesters later, I parlayed that success into another probationary admission to California State University at Los Angeles (CSULA), where I discovered that, thanks to weapons training in the army, I had serious hearing loss, so I changed my major from French Horn to (what else?) French. That change altered the entire trajectory of my life. I soon found myself doing geography research in Mexico for a summer and then finishing my CSULA French BA at l’Université d’Aix-Marseille for a year, while serving as an assistant English teacher at a local lycée.

After doing an additional BA in English literature (don’t ask) at the University of California at Santa Barbara, I did a TESL Certificate, an MA in TESL, and a PhD in Applied Linguistics at UCLA. During the entire four years I was at UCLA, I also taught ESL 20 hours per week at Marymount Palos Verdes College. At UCLA, my three most important role models were Russell Campbell (who taught me what a relaxed professor looks like in the classroom), W. James Popham (who taught me the importance of a light writing style and about criterion-reference testing), and Richard Shavelson (who taught me testing and research statistics and how to teach statistics clearly and simply).

From 1980-1982, I was senior scholar in the UCLA China Exchange Program at Zhongshan University in Guangzhou, PRC, where I did a great deal of very real-world curriculum and test development work. From 1982-1985, I worked at Florida State University (FSU), where I served as an adjunct assistant professor on campus and as the academic coordinator for an FSU overseas MA degree program, which was delivered in Dahran, Saudi Arabia. I spent much of my time at FSU flying back and forth to Saudi Arabia.

At the 1984 TESOL Conference, a colleague from Hawai‘i (Mike Long) asked me if I was interested in a language testing job at the University of Hawai‘i at Mānoa (UHM). My response was an instant yes! So I applied and was eventually hired by the Department of ESL (the name changed to Second Language Studies, or SLS, in 1999), where I have been for the last 30 years. Because I like to write and publish (and because I judiciously avoid conflict with colleagues), I steadily progressed every five years from assistant to associate to full professor. In the process, I served as Director of the English Language Institute (ELI), SLS Department Graduate Chair, SLS Department Chair, and Director of the National Foreign Languages Resource Center.

In my spare time, I have done a fair amount of research and writing in the areas of language testing, research methods, curriculum and program evaluation, and a number of other areas. It is developments in this work that I will consider for the rest of this paper.
2. Language testing research

One day in class in my first semester at UCLA, Russ Campbell was talking about things we could do professionally in TESL. He talked about the nobility of teaching ESL, the possibility of making lots of money developing materials, the fact that people with training often ended up becoming administrators directing ESL programs, and at the very end of the discussion, he mentioned in passing that there was one other thing that most language teachers didn’t like to do because it involved lots of math. At that point, my ears pricked up and I paid special attention. As a French horn player (whose dad played the bassoon and brother played the oboe), I was well aware of the fact that people who played odd and difficult instruments that nobody else wanted to play, would always have a seat in the orchestra, especially if they were good at it. What was Russ talking about? He said that every program needed one person who was interested in language testing. The next quarter, I took a course in testing and liked it so much that I continued taking testing and research statistics courses (in the Educational Psychology Department) one or two at a time along with my TESL and applied linguistics courses all through the rest of my time at UCLA. Fortunately for me, my first testing course was taught by W. James Popham, who unbeknownst to me, was one of the early fathers of criterion-referenced testing (CRT, which is essentially good solid classroom testing that focuses on testing what students have learned and ignores the normal distribution and related statistical concepts). Jim Popham was also a very entertaining professor, who told lots of real-world stories based on his considerable experiences in the testing world. His books and articles on testing, curriculum, and program evaluation were similarly very easy to read and even entertaining. I was certainly influenced by those traits, and I made it one of my ambitions to spread the word in our field on CRT. His CRT influence can clearly be seen in a number of my articles as well as in two books: Brown (1996, revised in 2005), which covered norm-referenced testing (NRT) and CRT, and Brown and Hudson (2002), which focused entirely on CRT. My interest in testing and assessment as it is applied by teachers in their classrooms has continued ever since.

Richard Shavelson taught five of the statistics courses I took. So he had a big influence on my ideas about testing and research statistics. Fortunately, he had studied and worked with Lee J. Cronbach, who (among many other things) was the father of generalizability theory (G-theory), which was a completely new way of looking at reliability for NRT and dependability for CRT, a way that allows testers to understand the sources of measurement error and use that information to revise their tests rationally and thereby make those tests more reliable/dependable. Because of its utility in CRT development, G-theory fit very nicely with what I had learned from Popham, and led directly to my dissertation about a CRT for Engineering English
reading ability, as well as a string of papers over the years on CRT and G-theory.

3. Quantitative research methods

As I mentioned earlier, throughout my Certificate, MA, and PhD years at UCLA, I steadily taught ESL (mostly reading and writing) for 20 hours per week in the mornings, took my courses in the afternoons, and began to gather data and conduct statistical studies (mornings and nights) related to the ESL classes I was teaching. In fact, I quite consciously decided to stop writing term papers altogether, and instead, to write publishable research studies for my graduate course projects whenever possible. As a result, seven of the entries in the ‘References’ section below were quantitative studies that I conducted while a student at UCLA (Brown, 1980, 1981, 1983a, 1983b, 1984a, & 1984b; Brown & Bailey, 1984), and I enjoyed every minute of it. I had truly found my Applied Linguistics French horn. More importantly, when it came time for me to apply for the new PhD program at UCLA, I had already done some of those studies, and they had attracted the attention of members of the admissions committee, which no doubt helped me get into the program.

I should add that, as a young researcher steeped in statistical methods, I was horrified to find that most of the research in our field was shoddy at best from a statistical design perspective. As a result, I made it one of my professional goals to help rectify that problem by providing straightforward explanations of statistical and research design issues within the field. Brown (1988) was my first such effort at book length.¹ I also produced a pair of articles (Brown, 1991, 1992) that I hoped would help improve the statistical sophistication of TESOL Quarterly readers and the quality of statistical studies in our field. I have also published a string of more than 40 articles that are available online in my Statistics Corner column in the Shiken Bulletin (see http://jalt.org/test/bro_35.htm and http://teval.jalt.org/sites/teval.jalt.org/files/), which I hope are proving useful to testers and other researchers. Finally, I served on the TESOL Quarterly (TQ) “statistical swat team” (as TQ editor Sandra Silberstein referred to it), that specifically examined the quality of the statistics in all the articles accepted in that journal and helped with the writing of the several sets of guidelines for quantitative research that TESOL Quarterly has put out over the years.

¹ It might be interesting to know that I wrote that 1988 book with a pencil and that moving text around in my document meant literally cutting and pasting (or stapling). I eventually had someone type it up (because I didn’t know how to type) before sending it off to Cambridge University Press. Times have definitely changed.
4. Curriculum and program evaluation

Curriculum development and program evaluation simply happened to me. Necessity is truly the mother of invention, and that’s precisely what my colleagues and I did during the summer of 1980 and then into the following two years. We were setting up one of the first outsider-designed programs for English for science and technology (EST) in China called the Guangzhou English Language Center at Zzhongshan University in Guangzhou. We were able to set up a respectable program in about two years. Even though we were working under very difficult circumstances and with limited resources, we were able to do the job right because Russ Campbell had insisted from the beginning that we teach no more than 2-3 hours per day, and that our afternoons be free after lunch every single day for curriculum development and research. That’s how I learned that curriculum development takes time and energy and should involve all instructors on a regular basis. Developing our curriculum involved a number of steps: conducting needs analysis, setting goals and objectives, designing tests of those objectives, creating materials to teach the objectives, actually teaching to the objectives, and then evaluating and revising all of the components on a regular basis. We worked through for each of those steps for all of our 15 courses.

While coordinating the FSU MA program in Saudi Arabia for the teachers in a very large company there, I saw what could go right and what could go horribly wrong even with virtually unlimited resources. So the three years I spent coordinating that program provided another useful learning experience that has influenced my curriculum development ideas. I also had the good fortune to meet, listen to, and read the work of two FSU professors, Lou Dick and Walter Carey, who advocated the systematic design of instruction. Later as Director of the ELI at UHM, I was given carte blanche to develop curriculum based on what I had learned in China, Saudi Arabia, and FSU. I was able to apply all the practical lessons that I had learned about curriculum to guide the instructors in the ELI through the process of developing each of eight courses in a manner similar to what we did in China, but without making the mistakes I had seen there and elsewhere. The trick from my point of view was to make teachers see curriculum as a part of their job that was essential to their professionalism, and to also enlist graduate students in our MA program to do curriculum projects for their course projects. Using those strategies, I found that those hardworking young people could be counted on to do good work, bit-by-bit, that would result in needs analyses, objectives setting, classroom assessment, materials development, teaching, and program evaluation for the entire ELI.

Because of my curriculum development experiences, my 1995 curriculum book, and the various articles that I have written about those experiences, I
have also found myself being invited to do institution-level program
evaluations in Hawaii, Fiji, and the Marianas Islands, and national-level
evaluation projects in Tunisia, Turkey, and Cyprus. It is those experiences
combined with my previous learning that led me to write my latest book on
needs analysis for ESP programs (Brown, In press). All of which taken
together probably resulted at least partly in my research interests shifting as
time went by.

5. Shifting interests in research methods

To this day, I believe that, insofar as possible, research in applied linguistics
should be useful to language teachers and administrators (see for example,
Brown, 2012a, 2013a). That belief system has led me progressively from
doing exclusively quantitative research to combining both quantitative and
qualitative research methods and then to expanding into mixed-methods
research. Indeed, I’m still very interested in statistics (particularly
multivariate analyses) and quantitative research design, as indicated by the
courses I continue to teach, some of my articles, and the conferences I choose
to attend. For example, last year I presented an invited paper at the
Quantitative Reasoning in Second Language Studies Conference at
Georgetown University in Washington, DC, where I communed with like-
-minded quantitative research nerds and realized that quantitative L2 research
is alive and well, and that such research can even be done well in our field.

In 1991, I was in Brazil for a semester as a Fulbright senior scholar. I taught
testing and quantitative methods, and at the time, I generally felt that the
invasion of qualitative methods into our field, though minor at that time, was
a trend that would either disappear or at least stay marginalized. One day a
Brazilian colleague, Ines Miller (who favored qualitative classroom research)
was driving me around Rio to shop for a ring for my wife. We were discussing
qualitative research, and I was explaining none-too-humbly why I thought
qualitative research had little value. She startled me by asking me if I wouldn’t
be a more effective researcher if I could do both quantitative and qualitative
research. I’m sure I denied it at the time, but that thought ate at me over the
course of a year or two. Could she be right?

Gradually, I came to realize that I had been doing qualitative research for
years in my curriculum work and combining it with my quantitative methods.
It didn’t take long to consciously understand that my curriculum work was
considerably enriched by the fact that I had always instinctively used
qualitative data (interviews, meetings, classroom observations, text analyses,
discourse analyses of lectures, and so forth) to inform many of my decisions,
including what questions to address with the Likert items (and open-ended
items) on the questionnaires I developed to gather broader data from all
students, teachers, and administrators in whatever organization I was working in. Without much thought I would even analyze the results of those questionnaires statistically and qualitatively. I guess I had always been a bit embarrassed by the fact that I relied on qualitative data, but I had rationalized it by ignoring my qualitative tendencies and justifying everything in the end with my statistical analyses.

Living with what was clearly major cognitive dissonance, I was ripe for a turning point, and it came when our faculty at UHM asked me to work with Kathy Davis in developing and co-teaching an introductory research course for our graduate students that gave equal billing to qualitative and quantitative methods. I learned a good deal from Kathy during that course. Most importantly, I learned that qualitative research can be principled and systematic (see for example, Davis 1992, 1995), and I learned that, because I had no training in it, I had not necessarily been doing it particularly well.

The following summer, I was working at Temple University’s Japan Campus and apartment-sitting for a colleague who lived at that time in Tokyo. As one is want to do, I was perusing his books, many of which were on postmodern theory and were therefore not terribly interesting to me, when I stumbled across one by Newman and Benz (1998) that I found remarkably interesting. It explored ways to use both qualitative and quantitative methods in combination in what they called a qual/quant continuum. This experience led me to produce a book and an article in which I advocated striking a balance between quantitative and qualitative research methods (e.g., Brown, 2001, 2004, respectively). A few years later, I was sitting in a student’s doctoral defense, when another colleague (John Norris) mentioned something called mixed-method research. That comment led me to an entire literature on the topic (including its own journal) that I was totally unaware of. Since most of that literature was produced in the 21st century, I was able to devour it in a fairly short time. As I was reading, I found myself looking especially for ways that qualitative and quantitative research methods could be used to “cross-validate” each other. What I discovered was that cross-validation was only part of the story with regard to how mixed-methods research enhances and amplifies the combination of qualitative and quantitative research methods such that qualitative plus quantitative becomes much more in mixed-method research than simply the sum of those two parts, all of which I explain in Brown (2014a).

In short, during my 40 years in the field, I have watched the very idea of research in applied linguistics increase in quantity, quality, and respectability. I have also seen expansion in the field to include quantitative, qualitative, and then mixed-methods research methodologies. It seems likely that Applied Linguistics will continue to improve on and expand existing research
methodologies and persist in opening up new research directions and options for young researchers. Insofar as I can continue to participate as a researcher or as a mentor to young researchers, I find those prospects exciting.

6. Expanding research topics

Testing research, quantitative/qualitative/mixed-methods research methodologies, curriculum development research all continue to be of interest to me and are areas that I work in. However, I cannot help becoming interested and involved in new areas of research. For example, two students asked me questions back in 1981 that led to an entire strand of research: one student asked why he could understand me in class when I spoke to them, but not when I spoke with the other American teachers; another asked me to speak more slowly, to which I replied, “No, you listen more quickly.” Those two students’ questions led me to write string of articles over the years on reduced forms and connected speech, and eventually to edit two books on the topic (Brown & Kondo-Brown, 2006; Brown, 2012a). In addition, largely because Gabi Kasper joined our department and because of conversations with Thom Hudson about communicative competence (and testing it), I got involved in the testing of pragmatics, which has resulted in a couple of coauthored books (Hudson, Detmer, & Brown, 1992, 1995) and a number of articles on the topic. Because of working on a project to test oral Hawaiian with Alohalani Housman and her colleagues at UH Hilo, I finally got maximally frustrated that no book existed about developing and using rubrics in second language testing, so I edited one (Brown, 2012b). Most recently, largely because of conversations with Sandy McKay, I have become interested in English as an International Language (EIL), particularly in terms of EIL curriculum development and assessment, which has resulted in two articles and an upcoming book (McKay & Brown, 2015).

7. Conclusion

In writing these reminiscences, I have noticed several lessons that I have learned over the years. The first lesson is that people have played an enormously important role at all stages of my career. Even though I am a dedicated introvert who gathers energy from silence while working alone at home or with my office door closed, I am surprised in looking back, that every single twist and turn in my professional life has been due to some individual who helped me in one way or another. For example, consider just the turning points I discussed above (and the people who helped me): my initial interest in language testing (Russ Campbell); criterion-referenced testing (Jim Popham); G-theory and research statistics (Richard Shavelson); systematic curriculum design (Lou Dick & Walter Carey); the idea to apply for the job at UHM (Mike Long); qualitative research (Kathy Davis); the idea of being a
stronger researcher who combines both qualitative and qualitative methods (Ines Miller); research as a qual-quant continuum (Newman & Benz, 1998); mixed-methods research (John Norris); pragmatics testing (Gabi Kasper & Thom Hudson); connected speech (two anonymous students in my classes in China); rubrics (Alohalani Housman & her colleagues at UH Hilo); and English as an international language (Sandy McKay). Many other people have helped me in ways that were not directly related to my professional life, but nonetheless important. Chief among them is Associate Dean Kimi Kondo-Brown, my spouse and partner of 15 years. Though a busy professional in her own right, she always finds time and patience to work with me on projects, to support my work, and to be my stalwart companion in all things. Overall, the lesson I have learned here is that, as Kimi reminds me often, “It’s not all about you JD.” Indeed, I owe a great deal to the help of so many people, and I am grateful to each and every one of them. The bottom line is that none of us achieve what we do without the help of others.

A second lesson that I’m reminded of in this context is that we all tend to stereotype and pigeonhole each other professionally. I’m always amused when people come up to me and proudly tell me that they have read my article or book. It’s a little hard to know what to say, but I usually come out with something like, “Which one?” And that gives us some place to go with the conversation. I am not quite so amused when it turns out the book they name is Principles of Language Learning and Teaching (2014, by H. Douglas Brown, now in its 6th edition). But what can I do? I just tell them that, “it was written by H. Douglas Brown, the good looking Brown.” That usually gets a laugh and defuses whatever awkwardness I’m feeling. I find it even less amusing when I find that people are stereotyping me as a hard core (and narrow minded) statistics guy. They usually consider themselves much more up-to-date than me because they are young and know the truth, and that’s a little hard to swallow. For some reason, these situations always remind me of the time I went to see Robert Lado speak at a conference in the early 1980s. I knew of him as a discrete-point, multiple-choice, grammar testing guy. I was stunned at how much he had learned since he wrote his influential book on language testing (Lado, 1961). His topic? He was talking about cloze tests. How did he find out about them? So, the lesson learned is that we all have a tendency to stereotype, especially when we are young and all knowing. Perhaps it would be wiser to recognize that many people in our field are multidimensional and fully capable of multiple foci, or continuing to grow, and of changing throughout their careers. Maybe we should even feel sorry for people who don’t do that, who instead get stuck in a rut where they flog the same “good” idea over and over for years.

One last all-encompassing lesson I have learned is that the field is constantly shifting, changing, and growing. Indeed, change is inevitable, and flowing with
it can be an extraordinary ride. Consider the ride that I have had along the way in my many roles from young French horn player, to soldier, to restaurant manager in Spain, to undergraduate student in French and English literatures, to graduate student at UCLA in TESL and Applied Linguistics, to senior scholar in the UCLA China Exchange Program, to adjunct assistant professor at FSU, and to assistant, associate, and full professor at UHM. And more important professionally, think about how I have migrated from hard core testing and statistical research to combining principled qualitative research with quantitative research and then discovering the added value of combining both traditions into what is effectively a third tradition called mixed-methods research. I suppose the lessons are that all of us need to be open to change, to flow with it, and to enjoy the ride the best way we know how.

As I come to this point in my reflection, it suddenly feels like the beginning of the end. More and more people are asking when I will retire. Others are asking me to write things like this reflection on my career or to do interviews about my experiences. I guess at the age of 69 it is natural to look back. Indeed, without even thinking about the implications, I have migrated in my writing in the direction of articles that cast me in the old-guy-looking-back role, including interviews like the one I did for *IJLS* in the last issue (Brown with Salmani Nodoushan, 2015), three articles reflecting on mistakes I have made over the years in language testing, curriculum development, and research (Brown, 2010, 2012c, 2014b, respectively), and an article reflecting on what I have learned in doing 25 years of cloze testing research (Brown, 2013b).

Does all of this mean I am getting ready to put a period on my career, or is this just a semicolon with much to follow? Who knows what any of us will be doing by the time you read this article, but I am willing to bet on one thing for sure: retired or not, I will probably be exploring new ideas and adapting and growing (with help of others)—and enjoying every minute of it. Isn’t that the point?

**The Author**

James Dean ("JD") Brown (Email: brownj@Hawaii.edu) is Professor of Second Language Studies at the University of Hawai‘i at Mānoa. He has spoken and taught in many places ranging from Brazil to Venezuela. He has published numerous articles and books on language testing, curriculum design, research methods, and connected speech. His most recent books are: *Developing, using, and analyzing rubrics in language assessment with case studies in Asian and Pacific languages* (2012 from NFLRC); *New ways in teaching connected speech* (2012 from TESOL); *New ways of classroom assessment, revised* (2013 from TESOL); *Practical assessment tools for college Japanese* (2013 with K. Kondo-
Brown from NFLRC); *Mixed methods research for TESOL* (2014 from Edinburgh University Press); *Cambridge guide to research in language teaching and learning* (2015 with C. Coombe from Cambridge University Press); *Teaching and assessing EIL in local contexts around the world* (2015 with S. L. McKay from Routledge); *Introducing needs analysis and English for specific purposes* (in press 2016 from Routledge), and two others that are currently in the works.

**References**


Hudson, T., Detmer, E., & Brown, J. D. (1992). *A framework for testing cross-
cultural pragmatics. Honolulu, HI: National Foreign Languages Resource Center.


Factors affecting multiple-choice cloze test score variance: A perspective from generalizability theory

Takaaki KUMAZAWA, Kanto Gakuin University, Japan

A large number of studies were done on cloze tests in the field of language testing. Some studies invested linguistic and textual factors affecting cloze item difficulty. In Japan, multiple-choice (MC) cloze items are a widely used item format in entrance examinations and classroom tests. However, linguistic and textual factors affecting MC cloze items have not been fully investigated. Thus, this study was designed to examine linguistic and textual factors that affect a MC cloze test score. Two passages were selected and 50 MC cloze items \((k = 50)\) were categorized into five groups: (a) content words, (b) function words, (c) low frequency words, (d) words highly used in a passage, and (e) phrasal words. The research questions were: (a) to what extent do the category and text factors contribute to the total MC cloze test score variance, and (b) to what extent is the MC cloze test reliable and dependable for making relative and absolute decisions. When a generalizability study was conducted, the largest amount of variance contributing to the total score variance was an interaction effect between items and texts facets. Reliability and dependability of the test were satisfactory. Implications drawn from this study were discussed.

Keywords: Multiple Choice Items; Cloze Tests; Generalizability Theory

1. Introduction

The history of cloze testing research is fairly long and dates back to 1956. The cloze test was originally used to assess L1 readers’ comprehension. A number of studies were done on L2 learners from the 1980s and a variety of topics were covered from development procedures (e.g., Bachman, 1985; Brown, 1988) to scoring procedures (e.g., Brown, 1980; Kobayashi, 2002). Some studies were done on factors affecting item facility (IF) values (e.g., Abraham & Chapelle, 1992). According to Kobayashi (2002), text organization, linguistic features such as content and function words, and learners’ proficiency levels are the major factors affecting the IF values.
Multiple-choice (MC) cloze format is widely used in a variety of Japanese testing contexts from high-stakes tests such as the college entrance examinations and the TOEIC to low-stakes tests such as classroom tests. Although the MC cloze item format has been used for high-stakes tests, only a few studies have been done to examine its test score reliability and validity (e.g., Hale, Stansfield, Rock, Hicks, Butler & Oller, 1989). Studies on what makes cloze items easy or difficult have been already done, but no study has been done on the variables affecting MC cloze item difficulty. If features affecting item facility of MC cloze items were identified, test-developers could adjust test difficulty. Thus, the purpose of this study is to identify factors affecting MC cloze item difficulty and contributing to the MC cloze test score variance from the perspective of generalizability theory.

2. Cloze test, C-test, and multiple-choice cloze test items

Various item formats based on reduced redundancy theory have been developed such as cloze (Tylor, 1953), C-test (Klein-Braley, 1985), and MC cloze (Jonz, 1976). This theory posits that competent learners should be able to reproduce a passage, which is distorted by taking out words in the passage. Cloze test items are an item format in which test-takers fill in blanks in a passage (Brown, 2005). It is said that the items are assessing test-takers’ integrative, productive skills that requires test-takers to successfully comprehend a text and to actually spell out a word or words in a blank correctly. Test-developers have to select a passage and delete some words to develop a cloze test. The tests are not machine-scorable and raters have to mark the answers for scoring.

Cloze tests were initially developed for estimating text readability for L1 readers. Test-developers began to pay attention to the tests for the purpose of assessing L2 learners’ overall proficiency. Some studies (e.g., Brown, 2013) reported that cloze test reliability and validity varied greatly, and a number of factors that could affect the results were investigated. Some of the main issues were deletion patterns (fix-ratio and rational (Bachman, 1985), natural (Brown, 1993), and tailored (Brown, 1988)), skills tested with the items (low-order sentential and high-order intersentential reading skills (Abraham & Chapelle, 1992; Bachman, 1982; Yamashita, 2003)), scoring procedures (exact-answer, and acceptable-answer (Brown, 1980; Kobayashi, 2002)), and test-takers’ proficiency levels (native and non-native (Bachman, 1985); high and low proficiency (Brown, 2013)).

One item format developed to overcome the shortcomings of cloze tests is C-tests. C-tests have about 100 words missing in several passages, and half of the letters are missing as a blank. Test-takers have to fill in letters to complete each word in the passages. Compared to cloze tests, C-test are said to be
superior in that more deletions can be made with shorter passages, and scoring can be easily done with exact answer scoring (Klein-Braley, 1985). Studies on C-tests showed about the same or higher reliability, ranging from .70 to .86 (Klein-Braley, 1997; Chapelle & Abraham, 1990). A study done on the test validity showed that the tests could be used as a valid measure of general English proficiency (Eckes & Grotjahn, 2006). C-tests were developed in different languages including Korean (Lee-Ellis, 2009), Hebrew (Cohen, Segal & Bar-Siman-To, 1984), and Hungarian (Dörnyei & Katona, 1992). However, other studies revealed that the test items could not be improved with item analysis (Jafarpur, 1998), and difficulty of the items was affected by text readability and with- or without-clues, showing the number of letters to be filled (Babaii & Moghaddam, 2006); and content and function words (Dörnyei & Katona, 1992).

MC cloze items are an item format which test-takers have to select a choice that best suits in a blank in a passage. In order to develop a MC cloze test, a pilot administration has to be done. In the pilot phase, a cloze test that employs the fixed-ratio or rational deletion pattern is administered. Distractors are made by taking test-takers’ wrong answers to finalize the test. Because of difficulty of the test development, MC cloze tests have been criticized. Moreover, other criticisms centered on difficulty of the tests being easy, and the test reliability and validity coefficients being low (Klein-Braley, 1997). However, other studies indicated that MC cloze tests were as reliable as cloze and C-tests (Chapelle & Abraham, 1990). Hale et al. (1986) categorized MC cloze items into four subtests: (a) reading comprehension (RC)/grammar \( (k = 9) \), (b) RC/vocabulary \( (k = 14) \), (c) grammar/RC \( (k = 15) \), and (d) vocabulary/RC \( (k = 12) \). The difference between RC/grammar and grammar/RC was that the former items required greater reading comprehension from test-takers in order to be able to get them correct. All the subtests were moderately reliable for Japanese test-takers ranging from .64 to .67 when the Spearman-Brown formula was used to estimate the 15-item test reliability. In addition, all the subtests correlated moderately to the TOEFL subtests especially for the ones related to grammar, vocabulary, and reading. Thus, Hale et al. (1986) concluded that MC cloze tests were a reliable measure that appeared to assess a combination of test-takers’ grammar and vocabulary knowledge, and reading comprehension.

3. Research questions

Studies on cloze test and C-test items investigated various issues including variables influencing the item difficulty. The factors dealt with were content/function words (e.g., Abraham & Chapelle, 1992; Dörnyei & Katona, 1992), and text readability (Babaii & Moghaddam, 2006). Hale et al.’s study (1986) on MC cloze test items indicated that the tests could be a reliable and
valid measure for overall reading-related comprehension, but whether the
text items were related to reading comprehension, grammar, or vocabulary were
not clearly revealed. Because MC cloze test items have been widely used from
high-stakes to low-stakes testing purposes in Japan, factors affecting the test
items such as texts are worth investigating. By doing so, test-developers can
develop a valid test that is suitable for their test-takers. Thus, in this study, a
MC cloze test was developed and administered to Japanese university
students. Generalizability theory is used to analyze the extent to which the
following category and text factors affect the test-takers’ total score variance:
(a) content words, (b) function words, (c) low frequency words, (d) words
highly used in a passage, and (e) phrasal words. To this end, the research
questions are:

(1) To what extent do the category and text factors contribute to the
total MC cloze test score variance?

(2) To what extent is the MC cloze test reliable and dependable for
making relative and absolute decisions?

4. Method

4.1. Participants

Participants were 117 Japanese university students belonging to three private
universities in the Tokyo area. Eight cases had to be eliminated because they
left many items unanswered. All of the participants learned English as a
second language for six years in Japanese secondary schools and for more
than a year in college. Participants’ ages ranged from 18 to 22 years old.

4.2. Procedures

During the fall semester in 2013, an MC cloze test was given in 15 minutes,
along with a survey asking their learning background and motivation for
learning English in 10 minutes in class. Instructors giving the test and survey
read aloud the instructions and purposes of this administration. The test-
takers’ score was not part of their grade and was only used for research
purposes.

4.3. MC cloze test items

Two passages were selected. The number of words in passages A and B was
the same, both consisting of 266 words each. The text readability indexes of
the Flesch-Kincaid Grade level were 7.3 and 9.8, respectively. Based on a
corpus developed for Japanese learners called the JACET list of 8000 basic
words (JACET Basic Word Revision Committee, 2003), the vocabulary levels of
the passages ranged from 1000 to 6000 frequency levels in passage A and from 1000 to 8000 levels in passage B. No deletion was made from the first two sentences and one sentence on the passages. The rational pattern was used for the deletion method but more than six words were kept apart between blanks. In each passage, there were five blanks each related to content words, function words, lower frequency words, words highly used, and phrasal words \((k=50)\). No pilot test was conducted and distractors were made by a test-developer.

Words deleted for content-word items were: information, important, useful, team, and think in passage A; almost, head, feet, night, and poor in passage B. Except useful, the rest were included in the 1000 word level. When a deleted word was a noun, the three distractors were kept as the same part of speech. A sample item was: Colors are (7. a. full b. empty c. useful d. beautiful) in other ways, too. Choice c was a correct answer, and because the word, useful, was an adjective, the distractors were all adjectives.

Function words deleted were: during, or, themselves, one, and and in passage A; in, of, and, the, and the in passage B. In the event a pronoun was deleted, the distractors were all pronouns. A sample item was: but black and white are (18. a. itself b. oneself c. themselves d. ourselves) very different from other colors. The correct answer, Choice c was a pronoun and the rest were in the same grammatical form.

Low frequency words deleted were: license (5), subways (?), surrender (5), funeral (3), and primary (4) in passage A; humorous (8), gratifying (?), recesses (8), itch (?), and converse (?) in passage B. The numbers in the parentheses showed the word frequency levels. In terms of the word frequency levels, funeral was in the 3000 word level whereas humorous and recesses were in the 8000 word level. The words, subways, gratifying, and itch were unidentified because these were too low frequent to be on the word list. A sample item was: A white flag, for example, does not show any country, but it means peace or (13. a. surrender b. tolerance c. contention d. purity). The correct choice, surrender was in the 5000 word level, so the distractors were selected from the same level.

Words that appeared in the texts more frequently were: colors (16), different (6), mean (3), black (7), and white (5) in passage A; light (2), blood (3), human (5), mosquitoes (4), and essay (3) in passage B. The numbers in the parentheses indicated the number of times the words appeared in the passage. While light appeared two times in passage B, colors appeared 16 times in passage A. Correct choices and distractors were kept in the same grammatical form. A sample item was: Telephones are also made in many (6. a. different b. bright c. dark d. nice) colors for their particular uses.
Phrasal words deleted were: for example, national colors, particular things, good and bad, and the same in passage A; to begin with, waiting for, flies around, is like a, and are the highest in passage B. A sample item was: (30. a. To show an example b. On the contrary c. To conclude d. To begin with), the mosquito is a very humble insect. Distractors were made similar in form but different in meaning.

5. Analysis

First, item analysis was conducted in order to obtain item facility and item discrimination values. Second, items were categorized into (a) content words, (b) function words, (c) low frequency words, (d) words highly used in a passage, (e) phrasal words, and (f) texts and descriptive statistics were computed. Lastly, generalizability theory (Brennan, 2001) was applied to estimate the extent to which test-takers’ English proficiency, item difficulty, five item categories, texts, and the interactions affect the total score variance. Thus, two generalizability studies (G study) were conducted using two balance designs of p X (i:c) and p X t x (i:c), in order to compare the difference in the results when a text facet was added to the former design. A decision study (D study) was conducted to estimate generalizability coefficients and dependability indexes for making both relative and absolute decisions. GENOVA (Crick & Brennan, 1983) was used to conduct both the G and D studies.

6. Results

Table 1 shows the results of item analysis. Item facility values ranged from .16 to .87. Item 49 was the most difficult item mostly due to the word converse being difficult for the test-takers. Item 5 was the easiest item probably because the word colors was a high frequency word that was highly used in passage A. Item discrimination values ranged from -.15 to .59. Although the word poor was a high frequency word, it turned out to be difficult and did not discriminate test-takers’ proficiency. It was probably because they associated the meaning with a lack of money and did not know the other meaning as pitiful. Out of 50 items, 38 items had the values over .20 and were working on the test-takers.

Five categories were found difficult in the following order based on the means: low frequency words, phrasal words, function words, content words, and words highly used in the passages (M = 4.10, 4.25, 4.57, 4.90, and 5.31). Standard deviation values for function words, and words highly used were larger than the other values.
### Table 1
*Item Facility and Item Discrimination Values*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>deletions</th>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>$IF$</th>
<th>$ID$ (rpbi)</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>deletions</th>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>$IF$</th>
<th>$ID$ (rpbi)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>license</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.83</td>
<td>.32</td>
<td>in</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.29</td>
<td>.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>information</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.30</td>
<td>.16</td>
<td>humorous</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.43</td>
<td>.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>important</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.61</td>
<td>.48</td>
<td>gratifying</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.19</td>
<td>.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>subways</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.83</td>
<td>.46</td>
<td>almost</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.40</td>
<td>.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>colors</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.87</td>
<td>.39</td>
<td>to begin with</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.20</td>
<td>.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>different</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.59</td>
<td>.47</td>
<td>head</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.29</td>
<td>.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>useful</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.73</td>
<td>.47</td>
<td>feet</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.45</td>
<td>.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>for example</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.72</td>
<td>.50</td>
<td>of</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.42</td>
<td>-.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>team</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.75</td>
<td>.48</td>
<td>recesses</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.30</td>
<td>.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>during</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.48</td>
<td>.23</td>
<td>waiting for</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.68</td>
<td>.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>national colors</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.38</td>
<td>.21</td>
<td>night</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.51</td>
<td>.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>particular things</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.52</td>
<td>.39</td>
<td>and</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.56</td>
<td>.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>surrender</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.22</td>
<td>.37</td>
<td>light</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.42</td>
<td>.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>or</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.46</td>
<td>.55</td>
<td>flies around</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.34</td>
<td>.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>funeral</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.51</td>
<td>.58</td>
<td>is like a</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.23</td>
<td>-.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mean</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.33</td>
<td>.42</td>
<td>the</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.24</td>
<td>.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>good and bad</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.23</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td>poor</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.19</td>
<td>-.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>themselves</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.47</td>
<td>.55</td>
<td>blood</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.55</td>
<td>.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>black</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td>.43</td>
<td>itch</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.20</td>
<td>.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>one</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.32</td>
<td>.34</td>
<td>are the highest</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.33</td>
<td>.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the same</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.62</td>
<td>.37</td>
<td>the</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.54</td>
<td>.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>think</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.64</td>
<td>.53</td>
<td>human</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.19</td>
<td>.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>primary</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.43</td>
<td>.41</td>
<td>mosquitoes</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.28</td>
<td>.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.79</td>
<td>.20</td>
<td>converse</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.16</td>
<td>-.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>white</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.85</td>
<td>.29</td>
<td>essay</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.44</td>
<td>.34</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Categories 1–5 = content words, functions words, low frequency words, words highly used, and phrasal words.
Function words such as conjunctions and articles were both easy and difficult for the test-takers. As the item facility values for items 24, and 41 showed, a conjunction, *and*, was relatively easy and an article, *the*, was difficult for the test-takers. Generally, items in category 4 were easy, but though words such as *human*, *mosquitoes*, and *essay* were used 3 to 5 times in passage B, items 47, 48, and 50 were difficult for the test-takers. Means of item discrimination values for the 5 categories were approximately in the same range. Reliability coefficient for category 5 was low, but the coefficient for category 4 was moderate. Passage A was easier and suitable for the test-takers because of a satisfactory item discrimination value and reliability coefficient. Overall, the MC cloze test had an adequate item discrimination value and reliability coefficient.

Table 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>k</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>M (IF)</th>
<th>M (ID)</th>
<th>α</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Content words</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4.90</td>
<td>1.99</td>
<td>.49</td>
<td>.33</td>
<td>.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Function words</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4.57</td>
<td>2.03</td>
<td>.46</td>
<td>.34</td>
<td>.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low Frequency words</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td>1.76</td>
<td>.41</td>
<td>.35</td>
<td>.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Words highly used</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5.31</td>
<td>2.10</td>
<td>.53</td>
<td>.36</td>
<td>.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phrasal words</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4.25</td>
<td>1.56</td>
<td>.42</td>
<td>.34</td>
<td>.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Passage A</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>14.27</td>
<td>4.70</td>
<td>.57</td>
<td>.35</td>
<td>.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Passage B</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>8.86</td>
<td>3.22</td>
<td>.41</td>
<td>.27</td>
<td>.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>23.13</td>
<td>7.10</td>
<td>.46</td>
<td>.31</td>
<td>.81</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VC (p X (i:c))</th>
<th>VC%</th>
<th>VC (p X t X (i:c))</th>
<th>VC%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>p 0.0055012</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>0.0067174</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c 0</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i:c 0.0833160</td>
<td>43%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pt</td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pc 0</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pi:c 0.1034934</td>
<td>54%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tc</td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ti:c 0.2183792</td>
<td>66%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ptc</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pti:c 0.105107</td>
<td>32%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: VC = variance component.

Table 3 shows the results of two generalizability studies with the designs of p X (i:c) and p X t X (i:c). The percent of the variance components for persons
(p), categories (c), items (i:c), persons and categories interaction (pc), and pi:c interaction were 3%, 0%, 43%, 0%, and 54%, respectively. The largest amount of variance contributing to the total score variance was the undifferentiated error. The MC cloze test items differed greatly in difficulty and the items facet accounted 43% of the total score variance. The total score variance was slightly caused by the persons effect. No variance due to the categories facet was observed. When a texts facet (t) was added to the former design, a major difference was in the items facet variance component; no variance due to the items facet was observed. Instead, the texts and items interaction effect accounted for 66% of the total score variance. Only 32% was due to the undifferentiated error.

Figure 1 shows changes in generalizability coefficients ($\rho$) and dependability indexes ($\Phi$) with a decision study design of p X T X (I:C). When there were two texts and 5 items per category ($k = 50$), the generalizability coefficient and dependability index were .76 and .51, respectively. The Cronbach alpha coefficient for the entire test ($k = 50$) was .81, so the generalizability coefficient was slightly lower than the alpha coefficient. When there were 4 texts that contained 10 items per category ($k = 200$), the coefficient and index were .93 and .81, respectively. As can be seen, the coefficients were constantly higher than the indexes.

![Figure 1. Generalizability coefficients and dependability indexes.](image)

7. Discussions

In this section, two research questions posed in this study were discussed in connection to the literature on cloze testing. Research question 1 was: (a) to what extent do the category and text factors contribute to the total MC cloze test score variance. MC cloze test items were working on the test-takers for
norm-referenced purposes because item discrimination values showed that 38 items were discriminating well enough. When the items were categorized and analyzed separately, items related to phrasal words were not working due to the low reliability coefficient ($\alpha = .14$). Even without piloting the items on test-takers, the result was satisfactory due to the number of items working and the overall test reliability coefficient ($\alpha = .81$). Difficulty of the categories based on the means were: low frequency, phrasal words, function words, content words, and words highly used in the passage ($M = 4.10, 4.25, 4.57, 4.90, and 5.31$).

Although the five categories were different in difficulty, both generalizability studies with the designs of $p X (i:c)$ and $p X t X (i:c)$ showed that the categories facet did not contribute to the total score variance. Thus, how MC cloze items were categorized did not lead to the total score variance. In the case of the former design, MC cloze items were treated as independent from a text, and the items facet accounted for 43% of the total score variance. Percent of undifferentiated error was large at 54%, and this study design did not reveal what the source of error was. When compared to two generalizability study designs, the latter design was superior because a texts facet was included and was able to identify how the facet interacted with others and how much they contributed to the total test score variance. With the latter design, items were treated as dependent in a text. The result indicated that not the items facet, but the interaction effect between the texts and items facets contributed 66% of the total score variance. No texts facet variance was observed possibly because the two texts were not far different in difficulty. Due to the large amount of variance, the percent of the undifferentiated error was small. Therefore, regardless of what category items were in, which text, passages A or B, words appeared as an item had an influence on the test score.

Factors affecting cloze item difficulty have been discussed in the field. According to Abraham and Chapelle (1992), in the case of fixed ratio and rational cloze tests, the number of times words appeared in a passage and the amount of context given as a clue had an effect on cloze item difficulty. Kobayashi (2002) argued that in case of rational cloze function words were easier than content words, high-frequency words were easier than low frequency words, and the number of times words appeared in a passage made cloze items easy. Klein-Braley (1985) found that function words were easier than content words as deletions for C-tests. This study found that while low frequency words made MC cloze items difficult, words highly used in a passage made them easy. However, from a generalizability theory perspective, whichever MC cloze items were categorized did not contribute to the MC cloze test score variance. Which text items were in was the most important factor. Thus, test-developers have to carefully select a passage for a MC cloze test.
that is best suitable for test-takers’ proficiency.

Research question 2 was: to what extent is the MC cloze test reliable and dependable for making relative and absolute decisions. In this study, without piloting MC cloze items, reliability and dependability were satisfactory ($\alpha = .81$, $\rho = .76$, and $\Phi = .51$). When compared to past studies (e.g., Chapelle & Abraham, 1990; Hale et al., 1989), a MC cloze test in this study was as reliable. In addition, past studies showed that MC cloze tests were easier than cloze tests (e.g., Abraham & Chapelle 1992; Chapelle & Abraham, 1990). Brown (2013) argued that cloze tests would be difficult for Japanese learners. Accordingly, MC cloze item format would be adequate for Japanese learners in terms of difficulty. Brown (2013) also claimed that if lower-level test-takers were given cloze items, low-order sentential items related to grammar and vocabulary would better discriminate their proficiency. Because items related to phrasal words had a low reliability coefficient and these items might be more closely related to high-order intersentential skills such as cohesion, these items might not be suitable for Japanese lower-level test-takers. Overall, MC cloze tests are machine-scorable, and, as Hale et al. argued, can reliably measure Japanese test-takers’ overall reading comprehension.

8. Conclusion

This study showed that items related to five categories were different in difficulty. However, two generalizability studies indicated that the categories facet did not contribute to the MC cloze test score variance. The highest percentage of the variance was due to an interaction effect between items and texts. Implications that can be drawn from this study were: (a) MC cloze tests as a reliable measure, and (b) a need for careful selection of texts. MC cloze tests can be a reliable measure of Japanese test-takers’ overall reading comprehension. The item format is suitable for Japanese learners in terms of difficulty. Furthermore, test-developers can develop a reliable MC cloze test if carefully designed. However, when selecting texts for the test, a special attention had to be paid so as to adopt one that is suitable for test-takers’ proficiency level.

Limitations inherent in this study were: (a) generalizability of the results, and (b) validity of the test score interpretations and uses. First, in this study, a sample was taken from three universities in Japan. Generalizing the results to other Japanese samples should carefully be done because the sample was rather small and did not represent an entire Japanese university population. Second, in this study, the validity of the MC cloze test score interpretations and uses was not fully investigated. MC cloze tests are said to measure test-takers’ overall reading comprehension (e.g., Hale et al., 1989), but further studies should investigate what MC cloze items actually measure and what
kinds of washback effects are expected when the test is used as an entrance examination, a placement test, and a classroom test. Furthermore, replication studies have to be done to see if other MC cloze tests can maintain the same magnitude of reliability. Further studies should also use generalizability theory to investigate the degree to which item categories affect test-takers’ other MC cloze test, C-test, and cloze test performance.

The Author

Takaaki Kumazawa (Email: ktakaaki@kanto-gakuin.ac.jp) received Doctor of Education from Temple University in 2011. Takaaki is interested in language testing and program development.

References


Appendix A

MC cloze items in passage A

On a driving license in a Western country they usually write the hair color and eye color of the driver, and sometimes also the skin color. These are written on it to identify the driver. Though a driving (1. a. acknowledgement b. license c. motorway d. fare) in Japan does not have this (2. a. hope b. identification c. information d. change), people in other places think color is (3. a. easy b. hard c. good d. important)

But colors are often used for coding in Japan. In cities, the trains and (4. a. pathways b. sceneries c. playgrounds d. subways) are painted in many different (5. a. blues b. browns c. reds d. colors) to show that one line is different from another. Telephones are also made in many (6. a. different b. bright c. dark d. nice) colors for their particular uses.

Colors are (7. a. full b. empty c. useful d. beautiful) in other ways, too. In a sporting game, (8. a. however b. in contrast c. for example d. too), they help us to tell that one (9. a. team b. swimmer c. ball d. stadium) is different from another. So it becomes easier to see what is happening (10. a. in b. at c. during d. for) the game. Colors of flags, called ‘(11. a. nation color b. nation colors c. national color d. national colors),’ are also useful to tell one nation from another.

Sometimes colors mean (12. a. private acts b. personal cases c. recent things d. particular things). A white flag, for example, does not show any country, but it means peace or (13. a. surrender b. tolerance c. contention c. purity). And we must wear black clothes, (14. a. and b. but c. so d. and) at least a black armband at a (15. a. convention b. funeral c. opening d. workshop) because black usually means death. These two different colors, like night (16. a. or b. so c. and d. by) day, are often used as symbols of (17. a. good and bad b. bad and good c. bad or good d. good but bad).

But black and white are (18.a. itself b. oneself c. themselves d. ourselves) very different from other colors. A (19.a. gray b. white c. black d. red) and white television is (20.a. this b. one c. that d. ones), which has no color, and we can say (21.a. the same b. a same c. as same d. this same) thing about a picture. We almost (22.a. care b. spend c. think d. speak) that black and white are not colors. We say that the (23.a. adjacent b. profound c. irrelevant d. primary) colors are red, yellow, (24.a. or b. and c. but d. so) blue, and do not include black and (25.a. black b. white c. gray d. red).
Appendix B
MC cloze items in passage B

On one occasion, while teaching English to a group of young Spaniards, I got the idea of setting them the task of writing an English essay on the virtues of the mosquito. Such subjects are excellent ways to train the mind (26.a. at b. in c. for d. except) rational thought and expression and also in a (27.a. irresponsible b. hysterical c. hideous d. humorous) attitude and a wide view of life. The results were highly (28.a. gratifying b. imperfect c. receptive d. fatal) though I confess some of the essays have (29.a. almost b. most c. any d. none) entirely disappeared from my memory.

(30.a. To show an example b. On the contrary c. To conclude d. To begin with), the mosquito is a very humble insect. Its preference is not the human (31.a. head b. girl c. hand d. face) which is the superior part, but the legs and (32.a. noses b. feet c. ears d. eyes), which are the most inferior parts (33.a. in b. of c. at d. for) man. For this reason, it hides in dark (34.a. marketplaces b. recesses c. outdoors d. downtowns) beneath chairs and tables (35.a. waiting up b. waiting in c. waiting for d. waiting on) an opportunity to attack.

The mosquito is an inhabitant of the (36.a. day b. morning c. night d. noon), when the soft light of the moon (37.a. or b. and c. but d. so) the stars has replaced the brilliant (38.a. light b. shine c. right d. moon) of the sun. While people sleep in their beds, it (39.a. flies high b. flies in c. flies out d. flies around) in the darkness, disturbing them with that terrible buzzing sound. It (40.a. is like a b. likes a c. is a d. looks like a) vampire, or a dark divine being, seeking (41.a. a b. the c. this d. that) taste of human blood. It disturbs even (42.a. rich b. poor c. good d. bad) priests in meditation and, not content to drink their (43.a. juice b. soup c. blood d. water), it leaves an annoying (44.a. itch b. pitfall c. footprint d. mentality). It seems to reflect that humans are (45.a. higher than b. the highest of c. as high as d. more than) all mortals and that human blood is (46.a. a b. the c. this d. that) most essential substance in the (47.a. mosquitoes b. blood c. knowledge d. human) frame. The only good thing I can say about (48.a. mosquitoes b. blood c. knowledge d. human) is that we have been able to (49.a. avail b. simulate c. certify d. converse) and share our knowledge of their evil work in this short (50.a. resource b. study c. top d. essay).
Modern Standard Arabic in Algeria: Problems and challenges

Fatima Nor El-Houda DAHOU, Mustapha Stambouli University, Mascara, Algeria

The work tackles the situation of Modern Standard Arabic (MSA), the modern version of Classical Arabic, in present day Algerian society. Today, MSA represents the core of Arab Algerians’ identity and the pride of their glorious origin and history, all related to the golden era of Arab-Muslims (the case for all Maghribis and Arabs). However, this satisfaction lingers undermined by a number of problems that compile serious challenges to the power and existence of MSA in society and country. In a globalized world of speedily shifting notions, philosophies, cultures and civilizations, Algerians (like Arabs) and their language suffer from cultural, technical and scientific dependence on the most powerful languages, namely English and French. Besides, and more importantly, social effects of MSA’s diglossic situation with Algerian Arabic, in addition to the competing position of French, place the society in incessant problems of identity and linguistic insecurity. In relation to the already mentioned ideas, the work presents a study on the real situation of MSA in Algeria and targets problems and challenges it faces. The study suggests a number of solutions seen beneficial to the position and evolution of the MSA language.

Keywords: MSA; French; Algerian Arabic; Identity; Linguistic Insecurity; Language Policy; Diglossia; Globalization

1. Introduction

What really cannot go unnoticed in any study about Arabic, the norm, are the different labels, attributed to it by scholars dealing with it. A category of them call it ‘Classical Arabic’; even though it is the language of today, it is openly defined as an old language, the one which still relates to the ancient ages of Arabs. This ‘definition’ of the language noticeably prevails in the literature of some Algerian francophone scholars. The sociolinguist Chafia Yamina Benmayouf went even further in her book La question linguistique en Algerie (the linguistic question in Algeria) (2009). The book repeatedly replaces the label MSA by l’arabe classique classique (Classical Classical Arabic), with a repetition of the word “classical” to stress an effect of archaism and inappropriateness to modern life, messaged to the readership, chiefly to Algerians. Deepened confusing and disingenuous attitudes about the
language, the symbol of the Algerian identity, are unfortunately spread by such authors. Is this view destabilizing MSA’s position in Algeria? The second category, basically represented by Algerian arabophone scholars, and they are many, chief among them are members of the Higher Council of the Arabic Language, like Nouiret, Mortad, Belaid and Mila, all sociolinguists and professors at the Algerian university. In their literature (see the bibliography as a sample), the labels ellugha elfusha (the correct language) and El-Arabia El-Muñasera (Modern Arabic) prevail. In their contributions, there is always a stress on the high status of MSA in Algeria and on the importance of protecting and developing it. Is it a purely loyal attitude cultivated by nationalist spirits vs. an antagonist one, nourished by the French colonizing residues? Or, are they ambivalent and hesitant attitudes residing in the Algerian thought about French and MSA?

Related to the same topic is the Algerian dialect or the Algerian variety of Arabic. Speaking about MSA in Algeria can never be exhaustive without reference to this variety which, in its turn, has two contradictory labels. It is known as Algerian Arabic, the language of Algerians, typical to them and part of their identity. Algerian Arabic is also a more theoretical name to be used in research works about it as a precise variety of Arabic. But it is also named el-ṣamia (colloquial or general Arabic), lughat echari’ (the language of the street); it is even known as el-lughha elmunḥarifa (the divergent language). This variety has specific functions in the Algerian society, as a mother tongue and as a component of the Algerian identity. But it is, in many respects, different from MSA. Can this divergence be considered a threat to the correctness and stability of MSA in Algeria? Or can the two varieties co-exist and cooperate further to the promotion of Arabic in society and modern world?

To answer the questions pointed out above, the suggested study of MSA in Algeria targets three main poles: the influence of French, the process of arabization and its outcomes in domains like education, administration and social life, and the position and effects of Algerian Arabic.

2. Linguistic and Cultural Influence of French

The situation of MSA in Algeria is rather a delicate one, largely because of its interaction with French. Today, after more than 52 years of independence, Algeria is considered as one of the first francophone countries in the world in spite of its refusal to join the international organization of Francophonía. As a Maghrebi country, Algeria endured the longest period of French occupation (1830- 1962) and “harboured the greatest number of colons” (Versteegh, 2011, p. 200). During that period, Algerians dwelled in a nonstop contact with French. Anyone, of whatever literacy degree, should have needed the use the
colonists’ language under a certain context. It was a question of necessity to communicate which helped the spread of French in the different Algerian regions. Thus, proficiency and “degree of knowledge of French depended on the amount of exposure and the nature of the contacts with the French authorities and colonists” (Versteegh, 2011, p. 203). Soon Algerian Arabic- French bilingualism was developed. Undoubtedly, the spread of French was enhanced but literacy was extinguished. The policy of the colonizer’s government was clear: to devise a population subordinate to the French culture, the one that shifts from Arabic, the language of Islam, to French, but with a vigilant endeavor to keep it illiterate and marginalized. In 1847, Alexis De Toqueville, as quoted by Bassiouney, summarized the dilemma caused by the French colonizers that time:

Around us, knowledge has been extinguished, and recruitment of men of religion and men of law has ceased. That is to say we have made Muslim society much more miserable, more disorganised, more ignorant, and more barbarous than it had been before knowing us. (2009, p. 215)

In addition to illiteracy, the target was Islam; and since Arabic is the language of this religion, more pressure was exercised on it. All religious schools (zaouia), the only traditional schools were closed gradually, until the edict of the 1930’s, declared Arabic a foreign language. The exact year of that event is not unanimous in the literature, however in Tigzi’s (2004), it is in 1938. In addition, any effort which could guarantee the aim was employed. Resistance, military and intellectual, was put under control and reputed families were marginalized and broken up. Even racial struggle, between Berbers and Arabs, was enhanced to increase social unrest and disorganization.

In the 1950’s, the policy has changed. The French government became engaged into a gradual contribution to the teaching and learning of Arabic (Sbaa, 2002, pp. 31-34). In 1950, they created madrasas, directed to the formation of teachers of Arabic, executives in justice (cadi or adel) and cults (imam and mufti). In 1951, madrasas were transformed to “Lycées de l’enseignement Franco-musulman” (Secondary School of French-Muslim teaching). In 1961, learning Arabic became obligatory in the Algerian primary schools (écoles du premier degree). However, it was too late for Algerians to heal their linguistic situation. The French authorities cleverly endeavoured to keep it in remoteness from coping with the wide-reaching cultural development. It was taught as a school subject per se. The other subjects were strictly instructed in French. In other words, literal Arabic was retained a passive language.

Meanwhile, very few efforts were devoted to the generalization and
population of French through schools. Only 3% of the Algerian population was provided with schooling in 1890 and it could hardly reach 20% the day of independence (Sbaa, 2002, p. 28); however, the socio-economic necessities, especially the administrative requirements led the Algerian population to keep in touch with the language. French was generalized in all the social sectors. This reality promoted not only its familiarity to the Algerian population but also enhanced the process of lexical borrowing from French to the Algerian dialect(s).

The result of the long lasting French colonizing policy is a post-independence generation which literate members assembled mastery and fluency in French and possession of French cultural aspects while the population in general was bilingual to different extents. However, the supreme position of French got weakened as early as the 1970’s with the generalized Arabizing policy taken on by independent Algeria. The next generations lost proficiency in French soon considered by government a foreign language; but Arabic-French bilingualism reigns till today. The lost proficiency is further interpreted by the Algerian linguist Abderrazak Dourari in an interview realized by Akram El Kébir in El Watan newspaper:

There exist less and less French-Algerian bilinguals perfect or even relative. Mixing rarely reflects the intentional choices of the locutors. It further reflects a lack of linguistic knowledge. To sprinkle one’s Algerian expressions with French shows at least that the person knows something but [...] This mixing also shows the absence of coherent thinking in all issues. This is the gravest thing.¹ (2014, p. 17)

Absolutely, the independent Algerian governmental efforts to cast out the French language and culture remain impossible. The want to eradicate that language from the Algerian thoughts and language usage has finished in a contradictory situation which covers an increasing rate of ignorance in French accompanied with a need to use it not in daily speech as much as in domains of science and urbanization. Officially, French is a foreign language but de facto, it is a co-official language that still accompanies MSA in many administrative documents and that still governs as a language of scientific and technological highest education and research in the country, despite the effect of globalizing English on the world languages. In sum, contemporary situation and effects of the French language on the Algerian sociolinguistic reality is, to a large extent, a pure result of the language policy of Arabization which history turns back to 1962, the day of independence.

3. The policy of arabization in Algeria

During the pre-colonial period, Classical Arabic was the language of literature
and culture. It could only be accessed to in schools. Nevertheless, teaching was limited to mosques and Zaouias. Besides, school programs were poorly based on the teaching of grammar, learning Koran and commentaries about it while the superior studies were confined to law, theology and Hadith. In some cases, they exceeded to include some primary notions about geography and history. These pretty feeble foundations to the teaching of Arabic caused easiness in the realization of colonists’ projects. However, Algerians’ nationalist sentiment was stimulated in the 1930’s with the founding of the Algerian Association of Muslim Scientists. The people’s struggle to restore the position of Islam and Arabic had already existed before independence. In 1931, Ahmed Tawfiq El- Madani published his book Kitab el-jazair (the Book of Algeria) in which he wrote: “Islam is our religion, Arabic our language and Algeria our fatherland” (Bassiouny, 2009, p. 215). Thus the day of independence, the Algerian government proceeded a tough policy to restore the position of MSA as a response to the urgent need to join the Arab world and build national identity, the case of all Maghreb independent nations. However, the policy has faced, up to the present, much hindrance and many troubles and resulted in an important deficiency at different levels.

The spread of MSA has education as a first target, but administration is broadly essential to the plan. In 1963, the National Assembly, which members could hardly express themselves in Arabic, initiated with a proposal “to translate the proceedings of the meetings in Arabic” (Versteegh, 2011, p.200). Still, there were no competent and well-trained translators and French remained the language of administration till 1968, when the government passed a law stating that civil servants had to study Arabic for three years and “demonstrate ability in SA” in a final exam (Bassiouny, 2009, pp. 216-217). Yet the measure remained unfruitful. In 1980, the law was restated and underlined seriously that the result attained the spread of literacy in Arabic among state employees by late 1980’s in a record judged to be the first in the Maghreb. Nevertheless, the spread of MSA in administration has not produced high graded administrators relatively competent in the language. Vital examples are their discourses, transmitted through different media programs (especially radio and television) which prove incompetency most of the time.

In education, the question was how to generalize the use of Arabic among the new generations; how to quickly fix MSA in them, as a force of sovereignty, national belonging and Arab-Muslim identity. At first, the task was difficult with the lack of pedagogical elements and teachers of Arabic, since in line with Berrabah’s estimates, the day of independence, literacy in MSA could only cover 300,000 out of 10 million Algerians (2007, p. 230). Nevertheless, an agenda of complete arabization was urged. And to reduce the gap of teachers’ scarcity, about 1,000 Egyptian and other Middle East teachers were employed. Scholars agree upon the fact that these teachers helped to give a
first push to MSA, but in a way that increased an attitude of exteriority of the language to thoughts and use of both pupils and parents; since these teachers, attached to their nationalism, taught Arabic in their local accents and proposed texts external to Algerian reality and used traditional methods of teaching (Berrabeh, 2007, p. 230). In fact, this evidence represents an initial failure in MSA’s reintroduction. Anyhow, progress proceeded and MSA continued to gain ground on the Algerian sociolinguistic scene, with the support and intervention of governmental edicts and media mobilization. In this respect, it is worth mentioning that since 1962, ART (the Algerian radio and television) and Arabic press have played an important role in the spread of MSA, in addition to a nationalist information and arabized education of the popular mass (Benmayouf, 2009, p. 65). Gradually, French lost ground in schools. Starting from 1979, all subjects, from primary education to secondary schools were arabized. MSA became everywhere: in public signboards, in media broadcast and in written press. It was even generalized in law and in the teaching of humanities at universities (Bassiounney, 2009, p. 217). Accordingly, French withdrew more and more till 1988, the year of graduation of the last bilingual promotion in middle school (Bassiounney, 2009, p. 62).

Officially, Arabic is the language of teaching in schools at all levels, and only a position of a foreign language is reserved to French taught starting from third year primary school. Whereas the linguistic performance in classes differs:

The linguistic element varies in the interior of school, in classes and in communication among students. The share of each code (French, classical Arabic, dialectal (Arabic) is variable, according to what concerns a scientific discipline or a literary discipline.² (Bassiounney, 2009, p. 63)

Very critical is that image which may appear an acceptable behaviour in a multilingual society. Yet, this detail poses important problems due to the lack of objectivity in the spread and promotion of MSA through schools:

First, there is a problem of expression established within the new generations (it is the case in the entire Arab world). Evidence that no one can deny is that Algerians can hardly express themselves adequately in MSA (the same case for French). At any moment, there is a need to code switch, this in addition to errors in MSA’s discourses, at the grammatical, phonological and even lexical levels. On the one hand, there is a strong quest of purifying MSA and eliminating the role of French as a language of instruction. On the other hand, there is a serious setback in the elaboration of a MSA really “modern”, a MSA that could answer the needs of scientific transmission. Arabic in schools carries the problem of deficient terminology and inadequate teaching
programs. The journalist Said Rabia underlines the fact by quoting Dr Ahmed Djebar, an ex-minister of education:

The gravest is not the fact of the reform itself nor the appliance of arabisation principle[...](but) the acceleration of the decrease of the level of teaching contents, of the evolution of pedagogy towards passive learning and of the politicisation or the ideologisation of some, such as literature and history.³ (ElWatan, 2014, July19, p. 5)

The result is the worsening of both scientific and linguistic level due to “a manifest contradiction with the ideological and cultural line defined in the reform’s text itself”⁴ as seen by Dr. Djebar (El Watan: 2014, July19, p. 5). Professor Abd El-Jalil Mortad joins the same idea when tackling the linguistic problem of the Algerian child: “but the problem is that the child soon feels the strangeness of use, the linguistic ill-treatment and the educational abuse” (2005, p. 35). Complicated methods of teaching based on memorization and idealization of the pedagogical topics are at the heart of the problem. Again, the drawbacks can be summarized in three points:

- Pupils lose motivation
- Mastery, fluency and correct use of MSA is reduced not only in pupils but roughly in generations who have received different levels of education in the language.
- Instability even touches other languages (seen as foreign languages), thus individuals lose proficiency in French, the marginalized colonizers’ language.

Related to the same standpoint is language and science in Algeria. The already (completely arabized) pupils reach the level of high research and scientific contribution to the country. The problem (the case of the entire Arab world), is that except law, trade and humanities, all courses and references in science and technology are out of the control of Arabic, an outcome of a lack of scientific terminology in MSA. In Algeria, scientific research relies on foreign languages, predominantly French then global English that is gaining room in the field. The chief trouble does not stop in reasons that posit MSA in such a situation but in the consequent poor acquisition and worrying lateness in scientific contribution. In exhibiting the situation, the journalist Akram El-Kébir summarizes the opinion of Pr. Mounia:

According to her, students are in the impossibility of communicating with professors. Worst, some of them have all the world’s pains to take notes when the professor presents the lecture, or at least to take notes in Arabic, while the professor speaks in French, this causes stoppage of
the access to understanding in the student of the scientific stream.\(^5\) (El Watan, 2014, December 25, p. 17)

The scientific dependence to “difficult” French has contributed to the technological, industrial and economic dependence to the others. Aissa Kadri, a professor in Paris 8 University, depicts the situation in an interview with Hassan Maoli:

The result is that, they are the multinationals who work in Algeria. Automobile is Renault, water is Suez, airport and metro management are ADP and Alston, in telephone (technology) there are foreigners, in freeway and civil engineering there are Chinese.\(^6\) (El Watan, 2014, November 29, p. 2)

Ultimately, in addition to the above mentioned issues, there is a big problem of identity and lack of self-confidence, properly lack of confidence in MSA, shared by the Algerian population. Its linguistic experience has actually led to an ambivalent attitude towards the language. To a degree, people believe in their sovereignty, arabness (foro:ba) and distinctiveness. They also share the pride of the glorious past of their language (the language of Islam). However, linguistic insecurity has nourished in them the belief in the superiority of the other, namely the French language. That is why the majority of Algerian intellectuals (arabophones or not) endeavor to carve a niche for themselves among eloquent francophones. This “semi-adoption and semi-rejection” (Benmayouf, 2009, p. 45) of MSA has placed Algerians in an ever-lasting quest of identity. The question now is how to establish confidence and reconciliation between Algerians, their identity, and MSA. In other words, how to personify this declared pride of Arabic in their actual speech behaviour and how to place MSA in such a society, a society required to welcome language diversity, openness to technology and globalization but not at the expense of an implicit underestimation of one’s language.

4. The case of Algerian Arabic

An ample examination of MSA’s sociolinguistic situation in Algeria will not be complete without the consideration of the diglossic situation it forms with Algerian Arabic. Diglossia existed farther before the French arrival to the area. Marçais describes the sociolinguistic environment in Algeria before 1832:

The Arabic language is presented to us under two sensitively different aspects: a literary language, known as written Arabic, the only in which until today, the literary and scientific books are written, the language which as presented to us, could never be spoken anywhere in Algeria.\(^7\) (Marçais, 1930, p. 401)
Marçais’s observation asserts the divided aspects of the two Arabic varieties in pre-colonial Algeria. He describes Classical Arabic (CA), the old version of MSA, as a literal language which use was restricted to the written function aimed at recording literary and scientific works. Its role was thus basically written, cultural and educational.

Marçais continues:

And idioms which none of them has ever been written, but which, everywhere and maybe since a long time, constitute the only language of conversation in all the environments, popular or intellectual.⁸ (Marçais, 1930, p. 401)

Contrariwise, according to Marçais, the Algerian Arabic variety, including its different regional dialects that he calls ‘idioms’, was the language of everyday interactions among the whole population, however their intellectual level was.

Algerian Arabic could resist the French linguistic colonization. France could spread ignorance and could wipe out literacy in MSA from the Algerian scene but it helped the preservation of a variety of it: “A society which continues to express itself naturally in Algerian Arabic, the Arabic of the daily life, of the sensitiveness, of pains and of the emotionalism”⁹ (Sbaâ, 2002, p. 43). Algerian Arabic, the language product and marker of the Algerian culture is eloquent, (fasiḥ) in essence. Scholars agree that 90 per cent of the Algerian varieties of Arabic is pure (Nouirat, 2005, p. 5), yet its vitality and exposure to language contact (especially with the loads of borrowed French words it contains) has led to its deformity, as explained by Mortad: “and purity is found in the root, whereas the deformity is noticed in prefixes and suffixes, grammar rules and phonology”¹⁰ (Mortad, 2005, p. 37) This deformity (tajawwūh) has reduced trust in ways Algerian Arabic could serve the position of MSA. Thus, common attitudes about the weakness, inadequacy and incorrectness of the variety render it an “unorganised code, an impure idiom”¹¹ (Benmayouf, 2009, p. 22), vulgar, popular, with no exact grammar and no written form, a language which can be neither literary nor scientific. It is further viewed by some thinkers and linguists, described by Benmayouf (2009) as extrémistes (extremists) and arabisants (defenders of the case of MSA), as a hindrance to the linguistic unity both in Algeria and the Arab world. This view is strongly opposed by others who have embarked on a tough defense of value and position of AA. Two major pioneers of this trend are Mameri and Kateb Yacine who share the belief in the importance of revaluing and developing languages of everyday speech, “the languages that have served humans”¹² (Benmayouf, 2009, p. 23). Sbaâ joins the same idea and explains:
The Algerian society feels and thinks in the interior of norms exterior to the surnorm. It means exterior to Conventional Arabic, that some of the entire sides of its collective imaginary are depreciated and overshadowed."\textsuperscript{13} (Sbaā, 2002, p. 90)

Sbaā views MSA, which he calls ‘\textit{conventional Arabic}’ or ‘\textit{surnorm}’ as exterior to the Algerians’ collective thoughts and feelings, all determined by their mother tongue, Algerian Arabic. For him, MSA proves its remoteness from the community’s collective imaginary. Thus, the consideration of their mother tongue as a low variety is to be firstly thought of as a reduction of the value of their thoughts and beliefs.

Tremendous debates arise when it comes to consider some scholars’ call for the re-evaluation of the status of Algerian Arabic. The situation is even more dramatized when related to schools, the cradle of future generations. A number of Algerian linguists speak about the shock or even traumatism of the Arab Algerian child on his first day at school. The journalist Amel Blidi, sharing the view of some scholars writes:

Since the age of six, the Algerian child is soaked in a linguistic bath that casts out his mother languages. At a glance, he finds himself obliged to never pronounce the “language of the street”, that of “the market”, or “el-āāmāy”. Though it is in this language that he has been developing his imaginary.\textsuperscript{14} (El Watan 3, 25 December 2014, p. 16)

The author points at MSA, the language of the Algerian school, and describes it as a hindrance to the development of generations’ “imaginary”, thus thinking and conception of the world. Unfortunately, this view lacks objectivity; it has a declared destructive aim to both the position and values of el-fusha in the thoughts and feelings of Algerians. One should remember the fact that Algerian Arabic, in spite of the pejorative names ascribed to it, is intrinsically a vital but divergent spoken form of MSA. And if the child has to adapt his speech to the official, in the classroom, he has just to readjust some pronunciations and grammatical forms while using his mother tongue; since Algerian Arabic is not only near to MSA, but it is its providence and fortune (Mortad, 2005, p. 37) and the child comes to school with a stock of vocabulary and structures (Nouiret, 2005, p. 12) that he has the habit to use at home, in “the street” and at “the market”. Actually the child enters school with “\textit{an overwhelming linguistic account}”\textsuperscript{15} (Mortad, 2005, p. 35) that if invested properly will help produce generations proficient in MSA. Once again, the problem of deficient programs of arabization is evoked. The problem lies on how MSA is taught. Shared views of linguists confirm that “\textit{the language of teaching is artificial and has nothing to do with the Algerian locutor’s}
sociolinguistic reality." explains the sociolinguist Zoulilka Merrad in El Watan newspaper (2014, December 25, p. 16). Manifestly, the “artificial” language is present in school programs which suggest texts, mostly strange to the Algerian real, current life; thus texts which cannot transmit the information efficiently.

The linguist Cherifa Gettas went further in her opposition to the role of MSA in the up-bringing of generations. She explains:

The classroom which is the place of dialogue and of communication becomes the place of censorship. This suffocating climate characterised by prohibitions and sanctions, hostile to the child’s familiar language, will dig a hole between the child spoken language and the language of school. (El Watan, 2014, December 25, p.16)

The passage, a model to a widespread erroneous view, represents misleading information, expressed through harsh words. Suffocating, prohibitions, sanctions and hostility are in fact improper to describe neither the classroom atmosphere nor any other context of MSA use among Arab Algerians. With a modest experience of more than 31 years life in Algeria, and more than 26 years as a learner in the Algerian school and university, and more than 10 years as a teacher, nothing of such a cruelty has been noticed. On the contrary, Arabic course is the most preferable and the most beloved course to the eyes of children. And, most of the time, pupils’ highest scores are those of Arabic language and religious education. An obvious reason is that MSA is their language, the origin of their mother tongue, and the vehicle of their thought and feelings. And above all, people’s attachment to MSA is a result of its being the contemporary version of the holy Koran’s language. Furthermore, hostility and prohibition towards Algerian Arabic, commonly known as Derija, are never present in the Algerian classroom, especially in recent times. Code switching reigns and the use of simple MSA and Algerian Arabic prevails on the part of both teachers and learners. The only problem, yet again, is that these high scores are outcomes of passive learning, out of practice and based on memorising. This is the deceitful defect of the teaching of and in Arabic in Algeria and the Arab world. Programs are incapable to construct generations able to express themselves correctly and fluently in MSA (in whatever context).

Zoulilka Merrad joins the same idea of Guettas and concludes that this atmosphere “has finished by consuming what remained from the Algerian identity” (El Watan, 2014, December 25, p.16). How is this identity consumed? The sociolinguist Ibtissam Chachou explains in the same newspaper article: “Complexes result, like the feeling of culpability, linguistic insecurity and the self-hatred which is manifested in the ipilinguistic discourse..."
of the Algerian locutor”¹⁹ (El Watan, 2014, December 25, p.16)

How can identity be destroyed by its pillar? MSA is the chief linguistic component of Arabs’ including Algerians’ identity. What is only needed is to generate complete satisfaction with this existing identity. Of course, linguistic insecurity, disappointment about one’s identity and even self-hatred are developed in the majority of Algerians under the effect of the social environment which has spread the belief in others’ (the most developed societies’) superiority. Some scholars, supporters of dialectal Arabic (ansar el‘lamiya), call for its re-evaluation and rehabilitation in order to reconcile between people and their identity. They even suggest introducing it as a language of teaching in schools. Others suggest a middle language which loads up MSA with colloquial vocabulary. Here is a question of tearing down a powerful language, “manufacturing a language from odds and ends of the colloquial”²⁰ (Bakri, 1999, p. 89). Then, which colloquial can be used to replace or ‘enrich’ MSA, knowing that Algerian Arabic alone counts loads of varieties or dialects, regional and social (the case for other dialects of Arabic in the Arab world). In this case, the Arabic language becomes not a unifying force but a dividing force.

The conclusion is that there is diglossia in the Arab world which should be respected. Confusing views should worth be avoided since there is only one scientific and academic language in Arabic, which is MSA. Dialectal Arabic is related to it and never independent from it. It is an instrument of expression of specific topics. Certainly, there is a need to take care of dialectal Arabic in general, but in the sense of approaching it to MSA, not approaching MSA to it. Even the diglossic functions of the two varieties overlap. While MSA is gaining ground in the Algerians’ and Arabs’ everyday speech, due to the increase of literacy and the role of arabized mass media, dialectal Arabic intervenes in many official situations as a normal consequence of its closeness to people’s thought. Hence evolution and leveling of the dialectal is recommended since, eventually, it lingers a marker of Arabs’ culture and identity besides MSA.

5. Conclusion

Contemporary Arabic or MSA is well-positioned in the world languages order. Its strength is inspired from the holy Koran. Its spread over the world and the continuous increase of its speakers’ number owes too much gratefulness to the expansion of Islam. People of Arabic adore their language and defend it mainly because of its being the language of Islam. In fact, this truth interprets the uniqueness of Arabic but alas it cannot avoid troubles challenging it. On the whole, problems of MSA in Algeria, the Maghreb and the Arab world as such are the same with relatively different degrees of seriousness: Arabs endure problems of identity, linguistic insecurity and poor scientific
terminology, in addition to prevailing errors and lack of proficiency in the language.

Algerians, as Arabs, cherish MSA which represents the pride of glorious Islamic past. But in itself, this nostalgic pride undermines future horizons of the language in the era of globalization. The people believe in others’ (technologically advanced nations and their languages) superiority but do nothing concrete for their own advance; whereas benefiting from globalization should not cease at the level of consuming others’ latest technological products. In this era, Arabs are wrongly fascinated by the occidental culture and gradually detached from their own culture and identity. However globalization should be adopted through the understanding of technological languages and translation of scientific terminology in the same way as Arabs ancestors did in their golden era. The result will be a modern advanced competitive language that can impose itself within the ranking of international languages, mainly English and French which are also languages of the former colonizers. A modern advanced language means a modern thriving society with members who share confidence in their own identity. Unfortunately, this confidence remains loose with the increase of linguistic insecurity. Language policies of arabization, namely in Algeria, have helped the broadening of this phenomenon, since they are erected around nationalist ideals of Arabic restoration and “foreign” languages exclusion. However that happened at the expense of an organized and well-studied re-introduction of MSA. The result is present-day hesitancy and lack of proficiency in both MSA and French, while there would be no harm if French were accepted as part and parcel of the Algerian identity, and even a beneficial wealth seized from the former colonizer that can serve Arabic positively. Errors, masked with code switching and the use of dialectal Arabic, prevail in individuals’ speech and writings. The fact which has pressed ahead some scholars claim to re-evaluate the colloquial status and worsen the attitudes about MSA.

Ultimately, what is really required for MSA in the Algerian society is to be correctly and fluently used by its members. People should discard dependency to the others, especially in science and technology. They should also get rid of being obsessed by other languages superiority. When suggesting solutions to problems of MSA in Algeria, this paper does not assume an intervention in language policy or an assessment of the work of the Highest Council of the Arabic Language. Undoubtedly, the latter has played an important role in the defense, maintenance and evolution of Arabic both at the national and international levels. Besides, its contributions in the coining and unification of recent technical terminology have prompted the expectancy of better future to MSA. Yet, boosting the advancement of the language is not the task of the council or language politicians unaided. Media language too has a crucial role in uplifting the situation of Arabic, especially when Algerians
spend the majority of their free time watching Arab TV channels, listening to Algerian radio programs or reading a newspaper. The newspaper alone, for instance, has a recognized part in the spread of an advanced correct language in addition to the orientation of readers’ attitudes and knowledge. Hence, Arabic newspaper is seen as a key factor to the conditioning of MSA situation, especially with the recent increase of Arabic literacy and the augmentation of readers’ number.

Notes:

1. «Il existe de moins en moins de bilingues français-algériens parfaits ou même relatifs...Le mixage reflète rarement des choix intentionnels des locuteurs. Il reflète plus un manque de connaissances linguistiques. Parsemer son expression algériennes de mots français montre au plus que la personne sait quelque chose [...] Ce mixage montre aussi l’absence d’une pensés cohérente en toute matière, ce qui est plus grave». (2014, December 25, p. 17)

2. «L’élément linguistique varie à l’intérieur de l’école, dans les classes et dans la communication entre élèves. La part de chaque code (français, arabe classique, dialectal) est variable, selon qu’il s’agisse d’une discipline scientifique ou d’une discipline littéraire». (Benmayouf, 2009, p. 63)


4. «... une flagrante contradiction avec la ligne idéologique et culturelle définie dans le texte de la réforme lui- même ». (El Watan: 2014, July19, p. 5)

5. «Selon elle, de nos jours, les étudiants se retrouvent dans l’impossibilité de communiquer avec les professeurs. Pire, certains éprouvent toutes les peines du monde «à prendre des notes» quand le professeur dispense le cours, ou tout au monde prendre des notes en arabe, quand le Pr parle en français, ce qui a pour effet de freiner l’accès à la compréhension chez l’étudiant de la filière scientifique». (El Watan, 2014, December25, p. 17)

6. «Le résultat en est que ce sont les multinationales qui travaillent en Algérie L’automobile c’est Renault, l’eau c’est Suez, la gestion de l’aéroport et du métro ce sont ADP and Alston, la téléphonie ce sont des étrangers, l’autoroute et les travaux publics ce sont les Chinois». (El Watan, 2014, November 29, p. 2)

7. «La langue Arabe se présente à nous sous deux aspects sensiblement différents: une langue littéraire dite arabe écrite, dans laquelle seule aujourd’hui encore, sont rédigés les ouvrages littéraires ou scientifiques, qui exactement telle qu’elle se présente à nous, n’a peut-être jamais été parlée nulle part en Algérie». (Marçais,
1930, p. 401)

8. «Et des idiomes dont aucun n’a jamais été écrit, mais qui partout et peut être depuis longtemps, constituent la seule langue de la conversation dans tout les milieux populaires ou cultivés». (Marçais, 1930, p. 401)

9. «Une société qui continue à s’exprimer naturellement en arabe Algérien, L’arabe de la quotidienneté et de la sensibilité des peines et de l’émotivité». (Sbaâ, 2002, p. 43)

10. «Wa el-naqawa najidouha fi el-bouniat el-ifradia liilkalimat, amma el-tajawuh fayoulaḥaz fi ellawahiq wa el-sawabiq wa el-qawaḥid el-nahwiya wa el-taḥqiq el-sawti». (Mortad, 2005, p. 37)

11. «Un code nonorganisé, un idiome impur». (Benmayouf, 2009, p. 22)

12. «les langues dont les hommes se servent ou se sont servis». (Benmayouf, 2009, p. 23)

13. «Dés l’age de six ans, l’enfant algérien est immerge dans un bain linguistique écartant ses langues maternelles. D’un coup il s’entend ordonner de ne plus prononcer» la langue de la rue», celle «du souk» ou «élâamya ». C’est pourtant dans cette langue qu’il a appris à développer son imaginaire» (ElWatan 3, 25 December 2014, p. 16)

14. «La société algérienne sent et pense à l’intérieur des normes extérieures à la surnorme. C’est- à- dire extérieures à l’arabe conventionnel, que certains des pans entiers de son imaginaire collectif se trouvent dévalorisés voire occultés». (Sbaâ, 2002, p. 90)

15. «birašid lughawi haḥil». (Mortad, 2005, p. 35)

16. «La langue d’enseignement est artificielle et n’a rien à voir avec la réalité socio-linguistique du locuteur algérien». (El Watan, 2014, December 25, p. 16)

17. «La classe qui est le lieu du dialogue et de la communication, devient le lieu de la censure. Ce climat étouffant caractérisé par les interdits et les sanctions, hostile à la langue familière de l’enfant, va creuser d’avantage le fossé entre le parler de l’enfant et la langue de l’école». (El Watan, 2014 December 25, p. 16)

18. «a fini par consommer ce qui restait de l’identité algérienne». Zoulikha Merrad (El Watan, 2014, December 25, p. 16)

19. «Il en résulte des complexes, tel que le sentiment de culpabilité, l’insécurité linguistique et la haine de soi qui se manifeste dans le discours épilinguistique du locuteur algérien». Ibtissam Chachou (El Watan, 2014, December 25, p. 16)

20. «sun’lugha min asfât el- kalimat el-ťamia». (Bakri, 1999, p.89)
The Author

Fatima Nor El-Houda Dahou (Email: houdhoudta2@yahoo.fr) is a teacher of sociolinguistics at the University of Mustapha Stambouli in Mascara- Algeria. She is also a researcher in sociolinguistics, multilingualism and media discourse. Presently, she is preparing her doctorate in the sociolinguistics of contemporary Arabic in Algeria. She has produced a number of scholarly contributions that concern topics about the Arabic language in the era of globalisation.

References:


**References in Arabic:**


Algerian newspaper articles:


Two approaches to the teaching of grammar and their implications

Tamilla Mammadova, Azerbaijan University of Languages & University
Santiago de Compostela

This study originated from the research work conducted at Azerbaijan University of Languages (AUL), and its purpose was to find out which of the grammar teaching methods could be applied when teaching it to university students. For this, the grammar teaching approaches were roughly divided into explicit grammar presentation based on old methods such as grammar translation, rules-learning, error correction methods, etc., and alternative, implicit ones of which the main target was to raise student's consciousness and their ability to study language and its grammar in a communicative way. The analyses of data obtained from the questionnaires showed that students see more value in traditional grammar presentation although they are in favor of such non-traditional activities as games, grammar through jokes exercises, and other alternative activities as well; however, the results of the final test carried after a six week classroom grammar teaching revealed inappropriateness of using pure traditional or pure alternative grammar teaching methods. Thus, the paper concludes by suggesting a combined approach to grammar teaching excluding pure explicit and implicit methods and techniques in classroom grammar presentation.

Keywords: Alternative Approach; Explicit Teaching; Implicit Teaching; Consciousness-Raising; Grammar Teaching

1. Introduction

This paper is the outcome of the research work recently conducted at Azerbaijan University of Languages (AUL) as an attempt to apply a new grammar teaching approach to a first year University students notwithstanding the old approaches that had been applied for many years and which have been outdated because of their obsolescence and mismatches towards the new trends in modern English grammar presentation.

Grammar is no doubt an integral part of any language. One can hardly master a language accurately without learning its grammar. Language is rule-
governed behavior (Rutherford, 1988, p. 1), so without grammar language would certainly be chaotic (Batstone, 1994, p. 4). The importance of grammar in language teaching has also been mentioned by different scholars (Bley-Vroman 1988; Harmer 1991; Shepherd et. al 1984; Stranks 2003, etc.) who find that grammar is an immensely pervasive phenomenon, and that the development of grammatical competence has an important role in second or foreign language acquisition. Thus, we do not only have to show students what language means, we also have to show them how it is used. (Harmer, 1991, p. 56)

Speaking about the importance of grammar learning, the ways of its teaching should also be defined clearly. Shepherd et al. (1984), for example, are concerned with the question of the extent of grammar elements that are learnt and taught overtly and independently of the various other features of a language. Still, we do not know exactly if grammar should be taught independently or there are some different approaches to its teaching that can provide a good mastering of the language.

Nowadays, when grammar teaching methods have passed such a great way and have been substituted one by another, we can hardly stick to the methods applied at the end of the twentieth century without taking into account any of the progress that took place in all spheres of life and, particularly, in the education system as well. Today, when we deal with international students in our classes, there is no doubt that we cannot use such outdated grammar teaching method as grammar translation which presumes the use of the mother tongue in the class. Thus, we should think carefully which grammar teaching methods to apply in order to achieve productive results.

When talking about the approaches to grammar teaching the question of inductive or deductive grammar teaching methods becomes one of the most crucial ones. The terms explicit and implicit are often substituted by traditional and alternative or deductive and inductive grammar teaching, where the former denotes a conscious analytic awareness of the formal properties of the target language, whereas implicit means an intuitive feeling for what is correct and acceptable. (Bialystok, 1978, p. 70)

Before conducting this research work I have set several important questions which became the main objectives of the project. First of all, I wanted to learn the students’ opinion on the importance of grammar and the ways it should be presented in class. Secondly, I wanted to know which way of grammar teaching might give fruitful results, i.e. pure traditional (explicit) method of grammar teaching, or an alternative (implicit) one. It was also important for me to see the reaction of students on both methods and finally, to analyze their results obtained from the final test specially designed to get answers to my questions.
The first part of this work starts with a brief description of the general importance of grammar teaching in EFL classes for adults which later opposes traditional grammar teaching approach to alternative or ungrammatical one. It then gives an account of a survey which was conducted at Azerbaijan University of Languages with several groups of first year students on grammar teaching. The paper concludes with a discussion on the most appropriate method to be used in the present day English grammar classes.

2. Importance of, and approaches to, teaching EFL grammar

The question of grammar teaching takes a primary role not only in general language teaching process but it is also particularly highlighted in curricula and textbooks used in all institutions where English language is taught. Since grammar cannot be divorced from language teaching and it occupies a considerable part in it, we should emphasize the indisputable importance of grammar teaching in present day English language classes.

Alongside with the importance of the grammar itself, one of the most crucial questions is the ways and methods of its teaching. During the last two centuries different methods of grammar teaching have been applied to the English language (EFL) classes which were displacing one another from time to time. Thus, today, for example, we can speak about communicative or task based approaches to grammar, whereas, not long ago teachers mostly focused on a grammar-translation method. Such a multiple approach to grammar teaching may cause confusion both for teachers and textbook writers, who often get lost while choosing the correct method of grammar presentation.

However, in this work, I would like to speak about two main approaches to grammar teaching, i.e. deductive and inductive approaches, where the former one may be substituted by such terms as explicit or traditional grammar teaching method, and the latter is sometimes called implicit or alternative approach to grammar teaching. Thus, these two methods are often a matter of confusion for teachers as they do not know for sure whether to make students learn grammar rules by heart which is simply to liken it to mathematical formulas, or to totally avoid grammar teaching by making students infer the grammar from different activities without pointing out on grammar terms and rules. Concerning this, Larsen-Freeman (2012, p. 264), on the one hand, speaks about grammaring as a proper goal of grammar instruction that provides an accurate, meaningful and appropriate use of grammar construction, whereas, Krashen (1992, p. 409), for example, considers language to be too complex to be deliberately taught and learned pointing out that the effect of grammar teaching is peripheral and fragile. Consequently, such a dual approach to grammar teaching should be a matter of investigation in order to define which of the methods will be more appropriate in present
day grammar teaching, and for this we need to reveal what each of the
methods denotes.

Thus, what do we mean by traditional grammar teaching? If we go back to the
nineteenth century, we may remember that Henry Sweet was the supporter of
“complete grammar assimilation” and “learning grammar by heart”. He
suggested learning paradigms and syntactic rules which are part of the
grammar translation method. Later in the twentieth century, Sharwood-Smith
(1988) lists a number of techniques used by teachers and textbook writers.
One of these techniques has always been used in traditional grammar
teaching which points out and explains the construction by the use of
grammatical terminology. However, today, a lot of teachers have faced the fact
that a great percentage of the learnt grammar rules happens to be learnt in
vain as students know the rules but do not necessarily apply them when
communicating. If we remember the situation from our own teaching
experience, many teachers will agree that while teaching English language
tense forms students usually acquire only those that more or less correspond
to the forms existing in their mother tongue; as it usually may happen with
the past simple tense form and the present perfect tense form where the later
has no correspondence to such languages, for example, as Azerbaijani or
Russian. Both the past simple and the present perfect tense forms are
translated in these languages in the same way, i.e. by means of the same
verbal construction which is used to express the action in the past. Thus, very
often, students ignore the present perfect since they often find no connection
of this form with that of their mother tongue and at the same time the perfect
construction seems to be much harder than the construction of the past
simple tense. Hence, in this case, the present perfect tense remains in the
students’ mind as mathematical formula, or simply disappears from their
mind because, when necessary, they cannot use it appropriately. Due to this,
we should think deeply on the diversity of methods that will favorably work in
order not only to be able to successfully teach simple present or simple past
which may correspond to many of students native languages, but also to teach
such ‘complicated’ tenses as perfect, perfect continuous, and other useful
grammar phenomena as well. These grammar processes may not be found, for
example, in many Slavic, Turkish, and even some of the European Languages,
but are very important for reproduction of fluent English. Consequently, a
traditional approach to grammar teaching often provides a robot-like rule
learning which later cannot be properly used in real life situations, i.e.
alongside with understanding or memorizing, the learner should use his/her
intuition and the ability to infer the information. Thus, why should we spend
time on teaching something that will not be used in real language production?
On the other hand, it is a known reality that the use of traditional methods
seems easy for some EFL teachers since they have an access to readymade
syllabi, textbooks, and other materials which are still designed with the preference on traditional grammar teaching method.

Nevertheless, today, apart from the traditional method of grammar teaching, we can also refer to alternative ways. Larsen-Freeman (2012) suggests that grammar instruction needs not only to promote awareness in students but also to engage them in meaningful production. So, there has been a tendency to lay stress on the natural language learning ability that every human being has, irrespective of color or class. (Sharwood-Smith, 1988, p. 55) Such tendency is vastly spreading year after year in the field of language learning and especially in English grammar learning. The idea of avoiding traditional grammar explanation is imposing on teachers the creation of misunderstanding and often wrong approaches to the whole process of grammar teaching itself. Such new trend in present-day grammar teaching performs under the heading ‘conscious-raising approach’, and presumes the response of the students to language by noticing particular features of grammar and by coming to the conclusion that can help them organize their perception of language (Palacios 2007, p. 4). Thus, According to Rutherford (1988, p. 107), 'by consciousness raising we mean the deliberate attempt to draw the learner’s attention specifically to the formal properties of the languages'. This scholar also points out that in this case formal grammar has a minimal or even non-existent role to play in language pedagogy.

In order to speak about the conscious-raising ability of an adult learner, it is important to compare them to a child learner. There were a lot of research works concerning the ability of both adults and children to learn grammar and foreign languages in general which concluded that both of them have different approaches to it. The fact that a young child may not have a hypothetical possibility to the same degree, that is, learning via explicit knowledge, puts him/her at a disadvantage when compared with the mature learner (Sharwood-Smith, 1988, p. 52), whereas adult foreign language learning is much more like general adult learning than it is like child language development (Bley-Vroman, 1988, p. 19). Thus, it is quite clear that at a definite age the ability of acquiring any sort of information fades away giving way to such abilities as learning, comparing, analyzing, understanding, contrasting, etc. which are particularly important for foreign language learners in an adult age.

Chalker (1984, p. 7) says that rules are somewhere there in the language more or less ready formulated, waiting to be dug up, and it may be quite natural to learn languages in a purely intuitive manner. However, how long will it take to amass a sufficient amount of implicit knowledge and the appropriate skills for using it? (Sharwood-Smith, 1988, p. 52) One may agree that when learning a foreign language in an adult age, it might be too hard to
acquire the whole ‘course of grammar’ without any explanation by just making some inferences or using intuition. Thus, the danger of pure alternative method is that grammar may be presented as a collection of fragments (Chalker, 1984, p. 7), and not as a whole course. Hence, two main approaches ‘traditional and alternative’ seem to be opposing each other, both of which having their pros and cons.

3. Research goals and questions

The present research work has the following purposes: first of all, it investigates the impact of grammar teaching methods on the ability of students to acquire the proposed grammar patterns either in implicit or explicit way or the both. Secondly, it seems extremely important to analyze students’ responses concerning the general importance of grammar and its teaching in EFL classes. Finally, the ultimate goal for this research is to provide insights and implications for the use of both implicit and explicit grammar teaching approaches which later will give us ground to build more feasible university curricula for EFL classes. The above purposes give rise to the following research questions:

1. What will be the reaction of students in terms of classroom participation in groups taught implicitly and in groups taught explicitly?
2. According to the final test, which of the groups will obtain better results: those taught pure explicitly or those taught pure implicitly?
3. How do students feel about general grammar teaching as one of the main parts of EFL teaching?

4. Method

4.1. Participants

Seventy two students at the Faculty of English Language Philology at Azerbaijan University of Languages participated in the study. The age of the students ranged from 18 to 20 years; 85 percent of them were female. The level of the students varied between B1 and B2 according to CEFR (Common European framework of references 2001). The participants were quite aware of being under the experiment and were very collaborative and enthusiastic to have several grammar classes which were out of their curriculum. Although the selected grammar was taken from level B2 textbooks, according to the AUL curriculum the selected grammar themes were supposed to be taught in the third term and were not included into the program of the second semester. Still, the level of the selected grammar was not that high and could be easily grasped by students. The grammar samples were selected according to the level of its significance in English language grammar and CEFR as well,
and later on could be substituted by any other grammar patterns since the main target of the work was directly the determination of the students' reaction on each method of grammar teaching and particularly the investigation of the final results that could show which approach worked better.

4.2. Materials

Several instruments were used in the experiment: 1) a general pre-test that covered the questions on five major grammatical themes (the present perfect versus present perfect continuous, the passive, the conditionals, the future perfect versus future perfect continuous and direct versus indirect speech) was given at the beginning of the project. 2) According to the test results two grammatical topics, i.e. conditionals and the future perfect continuous were selected for the experiment since these were the grammatical topics that the students were not aware of. Hence, the material was designed in two ways, i.e. implicitly and explicitly. 3) A final test targeted at revealing the comprehension of both conditionals and the future perfect tense by two groups both taught explicitly and implicitly. 4) Finally, student’s questionnaire (see appendix 1) revealed the student's attitude towards general grammar learning and the importance of grammar in EFL classrooms.

The pre-test consisted of fifty questions and included 5 main grammatical topics (ten questions per each topic). Each question had four possible options with only one correct answer. The questions in the test were designed in the following way: the first six questions were on the present perfect versus present perfect continuous tense, this was followed by questions on passive constructions, the next six questions were on conditionals and then six questions on future perfect vs. future perfect continues; finally six more questions covered direct speech vs reported speech.

The materials were designed on two grammatical subjects, i.e. the conditionals (first, second and third) and the future perfect continuous. One and the same grammatical topic was formed in two different directions: traditional grammar teaching that presumed grammar patterns via Power Point presentation, exercises, listening activities, etc., and the alternative way which comprised games, exercises and communication activities, video activities, etc.

The final test consisted of two grammatical themes which were previously taught in class and included forty questions that covered the conditionals and the future perfect continuous. The questions were designed in direct order, i.e. twenty five questions (from one to twenty five) on conditionals, fifteen questions (from twenty six to forty) on the future perfect continuous tense form. The format of the questions was multiple choice, that is, each question
had three answer choices with only one correct answer.

The students’ questionnaire was organized according to four main sections. The first one contained three questions on the importance of grammar; the next six were concerned with the students’ opinions on different possibilities to avoid strict grammar rules learning. Questions from ten to twelve referred to the importance of the deductive approach; and the last three emphasized the importance of the inductive approach. In general there were fifteen questions to be evaluated according to a five point scale where 5 meant a full agreement on the matter and 1 meant full disagreement on it.

4.3. Procedures

The idea to conduct this research project struck me while I was working on literature review for the second part of my PhD thesis. The more I was getting into the grammar teaching approaches, the more I became interested in the results that could be obtained after teaching one and the same grammatical patterns to the students of the same level but in two different ways. The data collection was carried out at Azerbaijan University of Languages in the second term of the academic year 2013-2014 and lasted for six weeks. Thus, the most appropriate groups to be selected for the experiment were the first year university students since they were in the process of acquiring grammar. Seventy two students were divided into six groups of twelve students in each. Later on the six groups were divided into two subgroups: those three groups to be taught implicitly and other three to be taught the same grammar patterns but explicitly.

The first step of the research project was the administration of a grammar test that could reveal the grammatical topics that had not been previously taught to those students. Students were given an hour to complete fifty questions with multiple answers. Having analyzed the students’ answers, the new topics happened to be the *conditionals* and the *future perfect continuous*. Resting upon this, four extra (out-of-curriculum) classes were set for each group. Two classes were to teach the *conditionals*, whereas other two targeted on teaching the *future perfect continuous*.

In order to simplify the description of the groups, I will provisionally call them *explicit groups* (*EG*) groups and *implicit groups* (*IG*). Thus, *EG* were presented the grammar in a traditional way, i.e. with complete grammatical explanations, naming each of the patterns by its name, whereas *IG* had to elicit the grammatical patterns using their consciousness-raising abilities. It should be pointed out that the duration of every lesson was an hour. Consequently, in total, each of the six groups had 4 hours of classes. As already mentioned, the main concern of this study was to conduct an experiment whose main purpose was elicitation of the best approach to grammar teaching. In *EG* I
tried to follow the strict deductive approach by giving the students, first of all, direct grammar rules preceded by the name of the topic written on the board. The rules were given in the form of patterns and samples (see the examples in appendix 2). The reaction of the students to such an approach was very positive since it was an ordinary method of grammar presentation to them. Later, the students successfully fulfilled the tasks eliciting the already learned patterns.

When it came to the teaching of IG in inductive way I had to face much unexpected and even unfavorable reaction. At first, I did not mention any grammar topic and did not give even a hint on any previously learnt grammar rules. We started from the game on conditionals where the students had to walk around the class in order to find the second halves of the first, second and third conditional sentences that they had already been distributed. Instead of eight minutes for this activity, the students spent fifteen minutes, but still the results were very unsatisfying. Later on, after all sentences were brought together, the students tried to elicit the grammatical patterns, but they immediately got stuck between the second and the third conditional. Nearly seventy percent of the group was completely unaware of what was happening in the class, even if they tried to be as much involved as they could. Still it was quite evident that such an approach could only confuse them. However, this reaction did not stop me from going till the end: all grammar that was supposed to be taught happened to be taught, however, the students’ answers and exercise results were still vague, unsure and almost wrong. No doubt that I was completely unsatisfied with such reaction of the students which showed that the inductive method brought me and the student to nothing positive. It was even useless to wait for the final test in order to see the results since they were already completely disappointing. On the other hand, I totally understood that students are not accustomed to such grammar presentation and that they preferred an overt explanation rather than eliciting something they have no idea about. Moreover, I completely realized that it was impossible that the inductive method did not work at all. Thus, in order to bring these two possibilities together, I decided to mix the methods and present them in a new way to the same groups of students which earlier I had taught inductively. Thus, we started from the games and exercises again; however, this time, after the activities, I informed the students about my grammar intentions and particularly of those grammar patterns that I wanted them to acquire. The students immediately started eliciting the patterns comparing them to the grammar rules they already knew. The picture had totally changed: students became more enthusiastic and inspired; the answers and exercises happened to be much more meaningful and reasonable. It was particularly evident while working on future perfect continuous. Working with the timeline graphs and pictures (see the example
in appendix 2) gave them a chance not only to learn new grammatical tense form but also to revise other tenses and to be able to differentiate their structure and usage on real examples. Still, even if the mixed method worked much better than the inductive approach, I was quite sure that EG would show higher results in their final test.

At the end, a final test on both grammar patterns was given. The students were given an hour to complete forty questions on targeted grammar. Later on, they were asked to tick fifteen questions in twenty ten minutes, evaluating the answers according to a five point scale where five was the highest mark.

5. Data analysis

The current work carries out the analysis of two types of data. First of all we will analyze the results obtained from the final test, secondly, the analysis of the students’ questionnaires will be carried out.

**Final test data**

The first level is to check the final test of each of the students and to sort the works out according to the groups they belonged to (EG and IG). In order to calculate the percentage presented in the table 1, I applied to the quantitative approach and got the general numbers.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>EG Out of 100 %</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>IG Out of 100 %</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Group 1</td>
<td>53</td>
<td></td>
<td>Group 1</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group 2</td>
<td>51</td>
<td></td>
<td>Group 2</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group 3</td>
<td>62</td>
<td></td>
<td>Group 3</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<p>| | | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>55.3%</td>
<td></td>
<td>78.3%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thus, the total points of each of the students, first in EG and then in IG, were added and the total number was divided by the number of students participating in each of the group. In this way I could see which of the groups, i.e. EG or IG scored more. Thus, according to the table 1, it can be clearly seen that those groups that were taught in a mixed way scored more than those which were taught in a pure explicit (deductive way). If we try to elicit a general number from each of the group type, we will get a total 55.3% for EG and 78.3% for IG. The numbers were obtained after adding the general scores of the each group and dividing it by three. It should be pointed out that at this stage we do not deal with the comparison of purely deductive (explicit) and purely inductive (implicit) ways of teaching grammar since in the process of the experiment due to the fact that the students could not manage with a purely inductive grammar presentation, we had to employ a new way of
grammar teaching which involved the traits of both implicit and explicit grammar teaching.

Hence, the total percentage of EG is more than twenty percent lower than the total percentage of IG, provided that EG have faced nothing new but an ordinary explicit grammar explanation and drills.

**Questionnaire Data**

Before presenting the data it should be stressed out that the percentage in each question type is obtained by the multiplication of the points the students gave for each question and then division of the total number to the number of students.

Questions 1, 2, 3: Questions on the importance of grammar

Regarding the general importance of grammar itself, there is a slight contrast between the answers. Most of the students admit the indisputable importance of the grammar for correct English. They identify it as the basis of fluent English and some students even consider it to be the main instrument that enables the learner “to see the structure of the language that helps in achieving the accuracy”. The total result shows that 77 percent of students support the importance of grammar in the present-day language teaching.

Questions 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9: Questions on the possibility to avoid strict grammar rules learning

It is quite evident that most of the students agree that strict grammatical rules learning looks like learning a mathematical formula and that there is no point in learning by heart the detached grammatical rules without any understanding of their ways of usage, since sooner or later these rules will fly away. Still, the majority of students consider grammar learning to be an inseparable part of language learning and they fully agree that grammar should not be learnt separately but in a context so that it gives them a feeling for the language and its four main skills. Thus, 73 percent of students think that grammar should be learned together with other language skills such as reading, writing, speaking, or listening but not as a separate language area.

Questions 10, 11, 12: Questions suggesting the deductive approach to grammar teaching

Apart from the importance of grammar in language teaching, one of the crucial matters was the understanding of the students’ preferences on the way they would like grammar to be taught to them, i.e. whether it should be taught inductively or deductively. Questions from 10 to 12 were constructed in the way to identify if grammar should be taught in an overt, i.e. deductive way. The striking point was that the answers on this matter were very
different to the answers on the possibility of avoidance of strict grammar rules learning. Thus, 92 percent of students agreed that grammar should firstly be explained by a teacher in an open way and only after that it may be put into practice.

Questions 13, 14, 15: Questions suggesting the inductive approach to grammar teaching

According to the answers obtained from questions from 10 to 12, there is even no need to emphasize that the inductive way of grammar presentation seemed very distant to students. Most of them disagree that teachers should not spend time on grammar explanation and they even do not find those explanations to be boring and useless. When it comes to games, the students’ opinions are divided: some of them maintain that games are a good way of presenting grammar whereas others find them completely useless and even not appropriate for adult teaching.

The percentage of the questionnaire items is presented in the Table 2 below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ITEM</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Questions 1, 2, 3: Questions on grammar importance</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Questions 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9: Questions on possibility to avoid strict grammar rules learning</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Questions 10, 11, 12: Questions suggesting deductive approach to grammar teaching</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Questions 13, 14, 15: Questions suggesting inductive approach to grammar teaching</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thus, according to the table 2, most of the students keep to the idea that grammar is important, whereas most of them also think that strict grammar rules should be avoided. In total, the most expected answer is the rejection of inductive approach, which has scored 48 percent in all.

6. Results and discussion

In this section, the results of each question are presented and followed by a discussion.

Research Question 1: What will be the reaction of students in terms of classroom participation in groups taught implicitly and in groups taught explicitly?

Initially, the idea to teach grammar to the groups in two different ways, i.e. implicit and explicit, did not become totally possible since the implicit method
of grammar presentation failed from the very beginning and had to be substituted by a mixed grammar teaching method which combined both the deductive and the inductive grammar teaching approaches in itself. The reaction of EG was very good since the method was absolutely familiar and ordinary for the students. The grammar was presented in the explicit way when the teacher presented the rule and the patterns, and explained the use of the rules, which was accompanied by the drillings and exercises in a traditional way, using such techniques as gap filling exercises, multiple choice, sentence merge, questions and answers provoking student’s knowledge on earlier learnt grammar rules, i.e. the activities were designed in accordance with the CEFR (2001, p. 152).

Unlike the EG, the situation in IG was much more complicated. From the very beginning the students got confused. All the attempts of the teacher to elicit the understanding of the taught material was equal to zero. Students were proposed different activities such as games, communicative tasks, etc., where they had to demonstrate their awareness of the previously seen patterns. However, every pronounced sentence was accompanied by mistakes.

Thus, the overall view of the classes in IG was quite expected because it was affected by the fact that the students were not accustomed to such a new way of being taught since they always expected the teacher to reveal the grammar intention in order to do some kind of grammar association and visualization. Later I will try to explain these ideas and their meaning for learners of AUL.

Research question 2: According to the final test, which of the groups will obtain better results: those taught pure explicitly or those taught pure implicitly?

The results of the final test show that EG students got total 55.3% whereas IG students obtained 78.3%. The unexpectedness of the results comes out from the fact that during the class, students taught in deductive way seemed to be fully aware of those grammatical patterns that were presented in an overt and explanatory way. Their reaction on tasks and activities seemed to be quicker than in those groups that were taught half implicitly, half explicitly. Another important point was that IG students managed to complete the final test 10 minutes earlier than groups EG students which also points on their better acquisition of the target grammar in a mixed way rather than in a pure traditional way. The general observation proved once again that apart from the general understanding of the grammar such important ability as retaining this grammar in the mind plays an important role in language learning.

Concerning such terms as I happened to use before, i.e. association and visualization of grammar, the experience of working with university students gives me ground to assume that L2 students usually consider grammar as a
sequence of rules built in their minds. This sequence begins from the simplest grammar patterns to the most difficult ones. We can clearly see this sequence of grammar analyzing the division of grammatical themes by levels proposed by CEFR. Hence, resting upon this, when we broke this sequence in IG class, the students were lost in the questions what they main grammar target was. Next, it should be pointed out that language learning in Azerbaijan starts from elementary school where the learners are accustomed to an explicit way of language presentation. That is why, such a sharp change to a new wave made them feel confused. Such kind of experiment made most of the teachers, especially general English language teachers and English grammar teachers in particular reconsider their approaches to teaching. The most important step in the whole project was the realization of the idea to teach students in a mixed way, i.e. to try out both explicit and implicit methods which have been later discussed by the university teachers and viewed as a new possible way in the teaching methodology.

Research question 3: How do students feel about general grammar teaching as one of the main parts of EFL teaching?

Along with the written questioning, the teacher had a chance to have some oral discussions with the groups on the importance of grammar teaching itself and the ways of it to be presented. Thus, as could be seen from the table 2, the students prefer explicit grammar teaching to an implicit one. When it comes to the general importance on grammar teaching and avoiding strict grammar rules teaching, the students’ answers seem to be very vague, since there is a very slight difference in the obtained percentage. This urged us to have an oral questioning the main target of which was eliciting the ideas of students on the importance of grammar learning and particularly rules learning. The oral questioning shows that most of the students are keen on grammar explanation. According to the answers it seems extremely hard to elicit grammar out of the context and for some students it is even impossible to continue the already existing sequence of rules which had been established in their minds before. As it comes to the teaching of grammar rules, students are very positive about grammar learning, however they do not agree with rules learning which reminds them a useless knowledge not to be used in a real life communication. Hence, talking about grammar learning it should not equate with rules learning but new ways and approaches that have to be applied for this.

Thus, comparing pure explicit and pure implicit methods of grammar presentation and practice, it should be mentioned that alongside with the strict grammar rules and explanations students should be given a chance to do their own inference and associations which will let them not only understand the pattern and remember it for a short period of time, but by
means of elicitation and inference be able to come to some definite conclusions retaining the gained knowledge in the mind which will not fly away in a short period of time. On the other hand, it is not completely possible to let students elicit all the grammatical patterns that are taught to them. The fact that a pure implicit approach had failed in the experimented classes once again proves that such a new form of grammar presentation, first of all, may confuse students, and they may simply get lost. First of all, a pure alternative approach cannot work because it should be imposed to students from their childhood, but not in the second term of university life when they already have a clear view of grammar; hence it is hard to face with some constructions that are not explained to them. Secondly, students should totally be aware of grammatical topics and patterns that the teacher wants them to acquire. This should be done in order to continue building the already existing ideas that will let students understand the sequence of the subject of grammar; otherwise, grammar may appear in mind in the form of chopped fragments.

7. Conclusion

The whole process has shown that, first of all, dealing with university students who have created for themselves a certain way of acquiring the language. It is no longer a surprise to see that a totally implicit method of grammar teaching did not work at all; also there are some reasons explaining some disadvantages of pure explicit method as well. Thus, in order to show the pros and cons of each of the methods I would like to go into some details beginning from inductive method.

- First of all, the students selected for the experiment have always been taught in a deductive way beginning from their primary school up to the present, and a drastic change to an implicit method could not be accepted in such a short time.
- Secondly, it has been a question of study for a long time that the ability of adults to elicit information at a certain age becomes weaker, giving way to such sophisticated abilities as learning, understanding, parsing, analyzing, etc., unlike a child who can easily acquire the language by means of elicitation.
- Thirdly, the inductive method of grammar presentation could easily be applied to language course students of elementary and beginner levels who had never dealt with language learning before and had nothing to compare. However, as we deal with the adults who already found their way to master grammar, it will be weird to burst into their world of already established strategy of grammar learning (i.e. traditional grammar learning) by making them forget about previously learnt grammar rules and asking to infer it from all tasks and activities that
are supposed to be done during the lesson. It is not for nothing when Sharwood-Smith (1988, p. 52) says that it is notoriously difficult to deny adult learners explicit information about the target language since their intellectual maturity as well as their previous teaching/learning experience makes them cry out for explanations.

- Finally, we, have no rights to break the already existing sequence of grammar ideas in students’ minds and to make them guess what we want them to acquire. These are the possible explanations that may justify such a failure of inductive method.

Nevertheless, there are also some factors that did not let the deductive method play safe.

- Today, when the language borders are so transparent, i.e. the language learning materials are available both in software and paper, when it became possible to pick up language by communicating with the native speaker of English, or, when students merely can acquire the language elsewhere, there is no need to instruct them like robots. Students must be given a chance to think on their own and sometimes to be able to infer this or that information by themselves.

- A fully deductive method looks like a routine, i.e. all new grammar patterns start from strict explanations and continue with drillings and other activities. Such kind of approach may bring to discouragement and boredom.

- Moreover, the same teaching method may seem so monotonous that a large percent of information may simply drop from students’ mind, as happened in my case. At first sight, the patterns taught in class seemed to be quite clear and understandable for students; however, as it came to the test, the students got lost in the bulk of recently learned rules and structures, which brought to insufficient test results.

These are just some of the reasons that may explain the disadvantages of such pure methods as inductive and deductive.

Concerning the students’ general opinion on grammar learning, the results show that today students seem to get lost in the question whether to learn grammar and its rules as it is an important component of language learning, or to avoid grammar by substituting it by some different language skills. This fact is not surprising since, on the one hand, students realize that ‘grammar free’ language learning deprives them from being fluent and accurate; on the other hand, students seem to be bored with the monotonous grammar rules and drillings. When it comes to the approaches that may be used to present grammar, still a lot of learners are keen on overt teachers’ explanations and
prefer doing grammar exercises than playing the grammar games the main
target of which is sometimes vague and unclear.

Thus, the whole experiment shows that grammar is still very important in the
curriculum programs and cannot be divorced from them. At the same time, it
became evident that inductive way as a pure method of grammar teaching
should be avoided in classes and especially in those classes where students
are accustomed to grammar explanations. However, the main results obtained
from the teaching experiment and the final test shows, that in order to
increase the interaction of the approaches and techniques used in the class
first of all, we should increase the motivation to the learning of grammar, and
secondly, which is the most important, to raise the level of students’ grammar
understanding and acquisition.

All in all, the general outcomes must be considered preliminary since there
are a lot of factors that prevent this work from being really conclusive. First of
all, the number of students was very limited and it is quite possible that in
other groups the results could be much better or vice versa. Secondly, it would
be much easier to work in regular-curriculum groups than to be a guest
instructor, so that more time and opportunity could be allotted to go into
depth of the intended project. Moreover, the grammar topics selected for the
project cannot be considered sufficient, as we cannot teach all grammar in the
same way, and definitely, each teacher must select approaches for presenting
this or that grammar patterns.

In total, the project can be considered to be a good jerk in further
investigations in this direction. The main conclusion is that, today, due to
some previously mentioned factors, the teaching of grammar needs some
combinations of its teaching approaches in order to be more appealing and
productive for students. Consequently, neither pure explicit grammar teaching
nor pure implicit grammar teaching method can be considered satisfactory.
So, the teachers should think of alternative ways that can improve the general
state of present-day grammar teaching to accelerate and ameliorate the level
of grammar knowledge which is so important for language learning and by
this build a bridge to the future where we may think about avoidance of
grammar teaching in general.

The Author

Tamilla Mammadova (Email: tamillamamedova@mail.ru), is a PhD in
linguistics, and the author of Modern English Lexicology course book as well as
articles on applied linguistics, member of SPERUS research group in Spain,
Santiago de Compostela, and an active presenter of the international
conferences in general and applied linguistics.
References


Appendix 1: Students’ Questionnaire

Please rate the statements according to the 5 point scale:
5- fully agree; 4- agree; 3- not sure; 2- disagree; 1- totally disagree

Questions on grammar importance
1. Grammar is necessary for correct English. 1 2 3 4 5
2. Grammar is always important and is a basis of fluent English. 1 2 3 4 5
3. Grammar is necessary to enable you see the structure of the language and hopefully to achieve accuracy. 1 2 3 4 5

Questions on possibility to avoid strict grammar rules learning
4. Strict learning of grammatical rules become something dead looking like mathematical formula 1 2 3 4 5
5. Although grammar is always important, it happens too often that you learn rules and they remain theory. 1 2 3 4 5
6. There is no point to learn grammatical rules. Anyway, they will fly away. 1 2 3 4 5
7. Grammar is a good compliment to other ways of learning, but the most important way is to speak English and to be exposed to English in different ways. 1 2 3 4 5
8. Grammar is important but the main emphasis should be on the active use of four language skills, i.e. reading, listening, writing and speaking. 1 2 3 4 5
9. It is extremely important to learn the language in real situation so that you get a feeling for the language that is really your own. 1 2 3 4 5

Questions suggesting deductive approach to grammar teaching
10. Grammar rules should always be learned by heart. 1 2 3 4 5
11. To understand grammar, first, I need teacher’s explanation, examples, and drilling exercises. 1 2 3 4 5
12. I prefer the teacher to explain the rules as deeply as possible, so that I can make a list of notes in my copybook. 1 2 3 4 5

Questions suggesting inductive approach to grammar teaching
13. It should be better if the teacher didn’t spend so much time for grammar explanation. 1 2 3 4 5
14. Eliciting grammar from the context is more interactive than listening to the boring teacher’s explanations of grammatical rules. 1 2 3 4 5
15. Games are so good for understanding grammatical patterns. 1 2 3 4 5

Thanks a lot for your assistance!
Appendix 2

Sample grammatical patterns and exercises using deductive approach:

CONDITIONALS

Zero Conditional: If it rains, I will not go out.

First Conditional: If you invited me to your birthday party, I would be so happy.

Second Conditional: If you had told me the secret, I would have helped you.

I wish & If only

- Use wish (+that) or if only + simple past/past continuous to express regret about the present or the future.

Example: All political parties wish they had more women. (=But they don’t have more women)

- Use wish (=that) or If only + past perfect to express regret about the past.

Example: I wish that we’d introduced the system 100 years ago. (=but we didn’t introduce it then)

Tasks!

I. Find the best variant

1. If only they introduced/d introduced/were introducing the quota system earlier! It would have been so much better.

2. She must be wishing she tells/’d told/ told the truth at the start.

3. If only we are able to/ can/ could get more women interested in politics.

4. I wish I am living/live/was living in a country like Denmark.

5. I wish you don’t vote/ didn’t vote/ hadn’t voted for her!

6. She’s probably wishing she is/were/had been the prime minister.

II. Rewrite the sentences beginning with the words given

1. I really regret eating so much.
I wish __________________

2. I’d love to have more money.
If only __________________

3. I’m sorry that I can’t help you.
I wish __________________
4. It’s a shame you’re not here.
I wish __________________

5. It’s a real pity that I listened to him.
If only __________________

III. Connect the parts

1. ___ If you don’t sleep enough, a. people can’t hear you
2. ___ If the oven is too hot, b. you will feel tired
3. ___ If you study hard, c. you will get sunburned
4. ___ If you eat too much, d. you will get fat
5. ___ If you stay in the sun too long, e. you will get good grade
6. ___ If you work out, f. you will get stronger
7. ___ If you speak too quietly, g. the food will burn

IV. Put the verb in the brackets into the correct form

1. If I go out with my friends tonight, I .......(not watch) the football match on TV.
2. If I ....... ...(have) a lot of money, I would donate some part to orphans.
3. She .............. (come) to our party, if she hadn’t been on holiday.
4. If you had switched on the lights, I ...........(fall) over the chair.
5. It wouldn’t surprise me if I ...........(know) the answer.
6. If she hurries, we ...........(not miss) the train.
7. I would be so happy if she ...........(be) to her birthday party! Diana will be there.
8. If only you .... (can) hear what I tell you!
9.. Some people wish they ....... (fly)
10. I ............ (open) the door if I had known his being a theft.

Sample grammatical patterns and exercises using inductive approach:

I. Read the text and answer the questions

Leyla is a very lucky girl. She always plans everything in advance and achieves all her goals. Last year she finished her school and started preparing for University. This year she has entered the AUL and feels very proud of it. Leyla has a lot of plans for the next year (2015). First of all, in January, she will go to
a *6-months computer course* and learn the main computer programs. Leyla knows that by the end of 2015 she *will be working in a mobile company*. She also knows that by the mid of 2015 *she will have finished her computer course* and will have got her certificate. She is also going to participate in an international language competition, 2015, for 2nd year University students as by that time *she will have been studying at AUL for 2 years*.

1) Does Leyla study at school now?
2) When did she enter the University?
3) What will she start her computer course?
4) Will she attend computer course at the end of 2015?
5) Will she be studying at University in 2015?
6) When will she finish studying at University?
7) By 2016, how long she will have been studying at University?

**Now, let’s create Leyla’s timeline**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>2013</th>
<th>2014</th>
<th>2015</th>
<th>2016</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

*II. Choose the best picture to each of the sentence and analyse it!*

- ✖ ➔ Finished action
- ~ ➔ Action in progress

1) I will come to the party tomorrow.
2) By November you will have been studying here at AUL for more than 1 year.
3) By this time next year I will have finished my studies in London.
4) I will be waiting for you at the bus station at 5 p.m. tomorrow.
Using learner corpora in language teaching
Tsoghihk GRIGORYAN, British University in Dubai, UAE

The proliferation of text in electronic form on iPads or computers offers language teachers and learners an enormous range of materials, which might be used for language teaching and learning purposes. As educational technology becomes more available, and as language teachers become more comfortable with using mobile devices in their teaching, the ways in which corpora can be used for language teaching through technology will continue to develop and update. The only aspect that will never change is the requirement to match learning objectives and teaching resources by using appropriate materials to meet teaching and learning goals. Learner corpora are one more tool toward that goal. In a paperless classroom, where paper and pen are totally out of use and students have mobile devices, such as iPads, at hand creating an electronic version or mini corpus of student papers can offer a selection of electronic activities for interacting with vocabulary. This study aims to discuss and look at different ways of using learner corpora in L2 students' vocabulary development and practice, particularly concentrating on the corpus analysis toolkit called AntConc.

Keywords: EFL; Paperless Classroom; Activity Theory; Corpora; AntConc

1. Introduction

The various ways to introduce hands-on corpus to the language classroom are as diverse as the language classes themselves. Corpus-informed resources will not address all the challenges of language teaching. However, they will add to the resources available for language teachers and enhance learner motivation. Friginal (2006; in Tomlinson, 2011) explains that, even after an ESP writing course, students reported that they continued to use the specialized corpus to check word choices and the structures that they were using in their class papers (p. 44). Corpus analysis is not a new concept. It dates back to the 1990s, when John and King designed corpus linguistic materials for language learners and named it Data-Driven Learning. “[Data-driven learning is] the use of computer-generated concordances to get students to explore regularities of patterning in the target language, and the development of activities and exercises based on concordance output” (Johns & Kings, 1991 in

Corpus compiling is a pragmatic approach that language teachers can implement differently to meet learner objectives. AntConc is one of the available software programs which include concordance and word frequency generators. According to Anthony (2004, p. 1), “It is a freeware, multi-platform, multi-purpose corpus analysis toolkit, designed specifically for use in the classroom.” Ng’s (2006) study is a vivid example of compiling learner corpus using AntConc concordance analysis toolkit for essay writing. The study looks at learner corpora and introduces ways for Malaysian English teachers to compile their students’ essays and utilize the corpus. By doing this, teachers identify their students’ language errors and detect low frequency words and then generate lists for redrafting their essays. Different study is conducted by Murphy (2014), who highlights the pedagogical importance of implementing editing activities in advanced English language courses using AntConc. In this study students work with specialized corpora and edit documents themselves. The course touches upon the editing process, using corpora for clarifying language uncertainties and exploring the language itself. Another valuable study is reported by Park (2014), who focuses on corpora for language assessment. It argues that corpora can be a valuable tool in designing standardized language tests. The study suggests that corpus based approaches will increase test validity and reliability, and which is more, they will elicit valid assessment criteria based on linguistically grounded profiles of the target and the learner languages.

Different theoretical grounds point to different practices of corpora as resources for language teaching. Widdowson (1993; in Candlin, 1997) explain that “... as the objective of pedagogy is to enable the learner to use the foreign language, proposals for corpus use must be justified in relation to theories of what that ability consists of and how it is acquired” (p. 51). Perhaps, the most practical pedagogical use of corpora is to use them as classroom materials, which the teacher can choose from and adapt according to learning objectives. Candlin (1997) suggests two kinds of operations for materials design using corpora: texts with particular characteristics, such as text retrievals and smaller contexts exemplifying particular linguistic phenomena, such as concordance lines. Tomlinson (2011), on the other hand, suggests building a corpus of student papers and using it in class activities and tasks, such as comparing, filtering or studying various language features. Similarly, Ng (2006) explains that, “Using actual learners’ language to highlight and rectify language problems will be more memorable and realistic to students” (p. 1). Besides, “Working directly from the data, searching for patterns, investigating what is actually there, is a secure and relatively unthreatening activity” (Tomlinson, 2011, p. 73).
Literature review revealed different ways and suggestions of using different corpora. However, there are limited studies, which have actually used AntConc corpus analysis toolkit for language teaching purposes. Moreover, there is a gap in literature on using learner corpora for EFL vocabulary development. Literature is also silent about looking into learner corpora in a paperless EFL classroom. Some authors, such as Howard (2010) and Park (2014) suggest further research, which would touch upon the use of learner corpora as source of classroom material. Therefore, this study will contribute to literature by trying to shed light on the ways learner corpora could be used in paperless classroom to promote EFL learners’ vocabulary skills.

2. Theoretical framework

Activity Theory was founded by Soviet psychologists Vygotsky, Lurija, Rubinstein and Leontev in the 1930s. Their idea was that activity was a fundamental philosophical and psychological concept because it was the essential notion in any viable philosophical anthropology. Hence, the statement that humans were active creatures was not to be simply registered as an empirical observation. It was never denied by any philosopher that humans act. Yet, it was a statement about the very nature of thought and its behavior on the world.

![Diagram of a complex model of an activity system](image_url)

*Figure 1. A complex model of an activity system. (Esch & John, 2004, p. 57)*

Later, after the 1970s, Engestrom added societal and contextual dimensions to Vygotsky’s model and “[broadened] the process by linking the idea of activity systems to concept of context, stating that contexts are activity systems” (Engestrom, 1993; in Esch & John, 2004, p. 56). The main concept of this
approach is that the individual actions occur in relation to three factors: the available tools, the community and the labor distribution in that community. It explains that the subject implements a tool to perform cognitive functions and cannot directly act on the object (Figure 1, above).

AT has been used as a framework in limited educational studies. Esch and John’s (2004) qualitative study is one of them, where the authors examine a case of a peer-revision in a Spanish foreign language course. This action research is an example of AT analysis of educational innovation designed and implemented by the language teachers themselves. Literature is full of suggestions by educational theorists, such as Barbara Rogoff, Jerome Bruner and others, on possible uses of AT in educational theory, as well as in human-computer interaction design. As Koschmann (1998) explains, several publications encourage designers of computer-based artifacts to turn to AT as a framework for analyzing user requirements. Consequently, Nardi (1996) represents an important point of entry for educational researchers in instructional technology and artifact design to investigate what AT is and how the field evolves. Following the above mentioned suggestions, the present study will take AT as its theoretical framework with the following conceptual framework (Figure 2):

![Figure 2. Current learner corpora for vocabulary development.](image)

3. Research Method

This study is qualified as qualitative for many reasons. It aims at looking into the possibilities of creating mini learner corpus and creating electronic activities for EFL students’ vocabulary development. In qualitative research, the main goal is to understand the perspectives of the participants. “With the research goal of interpreting the social world from the perspectives of those
who are actors in that social world, it follows that research methods include interacting with people in their social contexts and talking with them about their perceptions” (Glesne, 2011, p. 8). In this study, the data is used to form concepts moving towards exploring ways of EFL learners’ vocabulary development in paperless classroom.

Since vocabulary development using learner corpora is a problem to be understood in the context of EFL paperless classroom setting, a descriptive, single-case design study is chosen as a form of a qualitative inquiry. As Stake (1995, p. 11) argues, “Case study is the study of the particularity and complexity of a single case, coming to understand its activity within important circumstances.” The case study allows for examination of patterns of mini corpus development and its implementation in vocabulary materials design and its context is crucial in investigating the research question.

The site of the case study was a tertiary level women’s college in Al Ain, the United Arab Emirates. The site consisted of several major programs, one of which was called Foundations program. It consisted of four levels of English proficiency groups: elementary: level one, pre-intermediate: level two, intermediate: level three and advanced: level four. The course was designed to improve EFL students’ English language skills. One group of 10 students was purposefully selected for the study. The students were 17-20 year old Emirati girls. Their English level of proficiency was determined to be pre-intermediate due to the standardized placement and diagnostic tests administered by the institution in the beginning of the program. The group was taught by the researcher. The students had two English periods daily and each period lasted for 50 minutes.

Students’ classroom was digital, furnished with interactive white board, marker board, teacher’s touch screen computer, apple TV to support iPad mirroring, projector, OHP, Doc camera and printer. The students attended classes only with their iPads and completed their studies exclusively on them. Since 2011, the institution had moved to the paperless system and completely eliminated paper and pen from classrooms. The students were observed in their usual classroom for two days, two periods each day, with no intervention occurring to limit their achievement, hence; minimizing the risk of harm to participants (Yin, 2009).

First, the students were assigned to a timed e-paragraph writing on the topic “My weekend” on their iPads, in the app called Pages. The students were asked to use as many words as they could remember from Oxford 3000, A2.1-A2.3 list in their paragraphs. The Guided Access was set on students’ iPads to lock them into Pages app and make sure they would not multitask and use the vocabulary list for spelling or other reasons. This list was assigned by the Common Course Outline (Appendix A) according to what, the students were
supposed to master Oxford 3000, 12 lists: A2.1-A2.12 by the end of the semester. The Common Course Outline of the institution details under CLO 6: Vocabulary section the following: [Foundation English Level two students should] demonstrate an understanding of the A1 and most of the A2 level words on the HCT Foundations Vocabulary List, including an emerging understanding of the multiple meanings of common words (Appendix B).

The students were familiar with the section of Oxford 3000, A2.1 – A2.3 list as they had worked with that list of vocabulary through an online program called Spelling City for a week. The first aim of the task was to evaluate students’ vocabulary achievement through using it in context. The second aim was to create students’ mini corpus out of the produced 10 paragraphs.

After the e-paragraphs were submitted through Bblearn (Blackboard for iPad), they were entered into the software program called AntConc. The generated mini corpus, then, was analyzed particularly looking at students’ understanding of the meanings of common words and their spelling mistakes. AntConc generated word frequency use, concordance, keyword list, sorted sentences by particular phrase or error, and highlighted valuable information about students’ vocabulary achievement.

With the next step, the AntConc generated data was used to design vocabulary practice materials and was administered in class for two days: four periods. Finally, students’ vocabulary achievement was measured again through another paragraph writing task when they came back from a long weekend and the second writing as well was titled ‘My last weekend’.

The study provided the participants with possible ethical protection. While this study did not include any risks to neither the teacher, nor students, measures were taken to provide them with anonymity and accurate representation (Yin, 2009). To anticipate the possibility of negative information drawn about the students’ learning behaviors, measures were taken to keep participants’ anonymity.

This study followed certain steps to ensure its trustworthiness, the “data was addressed through honesty, depth, richness and scope of the data achieved” (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2001, p. 105). Member checks with participant students were carried out to verify the accuracy of findings. Validity issues throughout the study investigation were minimized by referring to Validation at Seven Stages overview (Kvale, 1996, p. 237).

4. Vocabulary Materials development

The 10 e-paragraphs written by 10 students about their weekend were processed through AntConc keyword, collocations, wordlist, file view and concordance searches (Appendix C). The key word and wordlist searches
revealed that out of 60 words students used 39 words in their paragraphs. When the used words were identified, collocations for those words were processed to see if the word spellings and meanings were accurately used for the context. In case of an error, particular paragraph was viewed through file view search for holistic task fulfillment (Appendix C). AntConc helped to identify and detect positive and negative parts of the vocabulary use in 10 students’ writings in a few minutes, which would never be possible had it been done through traditional pen and paper approaches. In seconds it was clear that, for example, the phrase ‘as soon as’ was used by eight students without mistakes. Whereas, the words ‘anyone’ and ‘anywhere’ were misused almost in all paragraphs.

To have a clear picture of correct and incorrect use of the implemented vocabulary a table was designed with specific examples generated by AntConc, (Appendix D). In total, out of 39 used words students misused 16, in which, the mistakes referred to both: spelling and word form. The table showed that students needed further practice in spelling of particular words and use of indefinite pronouns. To support this practice the study designed four activities using AntConc generated concordance lines and followed Tomlinson’s (2011) six-step scheme called ‘A teacher’s path through the production of new or adapted materials’ (Appendix E) as follows:

1. Identification of need for materials: Oxford 3000 vocabulary lists (to meet Common Corse Outline objectives)
2. Exploration of need _ In class task
3. Contextual realization of materials: Using vocabulary in context: paragraph writing
4. Pedagogical realization of materials: AntConc analysis and identification of problems
5. Production of materials: Material design and adoption
   • Student use of materials: Individual, pair work, group work
6. Evaluation of materials against agreed objectives: Common Corse Outline, CLO6, Vocabulary

First, screenshots of AntConc generated concordance lines were used to design and administer error identification and correction exercises (Appendix F). Second, the designed materials were placed in Bblearn online platform for students to access and complete two exercises per day on their iPads during their class time.

5. Data Analysis

Students wrote their second timed paragraphs, titled ‘My last weekend’ under the same conditions as they did for the first time. After students submitted
their paragraphs through Bblearn online platform, the 10 written pieces were again run through AntConc to compare the vocabulary use between the first and second writings for errors. AntConc generated results showed no spelling mistakes among the practiced vocabulary and only one wrongly used indefinite pronoun (Appendix G).

Figure 3. AT data analysis.

AT in this study consisted of L2 EFL learners as a subject, and vocabulary practice and development as an object, mediated by a tool such as AntConc concordance toolkit. Figure 4 suggests that using concordance toolkits, such as AntConc can create a mini learner corpus and generate concordance lines, which then, can be successfully used in materials design for vocabulary development. The object was met through such types of exercises as identifying, correcting, matching, spelling and using the target words in context, which in its turn not only activated students' vocabulary and provided ample practice in target vocabulary, but also developed their analytical and critical thinking skills. Division of labor through pair and group work fostered students' interpersonal and communicative skills in language use and caused no difficulties in dealing with the rules, thus; making the challenging technological aspect of the study even smoother to proceed with.
In the course of this research, the outcomes suggested new actions and consequently new developments of the activity. The students moved from paragraph writing into vocabulary practice, from individual to pair and group activities, from cognitive into analytical and critical thinking, etc., and in these activities they reconstructed their initial practices in order to make them useful for the upcoming ones. The embedded triangle showed the accessibility of the designed vocabulary exercises to the students, as well as the close relationship between the new form and the authentic content of the mediating tool. The aim this paper pursued can be considered a success, as it managed to observe how the subject dealt with the task through the supplied mediating tools. The students proved high success with two different sources of stimulation: the target tasks they successfully completed and the instrument through which they completed them. The rationale for this approach was that it encouraged the problem solving process, because the students made use of the familiar visuals to guide their problem solving efforts. It also emphasized that student produced materials can be active agents to be productively selected for further productive pedagogical use. This approach highlighted a process oriented, structured cyclic view of a successful outcome which could be developed and explored in various activity systems.

The pedagogical implication of the student produced writing into vocabulary oriented materials design for the students themselves who had initially produced that, made a cyclic process with a 98% positive effect on vocabulary learning and practice. The given activity system did not diagnose any problems neither with technical nor theoretical aspects of the study. The set object was met through the right mediating tool and division of labor, which allowed the process to keep true to the rules and regulations of the institution, which was using iPads at all times. 98% successful outcome came to witness about the experimented activity system’s positive pedagogical perspectives and its possible future adoption in other skills of language teaching.

6. Conclusion

Developing learner corpora in electronically enhanced classroom is much easier than in paper and pen one, as in seconds learner produced materials can turn into valuable information in the hands of the teacher and guide her through the process of her students’ language improvement. Additionally, using learner corpora and AntConc corpus analysis toolkit can provide language teachers with authentic material and information that is not available from other online corpora.

One and the most important pedagogical implication of this study was in
comprehensible input, which in this case meant using actual learners’ writings as input to make the practice memorable and productive for them. Next valuable insight in pedagogy was administering the materials through pair and group work, hence encouraging learners to exchange knowledge and practice the target vocabulary. Failing in doing so would mean overwhelming and frustrating students not only with the content of the material but also with the innovative means of administering it in class. Another pedagogical implication was in implicit focus on form in materials design, which followed an aim of attracting students’ attention, thus minimizing interruptions to communication of meaning.

Though this small scale study managed to show that it is not only quick but beneficial to use learner corpora as teaching and learning materials, it did not expand on looking at different ways of using learner corpora for vocabulary error detection and practice. Another limitation of this study was its only choice of the corpus analysis toolkit. Another study could concentrate on different corpus analysis programs and explore their pros and cons for EFL use. Moreover, it would be productive to experiment iPad related concordance apps, such as ‘Strong’s Concordance with NASB’ and ‘Gatsburg Concordance’ and report on possible ways of using them in EFL paperless classroom. In addition, it would be a big contribution to the field to look at different ways of using online corpora in language teaching and provide different senses of unknown words or forms through concordance lines.

The Author

Tsoghik Grigoryan (Email: e-mail: tgrigoryan@hct.ac.ae) teaches at the Higher Colleges of Technology, in the United Arab Emirates. She is an Armenian scholar who has 17 years of EFL teaching experience. She holds a BA in Pedagogy and Linguistics, MA in TEFL and DED in TESOL.

References


Howard, A. (2010). Is there such a thing as a typical lesson? *Classroom Discourse, 1*(1), 82-100.


### Appendix A

**Oxford 3000, A2.1-A2.3**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A2.1</th>
<th>A2.2</th>
<th>A2.3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>arrive</td>
<td>mine</td>
<td>easily</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>break</td>
<td>mistake</td>
<td>everywhere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>decide</td>
<td>nature</td>
<td>probably</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>license</td>
<td>no one</td>
<td>quickly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mix</td>
<td>nobody</td>
<td>slowly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>practice</td>
<td>ours</td>
<td>somewhere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>serve</td>
<td>prize</td>
<td>yet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>speak</td>
<td>program</td>
<td>broken</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stand</td>
<td>project</td>
<td>coloured</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>activity</td>
<td>somebody</td>
<td>complete</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>anyone</td>
<td>spelling</td>
<td>correct</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>circle</td>
<td>stage</td>
<td>dressed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>desert</td>
<td>such</td>
<td>finished</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>everyone</td>
<td>theirs</td>
<td>lost</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>everything</td>
<td>visitor</td>
<td>lucky</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>file</td>
<td>yours</td>
<td>missing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>future</td>
<td>anyway</td>
<td>opposite</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>grammar</td>
<td>anywhere</td>
<td>whole</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>headache</td>
<td>around</td>
<td>as soon as</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>island</td>
<td>clearly</td>
<td>including</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix B:
A piece from Institution’s Common Course Outline

Common Course Outline

- **Course Title**: Foundations English Level II
- **Course Number**: FND 2016
- **Course Credit Units**: 16.00
- **Total Contact Periods Per Week**: 16 – 20
- **Degree Level**: New Foundations

**Course Description:**
This is the second of four English language courses in the Foundations program, with students starting at CEFR Level A2 and exiting at CEFR Level A2+.

**Course Learning Outcomes:**

- CLO 1- Reading: Demonstrate an emerging ability to deal with topics of a less familiar nature in simple texts, while understanding details and general meaning at a CEFR A2+ level.
- CLO 2- Writing: Write short descriptive paragraphs about personal environment, including people, places, study experiences, past activities, habits and routines, including the ability to express likes and dislikes at a CEFR A2+ level.
- CLO 3- Listening: Demonstrate an ability to understand clear standard speech on familiar topics regularly encountered at home, work, school, etc. Understand monologues, dialogues and conversations on current affairs or of personal interest if the delivery is slow and deliberate at a CEFR A2+ level.
- CLO 4- Speaking: Communicate effectively in a range of common or familiar situations, with preparation, and describe events, personal opinions and plans, and narrate a story.
- CLO 5- Grammar: Demonstrate an understanding of basic grammar structures as defined on the HCT Core Language Inventory, apply simple rules for correct spelling of common words, and demonstrate an emerging command of the basics of punctuation and capitalization.
- **CLO 6- Vocabulary**: Demonstrate an understanding of the A1 and most of the A2 level words on the HCT Foundations Vocabulary List, including an emerging understanding of the multiple meanings of common words.
- CLO 7- Study Skills: Demonstrate a range of good study skills and behaviors: punctuality, participation in class activities, timely completion of homework and assignments, ability to schedule and complete independent study and review, organization of materials and equipment, and the use of English as the medium of communication in class.
- CLO 8- ICT: Effectively use the iPad to learn and practice English, to access course materials, and to participate in course activities. Use the internet to search for information. Use the keyboard effectively to write brief messages. Effectively use shared folders in the cloud.
Appendix C:

AntConc Analysis

Wordlist

Concordance 1
Concordance 2

File view
**Appendix D:**

*AntConc Based Data Analysis*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Used vocabulary out of Oxford 3000, A2.1-A2.3</th>
<th>Accurately used</th>
<th>Misused</th>
<th>Examples of misused vocabulary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Arrive</td>
<td>+</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Break</td>
<td>+</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decide</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td>We <em>disided</em> to go to beach.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mix</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td>My uncle <em>miksed</em> rice and meet and put on fire.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Serve</td>
<td>+</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speak</td>
<td>+</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stand</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td>I <em>stode</em> on the hill and decided roll down</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Activity</td>
<td>+</td>
<td></td>
<td>In mall <em>anyone</em> did anything he wanted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anyone</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| 0. Desert                                    | +               |         |                                 |
| 1. everyone                                  | -               |         | *Everyone* were not happy       |
| 2. everything                                | -               |         | *Everything* were clear and nice |
| 3. headache                                  | -               |         | I *headached* and left the mall  |
| 4. island                                    | +               |         |                                 |
| 5. mine                                      | -               |         | It was *mine* TV                |
| 6. mistake                                   | +               |         |                                 |
| 7. nature                                    | +               |         |                                 |
| 8. no one                                    | -               |         | I could not listen *no one*     |
| 9. nobody                                    | -               |         | *Nobody* didn’t rest and went to have fun. |

| 0. somebody                                  | +               |         |                                 |
| 1. such                                      | +               |         |                                 |
| 2. visitor                                   | +               |         |                                 |
| 3. anyway                                    | -               |         | *Anyways* was good for me       |
| 4. anywhere                                  | -               |         | There were people *anywhere*, under trees, on the grass... I didn’t find my phone *everywhere* |
| 5. around                                    | +               |         |                                 |
| 6. clearly                                   | +               |         |                                 |
| 7. easily                                    | +               |         |                                 |
| 8. probably                                  | -               |         | *Propaply* it was not a lucky day for me. |
| 9. quickly                                   | +               |         |                                 |
| 0. broken                                    | +               |         |                                 |
| 1. complete                                  | +               |         |                                 |
| 2. dressed                                   | +               |         |                                 |
| 3. missing                                   | -               |         | It was *mising*                |
| 4. lost                                      | +               |         |                                 |
| 5. lucky                                     | +               |         |                                 |
| 6. yours                                     | -               |         | My weekend was nice and *yours* weekend? |
| 7. opposite                                  | +               |         |                                 |
| 8. whole                                     | -               |         | My *whol* family missed me      |
| 9. as soon as                                 | +               |         |                                 |
Appendix E:
A teacher’s path through the production of new or adapted materials

(Tomlinson (2011), p. 113)
Appendix F:

*AntConc* generated concordance lines as in class spelling correction materials

**Example 1**

Work in pairs. Read the sentences in column A and find the spelling mistakes. Write the correct word in column B.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Column A</th>
<th>Column B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Example 2**

- Work in groups.
- Look at 10 lines in column A and find the paragraphs they belong to.
- Write the letters of the paragraphs in Column B.
- Correct the indefinite pronouns in blue if they are wrongly used.
- Write the correct variants in column C.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Column A</th>
<th>Column B</th>
<th>Column C</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Paragraph A

Last weekend my friend invited me to pizza hut. I decided go. When I arrived it was around 5pm. I saw my friend wait for me opposite the hut. I wanted to scare her and quickly hide behind the wall. When I jumped out to scare her but she was not there. I looked for her anywhere. I wanted to call her but I didn’t find my phone everywhere. It was missing. I asked people do you see my phone and my friend. Nobody knew anything. Then I felt headache and decided come home. Propaply it was not a lucky day for me.

Paragraph B

Last weekend me with my brother desided to drive around one big island and have much fun. Somebody calls me and I invited him come with me. As soon as he come we left. Nobody didn’t know about our plan. The whole day we drive and drive too much. The nature was nice but the weather was rainy. We don’t clearly see the road. We did a mistake and took other road. We do not see signs anywhere and lost the way. We were lucky to see some visitors who show us the correct way. Anyway we arrived home around 11pm and didn’t tell about our day to anyone.

Paragraph C

My weekend finished well. I enjoyed my day because I went to Dubai. I completed my homework then I dressed my nice clothes and with my whole family went to Dubai Mall. My father drive slowly and he stop somewhere to pray. As soon as he finish we decided to continue. In mall anyone did anything he wanted. My brother played many activities in the game zone. My sisters went shopping. Nobody didn’t rest and went to have fun. I quickly ate ice-cream and watched the fountain. Everything were clear and nice. When the fountain finished we came back. We arrived home late. We had good day in Dubai Mall.

Paragraph D

My weekend was very bad because I headach. I drank medicine but I felt bad. Anyone could not help me. Everyone were not happy. I could not listen no one. My mother spoke to doctor and she came to my house. The doctor spoke with me around one hour and told me you did mistake that you watched movies the whole night. Don’t sit in front of TV the whole night. When she went I slept around 4 hours. I will not do this mistake again.

Paragraph E

Opposite my house there is a big green park. Last weekend I went this park with my friends. It was around afternoon and there were many visitors. The park organize activities and put big stage for show. There were people anywhere, under trees, on the grass and near fountains. As soon as show started we sit to watched. Actors sang and danced. Everything were nice and fun. Anyways was good for me. My weekend was nice and yours weekend?
Appendix G:
Final AntConc Concordance for indefinite pronouns

![Concordance screenshot from AntConc software]
Linguicism and nationalism: A post-colonial gaze on the promotion of Afrikaans as a national language in apartheid South Africa

Nene Ernest Khalema, Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) and Built Environment and Development Studies, University of KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa

This paper explores the processes by which nationalist movements help to create both ethnic and linguistic identities. The article begins with the social history, religious legitimation and institutional promotion of the Dutch-based language of Afrikaans as a national and official language of apartheid South Africa. After examining the historiography of the Afrikaans language, the paper offers a critique using existing theories of linguistic nationalism and its relationship to the politics of ethnic identity as possible explanations for the rise of the Afrikaner nation in South Africa. Socio-cultural factors involved in the rise of nationalistic movements identified by social theorists such as Smith (1986), Hobsbawm (1994), Gellner (1994), Edwards (1988), and Anderson (1994), will be applied to the Afrikaans case study. To conclude, I will elaborate on the challenges, implications, and issues for further research with regards to post-apartheid language policy in South Africa, especially with the influence of African nationalism, the promotion of the English language, and acceptance of Afrikaans dialects in post-apartheid South Africa.

Keywords: Afrikaans; South Africa; Creolisation; Linguicism; Nationalism; Post-Colonialism

1. Introduction

Before the dawn of the new democratic, non-racial, multicultural, and multilingual South Africa, the Afrikaans language was a language of political power, prestige, commerce, and education. With the 1996 post-apartheid constitution that recognizes eleven official languages (including Afrikaans, English, and the historically marginalized African languages) equally, the role and future of Afrikaans as a dominant language in South Africa is grim. In fact, according to Edwards (1985) and Madiba (1997), English is the most widely used language in South Africa in education and government, as Afrikaans usage has declined tremendously.
In addition to increased English language usage, the reclaiming and equal recognition of previously disadvantaged African languages in the new South African constitution has influenced the decline of Afrikaans usage. The constitution currently recognises equal linguistic rights for eleven language groups in South Africa: isiXhosa, isiZulu, isiSwati, Sesotho, Setswana, Sepedi, isiNdebele, Tshivenda, Xitsonga, English, and Afrikaans. Section 6 of the constitution stipulates that:

... National and provincial governments may use any particular official languages for the purposes of government, taking into account usage, practicality, expense, regional circumstances and the balance of the needs and preferences of the population as a whole or in the province concerned ... (South African Constitution, 1996, Section 6 (3)).

In addition, Section 29 of the new South African constitution specifies that:

... Everyone has the right to receive education in the official language or languages of their choice in the public educational institutions where that education is reasonably practicable. In order to ensure the effective access to, and implementation of, this right, the state must consider all reasonable educational alternatives, including single medium institutions, taking into account (a) equity, (b) practicability, and (c) the need to redress the results of past racially discriminatory laws and practices (South African Constitution, 1996, Section 29).

In the new political dispensation, therefore, it is clear that language is recognized as one of the fundamental rights and that no one should be discriminated against, directly or indirectly, on the grounds of language. In other words, all official languages in South Africa are equal under the law and linguistic minorities have the right to use their languages in every sphere of society. The new language policy protects linguistic minorities' rights to use their languages in order to maintain their cultures and, therefore, survive as a cultural group. It is crucial to examine the socio-cultural domains of linguistic nationalism and its ideological legitimization in South Africa's apartheid era.

Drawing from the theoretical framework Phillipspon (1988) and Skutnabb-Kangas (1988) describe as linguicism, the paper will attempt to explore a connection between ideologies (forms) of power that are used to legitimate and reproduce inequality between groups who are defined and identified on the basis of linguistic difference. The contention put forward by this theory is to highlight how ideologies (and in the case of Afrikaans expressed in religious and ethnic doctrines) increase language conflict. Because linguistic domination is "situated in the context of power relations between the marginalized and the powerful", as Phillipspon (1988, p. 1) suggests, linguistic nationalism determines whose "language" is valid and legitimate in cases of nationalistic pursuits. In the case of the development of the Afrikaner identity,
religious ideology became instrumental in assisting the promotion of the Afrikaans language. The manner in which this language was developed and invented, [i.e. from a Creole blend of South Holland Dutch, French-Huguenot dialects, standard German, and several African languages (i.e. Khoi, isiXhosa, isiZulu) to a literary and standardized apartheid era national language with a distinct and developed vocabulary and grammar, will be highly pertinent to this discussion.

The paper is divided into four sections. The first section will briefly review and describe anthropological concepts of nationalism (Smith, 1986; Hutchinson & Smith, 1994; Hobsbawm, 1994), language dominance and promotion (linguicism) (Bourdieu, 1991; Edwards, 1994; Phillipson, 1988; Skutnabb-Kangas, 1988), the role of ethnicity and ideology in language promotion (Maybury-Lewis, 1992; Smith, 1986; and Templin, 1999). In this section I will analyze key concepts informing anthropological approaches to the nationalism, ethnicity, and language debate using such conceptualizations and definitions as frameworks.

In the second section, a summary of themes and conclusions made in the first section with regards to the relationship between language, ethnicity and nationalism will be further discussed. I will highlight how notions of "nation" and "language" can be intertwined especially when legitimized and promoted through ideology. Thus, nations tend to need distinctive languages for the sole purpose of differentiation and distinctiveness in order to pursue nationalistic goals.

The third section will situate the discussion in a single linguistic case delving deeply into the issues identified in the first and second sections. This section will describe the etiology of Afrikaans as a language of power and prestige in apartheid South Africa. In addition, I will trace the historical, political and religious beginnings of Afrikaner nationalism in relation to British imperialism and to some extent, African anti-colonial resistance. I will focus my analysis on the invention and promotion of Afrikaans as a national language and the influence of religious ideology in that process. Since specific languages are products of the "interplay of religion and political organization" as Smith (1986, p. 27) suggests religious and political/ethnic ideologies play an important and crucial role in understanding language promotion. This paper argues that Afrikaner nationalism is an "invented and imaginary entity" (using Hobsbawm' framework) that became intertwined with linguicism and legitimized through religious doctrines (i.e. Calvinism) and ethnic ideologies of racial supremacy (i.e. apartheid). General questions explored include:

- What were the principal factors that shaped the Afrikaner sense of national identity?
• Was language central to the construction of Afrikaner nationalism and identity?

The fourth and concluding section will relate the linguistic case study and information about the Afrikaans language to both the theoretical framework (i.e. linguicism) identified in section one/two and the in-depth analysis discussed in section three, in order to give a clearer picture of the implications of Afrikaner linguistic nationalism and its ideological basis, especially in contemporary post-apartheid South African context. Challenges and further research implications for post-apartheid language policy will be discussed especially as the shift in language policy that unintentionally values (or favors) the English language over the other ten languages continues.

2. Linguicism, contested spaces, and nationalism: An overview

It is well documented that language serves a crucial function in many nationalistic movements (Anderson, 1983; Cummins, 1989; De Bernardi, 1991; Edwards, 1994; Handler, 1988; Hobsbawm, 1994; Hutchinson & Smith, 1994; Smith, 1986). Language is always given a central role in the ascription and definition of national and/or ethnic identities. Further, in an attempt to assert and justify nationalistic pursuits, national movements may introduce (explicit or implicit) language policy as part of their national building ambitions.

Thus, the language(s) officially promoted by national movements may serve as instruments for giving the nation its desired shape and identity. Often this identity is homogeneistic (i.e. one language, one people, and one nation). In more exceptional cases, pluralism in language policy may be introduced to reinforce the image of a federal state with cultural autonomy for its sub-parts (as in Indonesia), or as an emblem of the intrinsically multi-ethnic composition of the nation (as, for example, Singapore and South Africa). According to Aikman (1995) as well as Maybury-Lewis (1997), such pluralistic attempts in language policies serve to unite diverse multiethnic and multilingualic groups within a single unitary state and national identity. According to Gellner (1983), nationalism is a "deliberately constructed phenomenon to serve particular ideological ends" (p. 1). Nations are completely modern constructions born of nationalism, which is "primarily a political principle which holds that the political and national unit should be congruent" (p. 1). For Gellner, the creation of nations is a result of the pressures of political and economic conditions, which in turn leads to development of natural languages.

To add, Smith (1986) identifies the growth of capitalism and its free-market orientation as basis for the establishment of nations. According to Smith, the industrial revolution, capitalism, and free markets demanded the production
of goods and required urbanized skilled workers. These demands were met by creating a common past and culture and required a common language. With these common experiences as a motive, workers were more willing to work hard, not for their own good, but for the good and prosperity of their nation. Smith (1986, pp. 131-133) proceeds even further and suggests that the growth of capitalism, enabled the expansion of centralized administrations, whereby bureaucratic structures and administrative authorities (i.e., armies for state protection) became necessary. This, according to Smith, provided conditions for administrative languages to develop as standard modes of communication.

Hobsbawm (1994) views nations as modem constructions, which are "situated at the point of intersection of politics, technology, and social transformation" (p. 10). For Hobsbawm, nations have traditionally been understood as evolving from the top down instead of from the bottom up. Thus modem nations tend to be movement borne (or grassroots-constructed) with no divine ruler. Nationalist movements, according to Hobsbawm (1994), tend to develop as a result of marginalization or perceived victimization of groups against others.

This sense of victimization according to Hobsbawm (1994) motivates groups to view themselves as distinct and this imagined difference often leads to a sense of solidarity for a common good. Thus, unlike smaller groups, nations become "imagined communities" in which because members share common experiences but yet never meet or talked to one another individually, the idea of a nation exists in the minds of each member of a nation (Anderson, 1983). Ideology, according to Smith (1999), plays an important role in reminding people of their common interests. In other words, the existence of a nation becomes a kind of a shared virtual reality that defines what individuals and groups "ought to be". Further, because social identity plays an important role within group-outgroup relations, ideological justification through religion becomes extremely important for national identity. The conclusions that theorists such as Smith, Gellner, Hobsbawn, and Anderson bring to the language, ethnicity and nationalism discussion, although diverse in scope, have similar assumptions.

Firstly, an assumption is made that language together with other symbols of culture is an important element for nationalism. Although Smith goes far beyond language to include other symbols of culture such as kinship relations and a shared sense of history, language is still viewed as the main instrument of nationalism. Since nationalism is often idealized as a group identity, national movements can manipulate some customs and symbols from their cultural traditions in order to articulate a political organization, and then uses these weapons in nationalistic struggles. The construction of an ethnic group
is, therefore, an important part of the definition of a nation. There is an implicit conclusion that the concept of "ethnicity" is the essence of nationalism and through ethnicity a cultural group or a nation is defined.

In addition to language and ethnic group identity as basis for nationalism (Kobia, 2009; Ngefa, 2009), the literature identifies other external factors such as the economic, social, and political situations as crucial in the development of nations. Smith identifies religion, as an important instrument used to validate and justify nationalistic pursuits. In fact, according to Smith (1986) language as well as ethnicity is often malleable and dependent since a community’s language is the product of the "interplay of religion and political organization" (p. 27). For Smith (1986), ideology whether religious or otherwise plays an important role in reinforcing ethnic boundaries (p. 35). Because ideology is particularly important in national identity formation, Smith observes that religious ideology "can create and maintain over centuries culture communities of history and destiny" (p. 124). Ideology can be defined as a:

... broad interlocked set of ideas and beliefs about the world held by a group of people ... This system of beliefs is usually an explanation or account of the way things are and the group that holds this ideology, it becomes the taken-for-granted way of making sense about the world (Meighan and Siraj-Blatchford, 1981, p. 155).

The first part of Meighan and Siraj-Blatchford (1981) definition of the ideology identifies an ideology as a set of "interlocked ideas and beliefs" in which a group of people define their world, explain phenomenon, and guide their activities upon. This set of beliefs and ideas according to Ball and Dagger (1995, p. 9), "explains and evaluates social conditions, helps people understand their place in society, and thus providing a program for social action and political action."

In other words, it is through ideologies groups produce and represent ideas, communicate values and beliefs, and decide a manner in which these beliefs are expressed and lived out by both individuals and groups. Simply put, ideologies refer to the production of a sense of meaning. This production of meaning according to Gibbons and Youngman (1996, p. 6) is "socially constructed and transmitted ... with some significant means are of formal articulation, scope, internal consistency, and durability. As such, it provides both normative frameworks for understanding the political world and a practical guide for political action."

Consequently, through the production of meaning, situations can be described as a way of viewing the world in which individuals and groups tend to accept as natural or as common sense. An ideology, therefore, is a result of
the intersection of meaning and power in society in which values, beliefs, and ideas often produce conceptions about situations. Ideologies contain ideas and beliefs about reality that is often taken for granted, unquestioned, and often passionately embraced by groups. It provides groups with both the description and explanation of their social reality as they experience it and it promotes a shared understanding of what their collective lives are all about. In summary, ideologies are inextricably tied to value systems and value judgements, which tend to be legitimized.

Therefore, in addition to language and ethnic identity, the ideological rationale in the form of religion is important in motivating and perpetuating nationalism. Religion plays an important role in nationalism because it is constructed to serve a particular ideological end. Religion can be used to claim authenticity and legitimate ownership or specific historical rights to property and nationhood. Religion is important because groups can define and assert themselves as the divinely legitimized and rightful owners of specific material and non-material ends. As it will be discussed in this paper, Afrikaner national identity, as an imagined and constructed phenomenon, was validated and legitimized through religious ideology.

Attempts to unify and construct a national identity through language policies have been proven to be somewhat successful. In countries such as China, for instance, despite its linguistic and cultural diversity, a Chinese identity has been successfully constructed. According to Maybury-Lewis (1997, P. 80), in fact, Chinese identity, which is not only based on language, but also on common descent and "includes all those peoples who belong or have belonged to the Chinese family of nations" seems to transcend the extreme diversity of religious practices, spoken languages, and regional cultures of China. Thus, the Chinese identity includes Chinese people from most South East Asian countries, (i.e., Indonesia, Malaysia, Taiwan, Korea, and Singapore), and is primarily defined as a matter of descent or common ancestry. Thus, although Chinese languages such as Mandarin, Min or Cantonese are important in defining Chinese identity, language diversity does not seem to hinder or challenge what it means to be Chinese. Commenting on Ramsey's analysis of the linguistic diversity and Chinese identity DeBernardi (1991) writes:

... many linguists have observed that calling languages like Southern Min, 'dialects' is a misnomer, since the languages of China are in fact as diverse as Romance languages ... These languages have been termed dialects in response to the fact that there is a unified written language of China, and a shared cultural tradition... the result is a sense of unity despite the fact that the spoken languages of different regions diverge greatly, not only in pronunciation, but also in lexicon, and to
some extent syntax. This generation of a sense of cultural unity has been cited as one of the advantages of the difficult Chinese writing systems (p. 2).

The contention here is clear: although language is an important element in Chinese identity, language alone does not account for Chinese nationalistic identity. Thus, as Smith (1986, p. 97) suggests: other factors such as "a common name, sense of shared ancestry, shared homeland, common sense of history or memories of the past, a sense of national solidarity and loyalty become forces in national identity formation. Such factors, according to Smith (1986), are useful instruments not only to define ethnic boundaries, but also to bind people together in a community of ancestry, reminding them of their commonalities in history, culture and heritage. For the purpose of this paper, language will be stressed as a beneficial instrument of power for the promotion and legitimization nationalism and whiteness. According to Phillipson (1988) and Skutnabb-Kangas (1988) nationalist movements use language or what they frame as linguicism to pursue nationalistic goals. Linguicism refers to "ideologies and structures which are used to legitimate, effectuate, and reproduce an unequal division of power and resources (both material and non-material) between groups which are defined on the basis of language"(Skutnabb-Kangas, 1988, p. 13).

These structures and ideologies, according to Philipson (1988, p. 429), include the way social institutions such as governments, schools, churches and other bureaucracies enact "official" policies and laws to promote preferred cultural symbols (i.e., languages). In these instances, only "chosen" symbols are promoted and legitimized for the "survival" of a people. According to Bourdieu (1991), such symbols are used in "the integration into a single linguistic community, which is a product of political domination that is endlessly reproduced by institutions capable of imposing universal recognition of the dominant language is the condition of the establishment of linguistic domination" (p. 46). In other words, with the intervention of the state, some languages "become the theoretical norm against which all linguistic practices are objectively measured" (Bourdieu, 1991, p. 45). Thus, in order for one language to impose itself as a legitimate language of the state, all other languages or language expressions are homogenized and their diversity is measured in accordance with the standards of an assumed "legitimate" national language. The promotion of a national or official language, therefore, acts as basis for linguicism, which in turn is legitimized through ideology.

Patterns of nationalism via linguicism have been noted globally (Corcoran, 2011; Reid, 2012). In Canada for instance, Quebec nationalists' swift reaction against English linguicism and domination created a situation in which the
Quebec "state" (through its legislative procedures) passed bias language laws in order to protect French-Quebecois identity. According to Handler (1988), Quebec nationalists based their actions on the assumption that English-Canada's promotion of English language under the guise of bilingualism and biculturalism endangered the French language and Quebec's right to statehood. The official bilingualism and biculturalism commission which according to Edwards (1994) was "aimed at assisting all cultural groups in their efforts to develop and to contribute to society as a whole" and which helped "groups overcome cultural barriers" and promote "creative encounters", as well as "linguistic proficiency amongst immigrant groups" was seen as a threat to Quebec nationhood (Edwards, 1994, p. 182).

Thus, the dominance of the English language and culture in French-Quebec became a direct threat to Quebec "national" identity, which according to Quebec nationalists is distinct and rich in history. Malaysia's nationalist movement also used language as a tool to construct a "distinct" national identity. The inception of the Malaysian language policy in the post-independent era explicitly adopted Malay as a national language in an attempt to resist foreign domination. For example, according to Rajandran (2008), since independence in 1957, the Malaysian post-colonial nation undertook language planning to ensure their national or official language is capable of meeting the challenges of the modern world, which included rethinking the roles of both Malay and English in Malaysia so both languages are used for the nation's benefit. For Malaysia, the adoption of Malay as a national language legitimized and created a unique Malay identity, distinct from colonial (Dutch) and minority (Chinese) influences. In fact, according to DeBernardi (1999), Malay as an "invented language" became a symbol of national pride and unity for ethnic Malays. Thus a single national identity was created through language at the expense of existing ethno-linguistic groups and minority languages.

The state of Israel's revival and prescribed introduction of Hebrew as a national language is yet another good example of a recent linguistic nationalist project. Hebrew has become in modem-day Israel a symbol of pride, redress, and unity for the formerly displaced Jewish groups throughout the world. Despite the diversity of the Israeli population (i.e., Arab, Russian, East African, North-American, and Eastern European) each with many different vernaculars, Hebrew has emerged as Israel's "ancestral" language; promoted, legitimized, and positioned as Israel's national language. In South Africa, a similar pattern has been observed. The promotion and development of the Afrikaans language as South Africa's official language in the apartheid era became the basis for the rise of Afrikaner nationalism. This form of linguistic nationalism became legitimized and promoted through Calvinist religious ideologies, which became instrumental in rationalizing colonialism
and linguisticism in South Africa.

3. Afrikaans and Afrikaner nationalism in Apartheid South Africa

Van Jaarsveld (1961) identifies several characteristics of Afrikaner nationalism. Firstly, he suggests that Afrikaner nationalism developed as a result of British politics of domination in which the Afrikaner, "having been insulted and looked down upon" by the British, showed signs of "a feeling of injustice and frustration" (van Jaarsveld, 1961, p. 221). Thus, the local English and the foreign British colonial power left Afrikaners with a sense of "suppression and subjection that led to indignation and grievances" (p.221).

Afrikaner nationalism became a plight for cultural survival in the hands of the imperial English. The control of their destiny as a people became a foundation for nationalism. Having being marginalized and dominated by the British, it was their goal to find a common ground to fight their "oppressor". Afrikaner nationalism was about control of Afrikaner identity that was challenged by English assimilationist policies. Secondly, van Jaarsveld (1961) suggests that Afrikaners' placed a great deal of emphasis on the land and more specifically the control of the land. The Afrikaner' relationship with territory and land enabled them to claim the land that they had annexed from local African communities as their own. A sense of solidarity developed among different Afrikaner communities and alliances were forged. The Afrikaners became dedicated to the "development" of the land through extensive farming and thus created a unique identity compared to the English. This sense of solidarity to the land, according to Coetzee (1978) enriched Afrikaner national pride as a people who could work the land and develop it.

Through this connection to the land, therefore, as van Jaarsveld (1961) states "consciousness of Afrikaner cultural characteristics and language, their habits and customs, and especially their religious beliefs developed" (p. 221). For the Afrikaners, British imperialism and conquest was the impetus for organizing. Their claim to the territory was often idealized and given meaning through the Great pilgrimage (the Great trek) during which thousands of Afrikaner men and women migrated inward (Adam, 1978; Du Toit, 1970; Giliomee & Du Toit, 1983).

Thirdly, Afrikaner nationalism was characterized by an urge towards self-preservation and progress. The maintenance of Afrikaner identity together with an urge to define themselves as "civilized" peoples influenced their embrace of development and modernization. The Afrikaans-speaking people, under British authority, were continuously on guard against being assimilated by British hegemony, and were equally weary of integration with the African majority.
According to Smith (1988), the threat of (black) African dominancy was influential in the development of Afrikaner exclusionary policies against Africans and other groups in South Africa. To form their identity, Afrikaner nationalists strategize a policy of separate development: apartheid. Apartheid thus became a national policy of racial segregation introduced by the nationalist part of South Africa in 1948 to exclude and legitimate colonialism and white supremacy, including linguistic supremacy. The word *apartheid* means "separateness" and rationalized the rigid racial division between the governing white minority population and the non-white majority population.

According to its pre-eminent architect Dr. Hendrik Verwoerd, the then minister of Native Affairs *i Bantu Affairs*, the purpose of apartheid was to ensure that "natives will be taught from childhood to realize that equality with Europeans is not for them" (quoted in Parsons, 1992, p. 291). Social separation was coupled with Afrikaner and European economic advantage.

In *Ethnic Power Mobilized: Can South Africa Change?* Giliomee (1979) traces apartheid’ development to its capitalist origins. Afrikaner expansion and rapid urbanization became an indication of their embrace of capitalism. Capitalism or "volkkapitalsme" provided a vehicle for social development in which transformation and mobility for the Afrikaner "volk" was market driven (Giliomee, 1979). The discovery of “diamonds and especially gold in the nineteenth century were transforming a large subsistence rural economy into an industrial economy firmly tied to British imperial interests” (p. 145). The demands of capitalism became instrumental in the growth of centralized administrations, in which administrative languages as standard modes of communication became necessary. With an establishment of institutions, a common language of commerce and communication had to be promoted. Numerous laws were passed that prohibited Africans to own land and property, and most importantly adopt Afrikaans as an official national language. Afrikaans was, therefore, elevated to official language status. Thus, the demands of the "market" instituted the development of the Afrikaans language develops to meet market and development needs.

In summary, the Afrikaner struggle with the British in colonial South Africa prompted Afrikaner folk to develop nationalistic sensibilities. To Afrikaner nationalists, a demand for a homeland or a territory as a direct result of British domination and marginalization was important. As the English passed laws that Afrikaners claimed were instruments to Anglicize South Africa, Afrikaners reacted by developing a national identity different from the English. Afrikaners who collaborated with the English and Africans were looked upon as disloyal. According to Afrikaner nationalists, a "true" Afrikaner identity had to be enacted at all times and the simplest way of achieving this was to speak the Afrikaans language.
4. Development of Afrikaans

From its very beginning Afrikaner nationalism has always been focused on language (Coetsee, 1978; Giliomee & Du Toit, 1983; Moodie, 1974; Van Jaarsveld, 1961). In fact, Moodie (1974) suggests that the language name Afrikaans predate the ethnic name Afrikaner. The Afrikaans language has its roots from the Dutch language (more specifically South Holland dialect of the mid-17th century. Afrikaans is classified as belonging to the Indo-European family of languages. It belongs to the Germanic stream (more specifically Western Germanic) of language groups, which include German, Dutch, English, Yiddish, and Friesian (O’Grady & Bodrovolsky, 1992, pp. 342-343). Technically Afrikaans began as a pidgin (spoken) and later developed into a Creole language spoken by Dutch settlers. After 1685, people began to notice the difference between standard Dutch (which was used as a written and religious language) and Afrikaans. By the early 19th century the Creole language (which was now referred to as Cape-Dutch) emerged as a unique language different from Dutch.

In 1875, according to Coetzee (1978), a committee was set up to develop this home language and because most Dutch settlers were of the reformation tradition an attempt was made to translate the Bible into this home language. Under the supervision the Dutch reformed church and Calvinist theologian Rev. S.J. du Toit, the home language was developed and named Cape-Dutch (Hofmeyr, 1987).

After losing to the British in the Anglo-Boer war of 1898-1902, the Dutch settlers resisted British Anglicization and assimilation and adopted the name of Afrikaans for their language. Afrikaans as a name, connected the Dutch settlers to the land of South Africa and unlike the British, home for them was Africa not Europe. With the invention of Afrikaans as their language of identity, the Dutch settlers claimed authority and legitimacy to the land and often reminisced back to their earlier struggles with the British to justify their plight for nationhood.

In 1910 the Union of South Africa was established, with English and Dutch as official languages and several years later Afrikaans became the official "language" of the Union of South Africa with Dutch and English (Coetsee, 1978). Having been used in schools and churches, Afrikaans became recognized as a legitimate language. The language that acted only as a home language for Dutch settlers, therefore, became standardized and was used as the formal and written language of the Apartheid State.

5. Promotion of Afrikaans as a national Language

In the case of Afrikaans, the entire Afrikaner cultural establishment played a
big role in its promotion. According to Hofmeyr (1987), the Afrikaans academic community, especially linguists and cultural studies academics in the humanities and social sciences played a decisive role in promoting the language. For instance, in 1909 a committee was established to promote and further develop Afrikaans in science and the arts. Afrikaner academics were approached by the state to conduct research on the language [i.e., South African Academy for Science and Art (Bloomberg, 1990; Hofmeyr, 1987)]. Early linguists differentiated between Afrikaans and standard Dutch and research volumes detailing this difference were published in academic journals and books. Social linguists such as Van Rensburg (1991) and Hofmeyr (1978) proclaimed that Afrikaans is different from Dutch in pronunciation and consonant modification, offering examples of this differentiation. Furthermore, Afrikaans was pronounced as one of the indigenous languages of South Africa due to the “influence” of other indigenous African languages on Afrikaans. According to pan-African linguists such as Nkabinde (1998), African languages such as Zulu, Xhosa, and Nama enriched the vocabulary of the Afrikaans language immensely. In fact, as Nkabinde’s study of the influence of the Zulu language on Afrikaans points out, the Afrikaans language adopted and incorporated Zulu words into its vocabulary and thus, giving the language a unique African context. As a result, dictionaries detailing this new vocabulary were published and Afrikaans was fully recognized as a language internationally.

In addition to academic promotion of Afrikaans, a secret national committee (often called the Afrikaner Broederbond) was established in 1918 to monitor cultural and linguistic “abnormalities” (Serfontein, 1978). This powerful committee comprised of leading nationalist leaders and scholars ensured that Afrikaans in its “purest sense” was not dominated by both English and African culture and languages (O’Maera, 1977; Serfontein, 1978). In fact, according to Serfontein (1978), the purpose of this monitoring body was to ensure that varieties of Afrikaans spoken by non-whites were stigmatized in order to "purify" Afrikaans.

The Afrikaner Broederbond ensured that Afrikaners as a people control of the state, education, cultural organizations, and the church is intact. Through this body, the interests of the Afrikaner identity were promoted, often using the print media, radio, and television as major instruments to promote Afrikaans usage. In summary, media together with cultural institutions as well as academia became major instruments that were used to promote Afrikaans as a national language in apartheid South Africa.

In addition to a systematic promotion of Afrikaans through the Afrikaner cultural establishment, the Afrikaans language and Afrikaner nation was legitimized through religious ideology. Firstly, it was generally believed that
Europeans (and specifically Afrikaners) "saved" South Africa from barbarism and ignorance of its natives. The usual argument was that "Africans would not even have a wheel if it weren't for Europeans" (Du Toit, 1983; Harrison, 1981; Hofmeyr, 1987). In fact, the natives who were considered "uncivilized and wild" were in need of taming and controlling not only for "God's will to be done" but also for their very own survival. These neo-evolutionist and eugenics ideologies of human development became major factors in the legitimation of Afrikaner linguistic nationalism. According to the discourse and narrative, when Afrikaners trekked into the interior of the country, they faced wild beasts and hostile natives who wouldn't recognize them for what they were here to accomplish (i.e., save Africa from its backwardness). In fact their minds the Afrikaners regarded themselves as firstly a chosen people, chosen by God to civilize the uncivil "savages" of South Africa (Du Toit, 1983; Kipling, 1914; Templin, 1999). For example, in one of his poems, a famous Afrikaner poet, Rudyard, Kipling (1914, p. 108) wrote:

The Gull shall whistle in his wake, the blind wave break fire
He shall fulfil God’s utmost will, unknowing his desire
And he shall see old Planets change and alien stars arise
And give the gale his seaworn sail in shadow of new skies,
Strong lust of gear shall drive him forth and hunger arm his hand,
To win his food from the desert rude, his pittance from the sand.
His neighbours' smoke shall vex his eyes; their voices break his rest.
He shall go forth till south is north sullen and dispossessed.
He shall desire loneliness and his desire shall bring,
Hard on his heels, a thousand wheels, a People and a King.
He shall come back on his own track, and by his scarce-cooled camp.
There shall he meet the roaring street, the derrick and the stamp:
There he shall blaze a nations' ways with a hatchet and with brand,
Till on his last-worn wilderness an Empire' outpost stand.

In this poem, Kipling specifies the several features in which Afrikaner nationalism was constituted. According to Kipling (1914) it was "God's utmost will" for the Afrikaners to "blaze a nations' ways with a hatchet and with a brand" in order to civilize South Africa. The struggles that the Afrikaner frontiers (or trekkers) experience in their migration into the interior and their plight for nationhood against hostile neighbours, according to Kipling (1914), created a situation in which Afrikaners believed it was God' purpose and will for them. Additionally, Afrikaners regarded themselves as the direct descendants of Christian reformist Calvin. It is through this direct link to Calvin that the Afrikaner set forth a nationalistic crusade based on linguicism. For them they had to fulfil their God-given duty to Christianize and enlighten the "natives" of South Africa. This belief in a kind of a supernatural
or divine purpose of the Afrikaner nation as saviours of South Africa enabled
to justify their nationalistic pursuits, often quoting the Bible. For example, an
early Afrikaner chaplain quoted in Harrison (1981, p. 108) states:

... we have received a fire from god, that fire is our nationhood. It is
wonderful to think that this nationhood is from God, A burning torch
which is not extinguished. It has been kept all the way from the statue
of van Riebeeck to here. By the mercy of God it has burned until now. It
must be kept burning.

Accordingly within this context, God had "brought" together Afrikaners and
"given" them "land" and "language" and it is their duty to ensure that their
nation is kept pure and intact. This direct link to Calvin prompted the
Afrikaners to view the Afrikaans language and nation of South Africa as God
given, thus fulfilling an ancient Biblical promise of the promise land. By
interpreting the Biblical notion of the promise land that God promised to the
children of Israel, the Afrikaners as "a chosen people" embarked on a journey
to validate and rationalize their colonization of South Africa. For most
Afrikaner thinkers of the time, South Africa was the promise land and the
development of the Afrikaans language was an element in fulfilling their
covenant with God (Templin, 1999). Thus, through language development the
masses can communicate and glorify God who has been generous to them to
give them land and a language.

The role of religious ideology and belief in the legitimization of Afrikaans was
enormous. Ideology as a set of ideas and beliefs that is used to explain "social
conditions and helps people understand their place in society" was used in
the case of Afrikaner nationalism to provide a program for social and political
action, thus producing ideas and communicating values of what it is meant to
be Afrikaner. In the case of Afrikaners, religious ideology served a function
producing a sense of meaning and idealized past. This socially constructed
sense of identity and purpose provided both normative frameworks for
understanding the Afrikaner political and social situation as well as a
practical guide for political action.

6. Challenges for the Afrikaans language in the post-Apartheid era

The purpose of this paper was to explore the interplay between nationalism,
ethnic identity, and language with a special focus of the Afrikaans language in
South Africa. Far from simply reflecting and analysing anthropological
theories and concepts of nationalism, ethnicity and language, this paper gave
an in depth and detailed synthesis if the development, promotion, and
legitimization of the Afrikaans language in South Africa. A historical/political
overview gave the case study some context. Additionally, because the
Afrikaner nation is constructed, it exists in the realm of the mind of the
Afrikaners and it is validated and legitimized by a common a belief in that construction. There are several issues challenges that I believe are important in post-apartheid South Africa language policy, which may influence Afrikaans vitality.

Firstly, the influence of African nationalism on the Afrikaans language is a challenge on Afrikaner identity in post-apartheid South Africa. African nationalism, which has its roots in the liberation struggle against colonialism and imperialism, poses a great challenge to Afrikaner identity. The Afrikaans language, therefore, as a tool for Afrikaner nationalism, which does not exist with the new political reality in South Africa is very interesting. Because of the previous status the Afrikaans language had, however, the functional use of Afrikaans, as a national language is questionable. For instance, according to Madiba (1997), English is the most widely used language in South Africa in terms of education and government, enabling Afrikaans usage to decline tremendously.

Secondly, the identity and social position of Afrikaners has changed since the dawn of the new democratic, non-racial, multicultural, and multilingual South Africa (i.e., minority status). Moreover, the Afrikaans language has lost its status as a language of political power, prestige, commerce, education, and workplace. With the 1996 post apartheid constitution that recognizes eleven official languages (including Afrikaans, English, and the historically marginalized African languages) equally, the position of Afrikaans as a dominant language in South Africa is grim.

Thirdly, demographics within South Africa indicate that the majority of Afrikaans speakers are not Afrikaner in ethnic terms. In fact, the majority of its speakers are of non-European descent (South African Census, 1996). The "coloured" population of South Africa speak different Afrikaans dialects and a "Creole" status of the language seems to be emerging. The "coloureds" or mixed race of South Africa view Afrikaans as the vernacular and use the language differently giving the language a new identity.

Several questions emerge from this analysis. There are clear signs of language shift, especially its usage. How will Afrikaans as a language evolve? Does lack of Afrikaner nationalism as an ideology affect Afrikaans usage even among Afrikaners themselves? Will Afrikaans varieties or dialects gain momentum in the new South Africa? What is the role of the post-apartheid government in protecting the language? Thus, with the demise of Afrikaner nationalism due to establishment of a multicultural, non-sexist, and multilingual democracy in South Africa, can standard Afrikaans survive? Afrikaans like any other language is changing and its vitality depends on the number of people using it. It would be necessary, therefore, for future studies to distinguish between the so-called Afrikaans dialects used by the majority of South Africans and
Afrikaans itself. These challenges call for a thorough and cohesive sociolinguistic examination of the change social and cultural identity of Afrikaans speakers.

7. Conclusion

Therefore, it is the argument of this paper that further studies should examine this identity change phenomenon and what is being done to stop or encourage the re-Creolization of Afrikaans. To sum up, the elevation of Afrikaans from a Dutch vernacular to the nationally dominant language of apartheid and colonial South Africa proved to be an excellent example of language promotion via ideology and it will be interesting to see whether the language will survive without the machinery of nationalism and ideological justifications.

Notes:

1. Word for lobster in Dutch is kreeft, in Afrikaans is kreef, vowel changes (i.e., Dutch oo; Afrikaans eu), and nasal quality (darm-Dutch; derm-Afrikaans).

The Author

Nene Ernest Khalema, PhD (Email: ekhalema@hsrc.ac.za) is a Chief Research Specialist at the Human Sciences Research Council and an Associate at the School of Built Environment and Development Studies, University of KwaZulu-Natal. His areas of interest are: migration, social epidemiology, sociolinguistics, and critical race/ethnic studies.

References


Improving English conversation skills through online conversation lessons and classroom interactions with English speakers

Hayas SANIBOO, Prince of Songkhla University, Thailand
Kemtong SINWONGSUWAT, Prince of Songkhla University, Thailand

The purpose of this study was to improve the oral English performance of Thai lower-secondary students. The participants in the study were 50 Grade 8 students from Rajaprapananukroh Songkhla Province School in academic year 2014. They were purposively sampled and divided into two groups, one learning through online conversation lessons and the other via classroom interaction with an English speaker. They were individually interviewed to assess their oral English performance before the treatments and after completing the lessons. Students' interviews and conversations practices were video-recorded for close analysis following Conversation Analysis (CA) principles and rated on the following features: fluency, vocabulary, appropriacy, pronunciation, and grammar. The research instruments employed in this study were oral communication tasks for pre- and post-tests. The research findings based on statistical and CA analyses shows that the students’ oral English performance considerably improved through the use of online lessons and classroom interaction with an English speaker. The learners engaged in classroom interaction, however, became significantly more fluent and had a wider range of vocabulary than those learning through online conversations, even though their performance in pronunciation were similar. Thus, it is recommended that teachers utilize online lessons not as the sole language learning activity but as a supplement to classroom interaction to strengthen particular speech features.

Keywords: Online Conversation Lessons; Classroom Interaction; Speech Features; Oral English Performance

1. Introduction

This study compares the speaking improvement of learners using online English conversation lessons and those learning through face-to-face interaction. It is aimed at determining whether there are performance differences between learners learning conversation via online lessons and those learning through face-to-face interaction with English speakers, and at discovering how each learning approach can differently benefit learners’
development of their conversation skills. The research questions are:

1) Can the employment of online conversation lessons help to improve learners’ conversation skills compared to face-to-face classroom interactions with English speakers?

2) Are there any differences in the performance improvements contributed to by the two learning approaches? Which learning approach better improves the learners’ conversation performance?

3) Which aspect of the learners’ conversation performance can be better strengthened by each approach?

2. Background

English has long been used as a language for global communication. With the upcoming merger of the ASEAN community, its role as a global language has been even greater emphasized especially in the Thai educational system. The Ministry of Education of Thailand, in particular, has released the Basic Education Core Curriculum B.E. 2551 (A.D. 2008) as a guideline for primary and secondary levels, which enforces learning English as a foreign language from Grades 1-12. The focus has been placed on developing learners’ positive attitudes towards learning the language and ability to efficiently communicate in English and use it as a medium for life-long autonomous learning (Ministry of Education, 2008).

Regardless of the level of learners, the aim is to enable them to express ideas, engage in English conversation on various topics, and search for information necessary for higher studies and future career choices. According to the current curriculum, young learners especially at the lower secondary level are expected to be able to know 2,100 to 2,250 words and talk about everyday topics such as oneself and family, environment, food and drink, health, weather and climate (Ministry of Education, 2008).

Nevertheless, according to Prapphal (2003), even though Thai students learn English from primary or even kindergarten level, many still fail to use the language with confidence in real-world speech events or when required to talk about everyday topics. Regardless of the established curriculum, it is apparently insufficient for second language learners to spend only a few hours a week learning English in classes that typically focus very little on conversation (Brooks, 2009; Wei & Zhou, 2002). Outside the classroom, they also lack opportunities to interact in English and often fail to perform essential speech acts (Salmani Nodoushan, 2014). Certainly, these hindrances can be overcome if we as teachers try hard not only to create classroom environments which involve them in more intense English speaking activities,
but also to encourage them to engage in autonomous learning afterwards. Fujii (2012) noted that as teachers allow students to share their ideas with one another and possibly generate some new vocabulary words, the adaptation to features of natural conversation will follow and this can be strengthened further as the learners are encouraged to take responsibility for their language learning by engaging in after-class tasks of their choice.

Apart from increasing classroom spoken interaction, learners are therefore encouraged to take advantage of bountiful computer-mediated language learning (CMLL) materials. Through the Internet learners of various groups can access a wide variety of target web-based English learning materials with much ease. The availability of online resources has made language practice even more convenient especially for EFL learners, most of whom have limited opportunity to get exposed to English outside the classroom. Numerous websites now offer online English conversation lessons, giving the learners the opportunity to improve their conversation skills right at their fingertips. In fact, there are numerous websites providing English conversation lessons for EFL learners’ self-study free of charge.

Shomoossi, Moinzadeh and Ketabi (2007) and Barrs (2012) contend that computer-mediated language lessons can actually complement face-to-face classroom-based learning. While face-to-face learning of EFL learners remains mostly in the classroom setting and relies much on teachers’ instruction, online learning can be done conveniently from inside and outside the classroom through available technology applications and language training websites with little reliance on teachers. Mayer (2003) suggests that CMLL can in fact facilitate learners in improving vocabulary skills better than face-to-face learning. Audiovisual texts provided online would allow for recurring practice and help correct learners’ misunderstanding of the target language, whereas in face-to-face teaching the learners are often deprived of such opportunity and have to pay close attention to teachers.

As the objectives of interaction in second language classrooms have been shifted from solely improving students’ accurate production of linguistic forms to including the active production of meaningful talk with the goal of improving their L2 fluency, it becomes especially important for teachers to understand the organization of the learners’ talk and learning experiences in the classroom. Conversation analysis (CA), as originated in the works of Harvey Sacks, Emanuel Schegloff, and Gail Jefferson, has particularly started to play an important role in helping us to understand L2 learning and to investigate L2 classrooms as it offers an effective means of recording, transcribing, and analyzing naturally occurring talk-in-interaction (Seedhouse, 2004). CA is the study of recorded, naturally occurring talks to discover how social participants understand and respond to one another in
their turns at talk, with a central focus on how sequences of action are organized such that social order can be constructed and maintained. Thus, CA perspective emphasizes enabling teachers to recognize the patterns of communication that establish and maintain second language classroom interactions and to help learners to fulfill their talk in the interactions.

The language teaching material design of CA in particular presents dialogues in audio or video clips together with transcription, allowing learners to experience their authenticity while learning linguistic expressions (Wong 2002 cited in Seedhouse 2004, p. 228).

With the application of CA, teachers are also able to select authentic online conversation lessons to appropriately suit learners’ needs and make the best use of bountiful online resources as supplementary learning materials for learners’ autonomous learning.

Given the great number of online language learning resources today, there has however been a dearth of studies specifically assessing their effectiveness, especially in facilitating learners’ development of conversation skills, compared to traditional face-to-face classroom-based teaching. Therefore, this study aims to determine whether the employment of online conversation lessons can really help to enhance learners’ conversation skills compared to face-to-face classroom interactions with English speakers, and in what ways, if it can. It also attempts to unveil how each learning approach can lend itself to the improvement in different aspects of the learners’ conversation skills.

3. Method

3.1. Participants

The participants of this study were 50 class 8 students from Rajchaprachanukroh 43 Songkhla province school under the Bureau of Special Education, Office of the Basic Education Commission. They were taking English as a core course of a foreign language required for secondary level students. The ages of students ranged from 13-15. They were selected by the purposive sampling method for a quasi-experimental treatment. The students were divided into two groups of 25. One group was assigned to learn speaking through face-to-face interaction with English speakers and the other via online conversation lessons.

3.2. Instruments

The instruments used in this study were lesson plans and oral communication tasks.

There were 6 lesson plans prepared by the researcher. Each lesson plan had
duration of 150 minutes including the topics of introducing oneself and others, interview, food and family.

The oral communication tasks were pre-test and post-test. In the pre-test conversation, the participants were asked about their personal information and the conversations were recorded for subsequent assessment. After the treatment students were engaged in a post-test to see individual improvement.

3.3. Procedures

The data was collected from the 50 student samples. In the beginning, the pre-test was conducted as all of the students were asked to converse with an English speaker to determine their conversation performance. The performance was assessed by an English speaker who was not the students’ class teacher and videotaped for subsequent scoring by the researcher in the following features: frequency (speech flow), vocabulary (use of words and accuracy), appropriacy (turn responding), pronunciation (segmental sounds), grammar (range of structures used). The scoring rubric had been adapted from Barraja-Rohan (2011), O’Loughlin (2001), Luoma (2004), and Tsang & Wong (2002) (See Appendix). After the pre-test conversation, the students were engaged in weekly conversation lessons on the following topics: introduction and leave taking, likes and dislikes, family, and community. The training took place three hours a week over the course of four consecutive weeks. One group of the students practiced English conversation online in a computer lab with guide books containing specific instructions, conversation scripts, and exercises prepared by the researcher. At the beginning of the first session, the researcher as teacher oriented them towards the training goal. The teacher was available during their practice only to help them with technical problems, allowing them to maneuver freely through the lesson until they mastered the target conversation. The students in the other group learnt conversation on the same topics through classroom face-to-face interaction with an English teacher and they were provided only with the scripts and exercises.

There were 6 lessons prepared by the researcher for both groups. In week 5, after the students completed their training, they were engaged in a post-test conversation with the same English speaker as in the pre-test. Their conversations were videotaped and assessed by the English speaker and the researcher, using the same rubric as in the pre-test.

As shown in Table 1 below, the students in both groups obtained similar scores in the pre-test, showing that they had the same level of speaking proficiency.
Table 1

Comparison between the Pre-Tests of Groups 1 & 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Features</th>
<th>GROUP 1 (n=25)</th>
<th>GROUP 2 (n=25)</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fluency</td>
<td>1.20</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>0.37</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocabulary</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td>0.44</td>
<td>-0.70</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appropriacy</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td>0.44</td>
<td>0.44</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pronunciation</td>
<td>1.56</td>
<td>1.52</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grammar</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>0.37</td>
<td>-0.86</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total 25</td>
<td>6.24</td>
<td>6.32</td>
<td>2.15</td>
<td>-0.15</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total 100</td>
<td>24.96</td>
<td>25.28</td>
<td>8.62</td>
<td>-0.15</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Additionally, the videotaped conversations from both the pre- and the post-test were transcribed for subsequent comparative analysis. The comparative analysis threw light on the strong and weak areas of the students and difficulties they faced during these sessions.

4. Results and discussion

Comparison between the videotaped conversations and the pre- and post-tests scores obtained from the face-to-face interactions showed that learning through classroom interaction with a teacher and through online lessons can both improve the learners’ oral performance. However, as shown in Table 2, the learners participating in face-to-face classroom interactions outperformed those engaged in online lessons.

Table 2

Comparison between the Post-Tests of Groups 1 & 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Features</th>
<th>GROUP 1 (n=25)</th>
<th>GROUP 2 (n=25)</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fluency</td>
<td>2.16</td>
<td>1.60</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>2.37</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocabulary</td>
<td>1.96</td>
<td>1.68</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appropriacy</td>
<td>2.04</td>
<td>1.68</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>1.55</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pronunciation</td>
<td>2.32</td>
<td>2.36</td>
<td>0.64</td>
<td>-0.17</td>
<td>41.033</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grammar</td>
<td>1.96</td>
<td>1.56</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>1.82</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total 25</td>
<td>10.44</td>
<td>8.88</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>1.45</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total 100</td>
<td>41.76</td>
<td>35.52</td>
<td>13.92</td>
<td>1.45</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

After the treatment the students who were assigned classroom interaction performed better in all speech features except in pronunciation where both groups were equal (2.32 for Group1 and 2.36 for Group2). Even though the improvement in the conversational skills of the two groups was not
significantly different overall, the improvement in one feature, particularly fluency, was especially noticeable among the learners learning through classroom interaction with the teacher \((t = 2.37, \text{ sig} = 0.02)\). This indicates that learners can still greatly benefit from frequent face-to-face interaction not only with their peers but with their teacher in the classroom. The classroom teacher in particular helped motivate them to talk, provided supportive scaffolding, and created contexts in which the learners could become familiar with language in interaction through repetitive tasks as well as giving them oral feedback. These classroom practices are all considered essential for the development of their oral fluency (Garbat & Mady, 2015).

As for the question regarding differences in performance improvements contributed to by the two learning approaches, the results showed that both approaches can help enhance the learners’ oral English proficiency. However, indicated by the pre- and post-test score differences in each group, the degree of improvement varied among the features. Shown in Table 3 below, fluency appeared to be the most improved feature in Group 1, whereas pronunciation, appropriacy of turn responding, grammar, and vocabulary were readily developed through face-to-face interaction with an English speaker. As suggested in Segalowitz and Freed (2004), for young learners, fluency or speech flow is easier to improve as they become more frequently engaged in authentic, meaningful conversation practice.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Features</th>
<th>Pre-test M</th>
<th>Pre-test SD</th>
<th>Post-test M</th>
<th>Post-test SD</th>
<th>M Diff.</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fluency</td>
<td>1.20</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td>2.16</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>6.08</td>
<td>24.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocabulary</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>0.37</td>
<td>1.96</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>5.66</td>
<td>24.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appropriacy</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td>0.44</td>
<td>2.04</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>5.66</td>
<td>24.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pronunciation</td>
<td>1.56</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>2.32</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>0.76</td>
<td>4.88</td>
<td>24.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grammar</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>0.28</td>
<td>1.96</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>6.06</td>
<td>24.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total (25)</td>
<td>6.24</td>
<td>1.64</td>
<td>10.44</td>
<td>4.12</td>
<td>4.20</td>
<td>6.36</td>
<td>24.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total (100)</td>
<td>24.96</td>
<td>6.56</td>
<td>41.76</td>
<td>16.50</td>
<td>16.80</td>
<td>6.36</td>
<td>24.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Demonstrated in Table 4, the degree of conversational improvement of Group 2 however was smaller than that of the first group in all the features except for pronunciation. This suggests that online resources such as conversation lessons are still proven greatly beneficial for students’ pronunciation development (Cheng, 2003; Hismanoglu, 2010).
Table 4

The Pre-Test and Post-Test Performance of Group2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Features</th>
<th>Pre-test</th>
<th>Post-test</th>
<th>M Diff.</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fluency</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>1.60</td>
<td>0.44</td>
<td>4.34</td>
<td>24.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocabulary</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td>1.68</td>
<td>0.44</td>
<td>4.34</td>
<td>24.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appropriacy</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td>1.68</td>
<td>0.44</td>
<td>4.34</td>
<td>24.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pronunciation</td>
<td>1.52</td>
<td>2.36</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>8.89</td>
<td>24.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grammar</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>1.56</td>
<td>0.40</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>24.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total (25)</td>
<td>6.32</td>
<td>8.88</td>
<td>2.56</td>
<td>6.03</td>
<td>24.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total (100)</td>
<td>25.28</td>
<td>35.52</td>
<td>10.24</td>
<td>6.03</td>
<td>24.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Close analysis of the videotaped conversations in the pre-test and post-test additionally affirmed the improvement of the young learners’ conversational skills. The improvement was observable particularly in their responses to questions, turn delivery, turn size, voice volume, and self-repair as illustrated in the following excerpts obtained from the pre- and post-test interviews of a student in Groups 1 and 2 with a foreign teacher.

The pre-training interaction often showed the students’ delay in turn delivery and their lack of understanding a previous turn. Excerpt 1 below illustrates the pre-test interview interaction between a student from Group 1, Rungarunee (Ru), and the teacher. The latter asked numerous general questions to elicit the student’s responses. In this interaction, there are several noticeable micropauses indicating delay in the student’s turn delivery, e.g., lines 2, 5, and 9. While slow on her uptake, in line 5 the longer pause also indicated Ru’s lack of understanding the question; therefore, the teacher had to repeat it and initiated the answer which Ru was able to finish in a low voice in line 7. Aside from the apparent lack of confidence in turn responding, in line 10 Ru also lacked the vocabulary to finish her response in English. So, the teacher’s question in line 8 was responded to in Thai.

**Excerpt 1 [Pre-test: Foreign teacher- Student] Group1**

1. T: What is your name?
2. (.)
3. Ru: My name is Rungarunee Churnmadan
4. T: How to spell it?
5. Ru: ( 0.5 ) ((smile))
6. T: How do you spell your name? R U
7. Ru: “R U N G A R U N”
8. T: What kind of food do you like?
9. Ru: ( . )((smile))
I like.

What do you like? Fried chicken or:  

=khow-pad ((tr.:Fried rice))

Similar problems were also found in the pre-test interview of a student from Group 2, as illustrated in the excerpt below.

**Excerpt 2 [Pre-test: Foreign teacher- Student] Group2**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>T:</th>
<th>What is your name?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Su:</td>
<td>My name is Suchada Suksawatdee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T:</td>
<td>Where do you live?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Su:</td>
<td>((smile))</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T:</td>
<td>Where do you live? Songkhla or Pattane</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Su:</td>
<td>=Songkhla°</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T:</td>
<td>What time do you go to sleep?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Su:</td>
<td>((smile)) mai ru ((tr.:don't know))</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T:</td>
<td>What time?(( T show picture of sleeping))</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Su:</td>
<td>sam tum ((tr.:nine pm.))</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The students, however, became more confident in the post-test. Shown in excerpt 3, Ru, Group 1 student, promptly delivered appropriate responses to the foreign teacher’s turns. Neither hesitation nor major problems were found in her speech. Despite a minor grammatical mistake, as in line 6, overall her response was completely understandable.

**Excerpt 3 [Post-test: Foreign teacher- Student]Group1**

| Ru: | I have one sister. |
| T: | What is your favourite sport? |
| Ru: | Badminton. |
| T: | What are you doing in your free time? |
| Su: | =I like reading book. |

The students in Group 2, trained through online lessons, also showed more confidence in the post-test. While demonstrating ability to perform self-repair, as in line 6 below, they appeared to be less fluent than those in Group 1 in responding to turns. Some hesitation and mistakes were still observable in their turn delivery, shown in Suchada’s pointed turns in excerpt 4 below.
Excerpt 4 [Post-test: Foreign teacher- Student] Group2
1 T: Where do you live?
2→ Su: I live Songkhla.
3 T: What is your favourite food?
4 Su: I like cakes and pizza.
5 T: What are you doing in your free time?

5. Conclusion
The study investigated the improvement of conversation skills through classroom interaction with an English speaker and online conversation lessons using the assessment rubric containing five distinct features; namely, fluency, vocabulary, appropriacy, pronunciation, and grammar. The results of this study suggest that online conversation lessons and classroom interactions with English speakers both are flexible and practical ways to enhance learners’ conversational skills. While classroom interaction with the teacher has proven indispensable as the source of scaffolding supports and meaningful interactions to help students to master face-to-face interaction, the implementation of online lessons can also provide them more opportunities to practice what they have learned and reinforce what they have heard especially when it comes to pronunciation of the target language. A teacher may accordingly serve as a facilitator and a guide encouraging learners to engage in meaningful interaction with others and to use online conversation lessons to enhance their speaking ability.

Further studies examining online conversation lessons and classroom interaction should consider learners with different levels of proficiency and closely-supervised training may be needed for particular groups of students. The rubric used for assessing student’s performance should also be made more relevant to naturally occurring conversations.

The Authors
Hayas Saniboo (Email: manisbitanghayas@gmail.com) is studying for a Master of Arts degree in Teaching English as an International Language in the Faculty of Liberal Arts at Prince of Songkhla University, Thailand. She is also an English teacher at Rajchaprachnkroh 43 Songkhla Province School.

Kemtong Sinwongsuwat (Email: ksinwong@gmail.com) has a Ph.D. in English with specialization in English Language and Linguistics from the University of Wisconsin-Madison. She currently is an Assistant Professor at the Faculty of Liberal Arts, Prince of Songkla University-Hat Yai, and has special interest in Conversation Analysis (CA), corpus linguistics, and the development of Thai EFL learners’ oral communication skills.
References


Appendix A

The transcription convention adapted from Seedhouse (2004) and Barraja-Rohan (2011):

- (period) Falling intonation
- , (comma) Continuing intonation
- :: (colon(s)) Prolonging of sound
- WORD (all capital letters) Loud speech
- CAP ITALLICS Utterance in subject’s L1
- °word° (degree symbols) Quiet speech
- <> Pauses of more than 5 seconds (e.g., <8>)
- ( ) (empty parentheses) Non-transcribable segment of talk
- ? Indicates rising intonation
- Bold Emphasis
- = (a) Turn continue below, at the next identical symbol
- (b) If inserted at the end of one speaker’s turn and at the next beginning speaker’s adjacent turn, indicated that there is no gap at all between the two turns
- (c) Indicates that there is no interval between adjacent utterances
- T: Teacher

Appendix B


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criteria</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fluency</td>
<td>Students can speak fluently and manage to keep the conversation going smoothly.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocabulary</td>
<td>Students have mastered a range of vocabulary learned</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appropiacy</td>
<td>Students can appropriately respond to their interlocutor’s turns.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pronunciation/Comprehensibility</td>
<td>Students can produce speech which can be understood by their interlocutor.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grammar</td>
<td>Students can employ a range of structures learned with only minor mistakes.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Criteria for assessment

Both groups were videotaped while having a conversation with an English speaker and rated by two assessors. Scoring criteria and descriptors for oral interaction adapted from Barraja-Rohan (2011), O’Loughlin (2001), Luoma (2004), and Tsang & Wong (2002) were employed to rate students’ conversation performance. The raters were provided with the rubric with five different aspects of speaking: fluency, vocabulary, appropriacy, comprehension and grammar and the evaluation sheet was given to the raters to evaluate each student’s performance. The evaluation sheet is composed of a 5-point scale: 1=very poor/unacceptable; 2= poor; 3=average; 4= good and 5= excellent.
Appendix C

Oral Proficiency Interview Questions

The test is based on a 10-minute casual conversation with an English speaker on personal information and everyday topics. The tester interviewed each learner with similar questions on the same topics.

**Topic 1 Personal information**
1. What is your name? How do you spell it?
2. How old are you?
3. Where do you live?

**Topic 2 Family**
4. Do you have any brothers or sisters?
5. Does anyone else live at home with you?
6. How is your grandparent?

**Topic 3 School**
7. How do you go to school?
8. Do you have any brothers or sisters in this school?
9. Which subjects do you like the most? Why?
10. Do you study English at your school?

**Topic 4 Food**
11. What kind of food do you like?
12. What does your mother cook for dinner?
13. Can you tell me how she cooks it?
14. Why do you all enjoy this food most?

**Topic 5 Daily activities**
15. Now tell me, what do you all do when you get up in the morning?
16. What do you do in the evening?
17. What time do you go to sleep? Why?

**Topic 6 Hobbies**
18. What are you doing in your free time?
19. Do you listen to the radio/watch TV in your house?
20. What is your favorite program?
21. What is your favorite sport? /Why do you enjoy it most?
La bindi nga que tu know-là nyass jusqu’a le feu sort seulement: Examining strategies of intensification in Camfranglais

Lozzi Martial MEUTEM KAMTCHUENG, University of Maroua, Cameroon

This paper examines the various strategies used to mark intensification in Camfranglais, a composite language developed by French-speaking Cameroonian secondary and high school students. The data for the study were collected through participant observation, questionnaires, and from the corpora gathered by Kouega (2003) and Ntobe, Biloa and Echu (2008). After analyzing the data using structural grammar (Quirk and Greenbaum 1973’s model) as the theoretical framework, it is found that intensifiers in Camfranglais, from the stand point of discourse, can be classified into four main groups: (a) single-word intensifiers, (b) reduplicative intensifiers, (c) phrasal intensifiers, and (d) sentential intensifiers. Each of these modifies specific items in the sentence. Single-word intensifiers, which are found to belong to the word classes of determiners, adjectives, verbs and adverbs can act either as premodifiers (when the modified elements are nouns) or as postmodifiers (in case the modified elements are adjectives and verbs) while reduplicative intensifiers, which are grouped into two categories, can function either as noun phrase modifiers and subject/object complement, on the one hand, and adjunct on the other hand. Phrasal intensifiers, like reduplicative ones have been grouped into two categories: the first consisting of intensifiers which function as adjective and verb modifiers while the second group includes those which function as noun modifiers. The range of modification of sentential intensifiers is found to be limited to adjectives and verbs. With regard to the semantics of these intensifiers, the findings reveal that they are almost all sense-oriented, most of them being amplifiers, and can be classified under the following spheres: visual, tactile, mental, gustatory and spacio-temporal.

Keywords: Intensification; Camfranglais; Reduplicative; Modifiers; Discourse; Sense-Oriented; Semantics

1. Introduction

For the past two decades or so, there has been a growing interest on the part of researchers concerning the language spoken by the youth. This growing
interest can be viewed through the works carried out by Stenström (1995), Andersen (1995), Stenström and Andersen (1996), Andersen (1997), Erman (1997), Tagliamonte (1998), Tagliamonte and Hudson (1999), Rodriguez (2002), Herrero (2002), Paradis and Bergmark (2003), Tagliamonte (2005), Tagliamonte and D’Arly (2004), Klaus and Fox (2007), Hansen-Thomas (2008), Palacios Martinez (2011), just to name these few. In Cameroon, especially in its French-speaking part, the language developed among youth, called Camfranglais, has also drawn researchers’ attention. This hybrid language is used by youth to communicate among themselves to the exclusion of non-members. Besides, these language users put at work several linguistic processes to mystify their speech and reinforce incomprehensibility (Kouega, 2003, p. 1). One of the linguistic phenomena through which the reinforcement of this incomprehensibility can be observed is at the level of strategies used by Camfranglophones to intensify their utterances. This paper therefore sets out to explore the linguistic strategies used by the speakers of this hybrid language to mark intensification. Before analyzing these features, it is necessary to provide background information about Camfranglais.

2. What is Camfranglais?

The term “Camfranglais” is a word which results from the juxtaposition of three lexical items, namely “Camerounais”, “français” and “anglais” in their abbreviated form (Mbah Onana & Mbah Onana 1994, p. 29). This term was coined by Ze Amvela (1989) to distinguish between a new speech form that was cropping up in Cameroon and what was known as Franglais, the unconscious transference of English items into French including code-mixing and code-switching by bilinguals in Canada and France (Kouega, 2003, p. 1). Like Pidgin-English, Camfranglais is a contact language and does not have any native speaker. It is a composite language which is made up of Cameroonian local languages, Pidgin-English, French and English. Besides, it is a hybrid language spoken by hawkers, blue collar workers, unemployed Cameroonian pupils and students (Biloua, 2004, p. 3).

As far as the origin of Camfranglais is concerned, Jeune Afrique Magazine (1988, p. 30), as quoted by Ntsobe, Biloua and Echu (2008), holds that Camfranglais, a language which combines Duala, French and English was spread more and more in Cameroon. First used as slang for “camouflage” at the Douala seaport, it is nowadays spoken by all youths.

Concerning the thematic grouping of lexical items in Camfranglais, Kouega (2003, p. 512), notes that the most frequent issues discussed by adolescents who speak Camfranglais include food and drinks, money and ways of laying hands on it, sex and relationships with women, physical look of people and their feelings and ways of addressing people.
Various studies have been carried out on this language. Its phonology was studied by Tiayon Lekoubou (1985) and Ntsobe, Biloa and Echu (2008) who have found that this language comprises eight vowels, two semi-vowels and twenty-one consonants; and that many English and French words used in Camfranglais undergo processes of prenasalisation (e.g., “bordel” in French becomes “mbok” in Camfranglais), monophthongisation of diphthongs (e.g., “came [kɛim] is pronounced [kɛm]), vowel ephenthesis (e.g., “school [skul] is articulated as [sukul], metathesis (e.g., “ask [ask] changes in [aks], etc (Ntsobe, Biloa & Echu, 2008, pp. 67-68). The lexico-semantics of this language is studied by Kouega (2003) who has identified the following features: borrowing (e.g., appuyer (from French): to have sexual intercourse with a girl), coinages (e.g., poum: to sneak away), shortening (e.g., blem: problem), affixation (e.g., ghettosard(ghetto+ sard), inversion (e.g., réfré (from the French “frère”), idiomatic formation (e.g., dépose-moi: leave me alone), reduplication (e.g., djim-djim: very big), compounding (e.g., taximan: taxi-driver, blending (e.g., champicoter: to sip Champagne, meaning change (e.g., Bakassi: any dangerous place (Kouega, 2003, pp. 514-524)). The syntax of Camfranglais was analysed by Biloa (1999) and Ntsobe, Biloa and Echu (2008) who point out that tense, gender, number, as well as the pronouns used in Camfranglais are those of the French language. Besides, the sentence pattern of this language is based on the French language, the matrix language and with other languages filling in the slots.

3. Intensification defined

Intensification is the linguistic process which consists in using intensifiers either to increase or reduce the effects of utterances. Intensifier, on its part, is “a cover term for amplifiers (i.e., intensifiers with scaling up effects) and downtoners (i.e., ‘detensifiers’ or intensifiers with scaling down effects). In the literature, the term downtoners is synonymous to hedges (Xiao & Tao, 2007, p. 244). As Quirk and Greenbaum (1973, p. 214) assert, ”Intensifiers are not limited to indicating an increase in intensity; they indicate a point on the intensity scale which may be high or low”. They go further to distinguish three semantic classes of intensifiers, namely emphasizers, amplifiers and downtoners. What distinguishes any of these three subclasses is that “emphasizers have a general heightening effect (e.g., actually, certainly); amplifiers scale upwards from an assumed norm (completely, very much) while downtoners have a lowering effect, usually scaling downwards from an assumed norm (e.g., hardly, partly)” (Quirk & Greenbaum, 1973, p. 214). It is also worth stating that amplifiers are also subdivided into two subclasses, namely maximizers (e.g., absolutely, altogether) and boosters (e.g., deeply, greatly) while that of downtoners comprises the subclasses of compromizers (which have only a slight lowering effect, e.g., a kind of, a sort of, rather),
diminishers and minimizers (which scale downward considerably, e.g., “partly”, “slightly” for diminishers and “barely, little” for minimizers) and approximators (e.g., nearly, almost) (Quirk & Greenbaum, 1973, p. 218). However, as it is pointed out by Xiao and Tao (2007, p. 244), the distinction among the various subclasses of intensifiers is not clear-cut. For instance, the intensifier “extremely” is considered as a maximizer in Quirk et al (1985, p. 590) while Kennedy (2003, p. 472) views it as a booster. So, in order to avoid being lost into the nitty-gritty of the various subclasses of intensifiers, the analysis will be restricted to two groups of intensifiers namely amplifiers (intensifiers with a heightening effect) and downtoners (intensifiers with a lowering effect).

In English and French, intensifiers occur either as premodifiers or postmodifiers. They can be adverbs (e.g., She walks fast (English), Il est très énervé (French)), prepositional phrases (e.g., He is right to some extent (English), Il aime Mary à la folie (French)), adjectives (e.g., Come here, little boy! (English), Il conduit sa propre voiture (French)), noun phrases (e.g., a Mary did not sleep a wink last night (English), b) This man does not owe you a thing (English).

So, the framework of this study is structural grammar (Quirk & Greenbaum’s 1973 model). The elements found in this framework and which will be relevant to the work are already discussed in this section (intensifiers, amplifiers, downtoners, modification, premodifiers, postmodifiers, just to name a few).

Intensifiers have also drawn the attention of researchers who are interested in the relationship between language and gender. It has been found that intensifiers abound more in the speech of female speakers of English than in that of male. In other words, female speakers of English use intensifiers more than male ones (Aries, 1998; Jespersen, 1922; Key, 1975; Lakoff, 2004; Sharp, 2012). This finding is complemented by that of Xiao and Tao (2007, p. 266) who point out that gender alone cannot be the only parameter which can help distinguish between the use of intensifiers and gender. Other sociolinguistic variables such as age, socioeconomic and education levels, and possibly also race and ethnicity come into play. Besides, contextual constraints such as discourse mode, genre, communication topic and interpersonal relationship can influence the language used by various social groups. Furthermore, the study carried out by Stenström, Andersen and Hasund (2002, p. 140) reveals that adults use intensifiers twice as much as teenagers.

4. Methodology

The data for this study were collected from participant observation, questionnaires, and from the corpora gathered by some previous researchers.
Through participant observation, it was possible to collect a considerable amount of the data. To achieve this, I had to listen to young French-speaking Cameroonians communicate among themselves in school premises, public offices (ministries, post offices, enterprises, etc.) and informal settings such as markets, stadia, bars, road sides, bus stations, shops and night clubs. At several occasions, a tape recorder was used to record the conversations of these young people. Often, I had to jot down the sentences produced by Camfranglophones, especially when they incorporate intensifiers. As a speaker of Camfranglais, I could easily identify in their oral productions, the intensification constructions as well as their meanings.

Also, 100 hundred Camfranglais speakers of various regions of Cameroon were given a questionnaire which comprises 20 sentences in which some elements are intensified. These sentences are written in French (since the informants have French as their first language) so as to avoid comprehension problems. Informants were asked to put the sentences in Camfranglais (see the annex page for the questionnaire). Out of the 100 questionnaires administered, 80 were returned. It could be noticed that despite the disparities which could be perceived at the level of the spellings of words in Camfranglais sentences, as written by the informants, the intensification constructions used were recurrent.

Besides, apart from participant observation and questionnaires (see the appendix), the data were also collected from the corpora gathered by Kouega (2003) and Ntsoe, Biloa and Echu (2008). Kouega’s corpus was collected from short sequences of informal conversations over a period of three years in various informal settings where youngsters frequently interact (e.g., school premises, bus stations, health centers and police station (Kouega, 2003, p. 511). The data found in Ntsoe, Biloa and Echu’s corpus was collected via tape-recording from the productions of Cameroonian secondary, high and university students, of three regions of the country namely Yaounde, Douala and Bafoussam. Also, these authors got some of their data from written material such Cameroon Tribune, a daily newspaper. (Ntsoe, Biloa & Echu, 2008, p. 16).

5. Strategies of Intensification

A scrutiny of the data can enable to discuss intensifiers under four headings, on the basis of their structural make-up, namely single-word intensifiers, reduplicative intensifiers, phrasal intensifiers and sentential intensifiers.

5.1. Single-word intensifiers

As the name indicates, single word intensifiers are those which consist only of one lexical item as the examples provided in the sentences below indicate.
The English translation of each Camfranglais sentence is provided in bracket below it.

1. a. La bunya du djo-ci est moo **mal**.
The car of man-this is good bad
   “The car of this man is **very** nice.”
   (Source: questionnaire, sentence 1, cf. appendix)

   b. “Mon copo avait barré la ngà-là et maintenant, il regrette **mal’**
   My friend had ditched the girlfriend-that and now he regrets bad
   My friend had ditched that girlfriend of his and now he is regretting
   (source: Ntsobe, Biloa & Echu, 2008, p. 147, example 133)

2. a. Le grand de Patrick est short **grave**.
The elder of Patrick is short bad
   “The elder brother of Patrick is **very** short.”
   (source: informal conversation)

   b. J’ai djaff la damé-là **grave**.
   I have eaten the food-that bad
   “I have eaten that food **too much.”**
   (source: informal conversation)

3. a. Si je do le work-ci, je serais sick **casse**.
   If I do the work-this I will be sick tired
   “If I do this work, I will be **very** sick.”
   (source: informal conversation)

   b. Moussa piff les nga **casse**.
   Moussa likes the women broken
   “Moussa loves women **too much**.”
   (source: questionnaire, sentence 19)

4. a. Les exo du prof d’anglais sont toujours trong **jusqu’a**.
The exercises of prof of English are always difficult until
   “The exercises of the English teacher are always **very** difficult.”
   (informal conversation)

   b. “Le day-là, on a waka **jusqu’à**”
The day-that, one have walk until
   “On that day, we trekked too much”
   (Ntsobe, Biloa & Echu, 2008, p. 150, example 193)

5. a. “**Flop** de gars ne know pas le popo des « Mark James »”
   Too many of boys neg. know neg. the authentic the “Mark James
   “Too many boys do not know the authentic Mark James”
   (Ntsobe, Biloa & Echu, 2008, p. 144, example 71)
b. “Les gars *Flop* ne know pas le popo des « Mark James »”
The boys too many neg. know neg. the authentic the “Mark James
“Too many boys do not know the authentic Mark James”
(adapted from Ntsoe, Biloa & Echu, 2008, p. 144, example 71)

6. Gars, waka *easy*-eh!
Boy walk slowly-eh
“Boy, walk slowly”
(source: informal conversation)

7. Le djo de ma résé est *amer* en math.
The man of my sister is bitter in maths
“The boyfriend of my sister is *very* good at mathematics.”
(source: informal conversation)

8. Le man-là est *prêt* en physique.
The man-this is *ready* in physics
“That man is *very* good at physics.”
(source: informal conversation)

9. Elle tell que son gars est *lourd*.
She say that her boy is heavy
She says that her boyfriend is *very rich*.
(source: informal conversation)

A close observation of the above sentences shows that these single-word intensifiers are all amplifiers and they belong to the word classes of adjectives (see sentences (1.a), (1.b); (2.a), (2.b); (3.a), (3.b); (6), (7), (8) and (9), adverb (see sentences (4) and (5a) and determiner (quantifier, see sentence (5b)). Besides, it can be observed that apart from sentences (5a) “*Flop* de gars ne know pas le popo des «Mark James»”, (5b) “Les gars *Flop* ne know pas le popo des «Mark James>” and (6) (Gars, waka *easy*-eh!) in which the intensifiers are Camfrançais (see sentences (5.a), (5.b) and English terms (see sentence (6)), the rest of intensifiers are essentially drawn from French, the matrix language of Camfrançais. Furthermore, from the sentences above, one can point out that these single-word Camfrançais intensifiers can either act as postmodifiers (i.e., they occur after the sentence element they modify) in case the modified elements are adjectives and verbs (see sentences (1.a), (1.b); (2.a), (2.b), (3.a), (3.b), (4.a),(4.b), (6) and (9). However, they act as premodifiers when they modify noun phrases and prepositional phrases (see sentences (5.b), (7) and (8). Moreover, it is worth pointing out that semantically speaking, these intensifiers are misleading. In other words, a literal interpretation of Camfrançais intensifiers, on the basis of their donor
languages, cannot lead to the intended meaning of the Camfrançais sentence in which they are found. For instance, let us consider sentences (1.a) La bunya de djo-ci est moo *mal*. (The car of this man is *very* nice) and (1.b) “Mon copo avait barré la nga-là et maintenant, il regrette *mal*. In sentences (1.a) and (1.b), the intensifier “mal”, in the French language, conveys a reductive/negative meaning since it is the English equivalent for “bad, poorly”. So, if these sentences are interpreted on the basis of the donor language intensifier; sentences 1-a and b might be interpreted respectively as “The car of this man is not nice/ugly” and “this man tells lies wrongly”, which is not at all their respective intended meaning in Camfrançais. However, this intensifier in Camfrançais instead shows an increase in intensity. In other words, it has an upward scaling effect. Also, it can be noted that Camfrançais intensifying items, in their respective donor language, do not collocate with the word they modify in Camfrançais sentences. Let us consider, for instance, sentences (6) (Gars, waka *easy*-eh! (Boy, walk slowly), (7) (Le djo de ma résé est *amer* en Math (The boyfriend of my sister is *very* good at mathematics) and (8) Le man-là est *prêt* en Physique (That man is *very* good at Physics.). In English, the word “easy” cannot collocate with the verb “walk” to mean “walk slowly”. Similarly, the French adjective “amer” and “prêt” which are respectively the English word for “bitter” and “ready” cannot collocate with the name of subjects (e.g., physics, mathematics), be it in French or in English. So, as stated above, a literal interpretation of these intensifiers on the basis of their meanings in the French or the English languages is misleading. These clues go in the same vein with Kouega’s (2003, P. 1) findings according to which Camfranglophones use various linguistic techniques to render their language mysterious and to reinforce incomprehensibility.

5.2. Reduplicative intensifiers

As opposed to the intensifiers discussed above, which consist only of a single lexical item, the ones handled in this section comprise two identical lexes which have been bound together as one lexical unit. These lexical units are referred to in this work as reduplicative intensifiers. As Platt et al (1984, P. 114) observe, “reduplication [...] consists in repeating the same word several times, often in order to create a feeling of intensity as in “hot hot coffee”, “long long hair” in Indian English”. Reduplication is one of the strategies that speakers of Camfrançais make use of in order to mark intensification, as indicated in the sentences below. Many of the intensifiers used in the following sentences are found in Kouega (2003, P. 523, section 4.5).

10. a. Il tell que ma mater est *dzam-dzam/djim-djim*.  
He say that my mother is big-big/big-big  
“He says that my mother is *very big*”
b. Le *dzam-dzam/djim-djim* djo-là know shake-eh.
The fat-fat/fat-fat man-that know dance-Interjection
“That *very fat* man can dance.”

11. a. Tous les muna de ma réssé sont *longo-longo*.
All the children of my sister are long-long
“All the children of my sister are *very tall*”
b. Mon pater a nackle *longo-longo* djo-là.
My father have beat the tall-tall man-that.
“My father has beaten that *very tall* man.”

12. a. La nga du djo-là est *nyama-nyama*.
The girlfriend of man that is small-small.
“The girlfriend of this man is *very small*.”
b. Le muna de la mater-ci fimba le *nyama-nyama* djo-ci.
The child of the mother-this resembles the small-small man-this.
“The child of this woman resembles this *very small* man”

13. a. La bunya de mon big est *penya-penya/gnang-gnang*.
The car of my elder brother is new-new.
“The car of my elder brother is *brand new*.”
b. J’ai nye une voiture *penya-penya*.
I have see a car new-new
“I have seen a brand new car)”

14. a. Je ne piff pas la nga-ci, elle est *tok-tok*.
I neg. like neg. the girl-that she is dull-dull.
“I do not like this girl, she is *very dull*.”
b. Le man-ci ya la *tok-tok* nga-là.
The man-this love the dull-dull girl-that.
“This man loves that *very dull* girl”

15. Je waka *nayo-nayo*.
I walk slowly-slowly.
“I am waking *very slowly*.”

Guy, go+1st pers. plural imperative gently-gently.
“Guy, let’s go *very gently*.”

17. Gars, wait moi, je came *là-là-là*.
Boy, wait me I came there-there-there.
“Boy, wait for me, I am coming *immediately*.”

18. J’ai do mon work *wassa-wassa*.
I have do my assignment fast-fast
“I have done my assignment *very fast*.”
The data presented indicates that out of the nine reduplicative constructions which constitute the data, just two have French as their donor language, more precisely, *longo-longo* (11a,b) (from the French adjective “long”) and *là-là-là* (17) (from the French adverb “là”). No donor language from which the rest of the constructions originate has been traced. Syntactically speaking, these constructions can be grouped into two categories, namely, the intensifiers which can function as noun phrase modifiers and subject/object complement, given that they are descriptive adjectives which have been intensified, on the one hand, and those which can only perform the role of adjunct, on the other hand. Under the first group of intensifiers can be included “dzam-dzam/djim-djim” (10a-b), “longo-longo” (11a-b), “nyama-nyama” (12a-b), penya-penya (13a-b), tok-tok (14a-b). In the first sentence of each pair, the reduplicative constructions function as subject complement while in the second sentence of each pair, they function as noun phrase modifiers. It is also worth pointing out that these reduplicative constructions can all also function as object complements. For example:

19. Le prof de math me considère *tok-tok* parce que je ne yaa pas sa matière.
   The teacher of maths me consider dull-dull because I neg.mark understand neg.mark. his subject.
   (The teacher of maths considers me very *dull* because I am not good at his subject)

In this example, the reduplicative intensifier “tok-tok” neither functions as subject complement, as in the first sentences of each pair, nor as a noun phrase modifier as it is the case in the second sentence of each of these pair.

The second group of intensifiers comprises reduplicative constructions such as “nayo-nayo” (very slowly), “molo-molo” (very gently), “wassa-wassa” (very fast), which function as adjunct of manner and “là-là-là” (immediately, on the spot) which function as place adjunct.

### 5.3. Phrasal intensifiers

Contrary to single-word and reduplicative intensifiers which are built on a single lexical item, phrasal intensifiers take the structure of phrases. These intensifiers can be grouped into two categories, on the basis of the kind of elements they can modify in the sentence. The first category comprises intensifiers which can modify adjectives and verbs, whereas the second group encompasses those which can only modify nouns.
5.3.1. Phrasal intensifiers which function as adjective and verb modifiers

Under this group can be included intensifiers which occur in the following constructions: Adjective/verb + casse seulement, Adjective/verb+grave seulement, Adjective/verb+la magie seulement, Adjective/verb+la mort seulement, Adjective/verb+les nerfs seulement, Adjective/verb + à chier seulement, Adjective/verb+ mal mauvais. These constructions, obtained essentially from informal conversations, are used in the sentences below:

20. a. Je piff la nga-cim vo casse seulement. I love the girl-this good tired only “I love this girl too much.”
   b. J’ai j’ong l bière hier casse seulement. I have drink the beer yesterday tired only “Yesterday, I drank beer too much.”

21. a. les shoes du man-ci sont nyanga grave seulement. The shoes of man-this are nice serious only “The shoes of this man are very nice.”
   b. J’ai play la damba aujourd’hui grave seulement. I have play the ball today serious only “I have played football today very much.”

22. a. La ndamé-là est moo mal mauvais. The food-that is good badly bad “That food is very delicious.”
   b. Le djo-ci lom mal mauvais. The man-that lie badly bad “This man tell lies too much.”

23. a. Mon pater a faim la magie seulement. My dad have hunger the magic only “My dad is very hungry.”
   b. J’ai djaff la ndame-là la magie seulement. I have eat the food-that the magic only “I have eaten that food too much.”

24. a. Les gars du leitch sont ngémé la mort seulement. The boys of village are poor the death only “Village boys are extremely poor.”
   b. Son big l’a nack la mort seulement. His elder brother pro.have beat the death only “His elder brother has beaten him very seriously.”

25. a. Il tell que son pater est riche les nerfs seulement. He say that his father is rich the nerves only “He says that his father is very rich.”
b. J’ai bosh la physique les **nerfs seulement** aujourd’hui.  
I have study the physics the nerves only today  
“I have studied too much physics today.”

26. a. Les do que tu m’as gui sont bindi **à chier seulement**.  
The money that you pro. has give are small to defecate only  
“The amount of money you gave me is very small.”

b. Le dji-ci nack sa nga **à chier seulement**  
The man-this beat his girlfriend to defecate only  
(This man beats his girlfriend too much)

It can be noted that these intensifiers are adjectival phrases (see (20a-b), (21a-b), (22a-b), noun phrases (see (23 a-b), (24a-b) and (25a-b) as well as prepositional phrases (see (26 a-b) and they are all amplifiers. Also, from the standpoint of semantics, it is important to indicate that these phrasal intensifiers, which have the structural make-up of adjectival phrases (see (20a-b), (21a-b), (22a-b) are all adjuncts of manner.

As far as the structural make-up of the above intensifying adjectival phrases is concerned, one can observe that almost all of them are made up of an adjective + the French adverb “seulement” (only) (as in “casse seulement”, “grave seulement”), except the intensifier “mal mauvais” which is made up of an adverb (mal) + an adjective (mauvais). Intensifying noun phrases, on their part, are made up of a determiner (e.g., la) + noun (e.g., magie) + the French adverb “seulement” (as in “la magie seulement”, “la mort seulement”, “les nerfs seulement”) while intensifying prepositional phrases consist of a preposition (e.g., à) + verb (e.g., chier) and an adverb (seulement). With regard to the position of these intensifiers, it can be pointed out that they are all postmodifiers irrespective of whether they function as adjective or verb modifiers. It is worth mentioning that the change in the place of the intensifying element in the sentence will make the sentence ungrammatical. If for instance, one of these phrasal intensifiers is placed before the adjective or the verb it modifies as in (27 a-b) , the sentences obtained will be ungrammatical (i.e., it will cease to be a Camfranglais sentence, from the standpoint of syntax).

27. a. *Je piff la nga-ci **casse seulement** mo  
I love the girl-this tired only good  
“I love this girl too much.”

b. *j’ai **casse seulement** jong la bière hier  
I have tired only drink the beer yesterday  
“Yesterday, I drank beer too much.”

In (27a), the phrasal intensifier “casse seulement” premodifies the adjective “mo” (good) (i.e., it is placed after the adjective it modifies) while in (27b), the
phrasal intensifier “casse seulement” premodifies the verbal “jong” (drink). From the standpoint of the Camfranglais syntax, it can be pointed out that sentences (27a-b) are ungrammatical. If the same modification is made in (21a-b), (22a-b), (23a-b), (24a-b) and (25a-b), (26a-b), the same results will be obtained.

5.3.2. Phrasal intensifiers which function as noun modifiers

As opposed to the phrasal intensifiers discussed in (3.1.1), whose range of modification is extended to adjectives and verbs, the ones handled in this subsection modify only nouns, as exemplified in the following sentences.

28. Je know que Neymar est un sac de joueur.
   I know that Neymar is a bag of player
   “I know that Neymar is a very good/skillful/talented player.”

29. Le man-ci tell que Morinho, c’est les problèmes du coach.
   The man-this tell that Morinyo pro.is the problems of coach.
   “This man says that Morinyo is a very good/skillful/talented coach.”

30. Mon pater a bey la mort de la voiture.
   My father have buy the death of the car
   “My father has bought a very nice car.”

31. Tout le monde know que Neuer c’est la dimension du gardien.
   All the world know that Neuer pro. is the dimension of goalkeeper
   “Everybody knows that Neuer is a very talented/skillful, good goalkeeper.”

32. Le man-ci a la magie de la maison.
   The man-this has the magic of the house
   “This man owns a very big/nice/luxurious house.”

33. Je vais tchames do à la mater pour buy la tension de la shoes.
   I going take my money to the mother for buy the tension of the shoes
   “I am going to take my money from my mother in order to buy a very expensive/nice pair of shoes.”

34. Djo, je te tell que j’ai témoigné la sorcellerie de l’ordi.
   Guy I pro. tell that I have witness the witchcraft of the computer.
   “Guy, I am telling you that I have seen a very powerful computer.”

35. Ma résé a la tuerie du phone.
   My sister has the butchery of phone
   “My sister has a very powerful phone.”
36. Ma bindi nga que tu know a **les nerfs de** la fringue.
   My small girlfriend that you know has the nerves of the dresses
   “My small girlfriend that you know has very nice dresses.”

37. Mon onkal a **le grand-frère de** la bunya.
   My uncle have buy the elder brother of the car
   “My uncle has bought a very nice/expensive/sophisticated car.”

38. Mon répé a **la maman de** la maison.
   My father have the mother of the house
   “My father has a very large/luxurious/nice house.”

39. Djo, j’ai confirmé aujourd’hui que Itange c’est **les cacas du** gardien
   Guy, I have confirm today that Itange pro. is the excrements of
goalkeeper
   “Guy, I have acknowledge today that Itange is a very bad player player:”

40. Je t’ avais déjà tell que la fille-ci c’est **le ndutu de la nga**, non?
   I pro. have +past already tell that the girl-this pro. is the illluck of the
   girlfriend particle
   “I had already told you that this girl is an extremely bad girlfriend.”

41. Il tell que le man que came est **un chichi de** prof.
   He tell that the man that come is a affected manners of teacher
   “He says that the man who is coming is a very ill-mannered/incompetent
   teacher.”

42. Il tell que ton pater a **le ndem de** la voiture.
   He say that your father has Intensifier the car
   “He says that your father owns an old-shattered car.”

43. Know que Idrissou c’est les **pet-pet du** joueur.
   know that Idrissou pro. is the fart of player
   “You should know that Idrissou is a very bad player.”

On the basis of the meaning conveyed by the intensifiers in the above
Camfranglais sentences, it can be stated that the intensifying elements in
(28)-(38) are amplifiers while those found in (39) to (43) are downtoners. In
other words, the intensifiers found in (28) to (38) have an upward scaling
effect, while those in (39)-(43) have a downward scaling effect. However,
what is common to all the above intensifiers is that they are all noun phrase
premodifiers since they can only co-occur with the nouns that they modify. If
we change the position of the intensifier in the phrase, the discourse obtained
will not only be ungrammatical but also will not have the intended meaning. It
should be recalled that all the above intensifiers are noun phrases and their structure can be formalized as follows: **Determiner + noun + element to be intensified.** For instance, *un* (determiner) *sac* (noun) *de joueur* (intensified element) (28), *la* (determiner) *dimension* (noun) *du gardien* (intensified element) (31), *le* (determiner) *ndutu* (noun) *de la nga* (intensified element) (40). This structure holds true for all the intensifiers discussed in this subsection.

5.4. **Sentential intensifiers**

A sentential intensifier is a modifier which has the structural constituents of a sentence. In the corpus, these forms of intensifiers are of minimal evidence. The ones identified are presented in the sentences below.

44. a. La nga-ci est mo *(jusqu'à) le feu sort seulement.*
   The girl-this is good until the fire comes out only
   “This girl is very beautiful.”
   b. Le muna de la mater-ci lom *(jusqu'à) le feu sort seulement*
   The child of the mother-this lie until the fire comes out only
   “The child of this woman tells lies too much.”

45. a. La bunya du prof. de français est nyanga *(jusqu'à) ce n'est plus bon.*
   The car of teacher of French is nice until pro. neg. is neg. good
   “The car of the French language teacher is very nice.”
   b. Le djo-là know les math *(jusqu'à) ce n'est plus bon.*
   The man-that know the maths until pro. neg. is neg. good
   “This man is very good at mathematics.”

Take note of the fact that the above sentential intensifiers are made up essentially of French lexes. As mentioned above, they are referred to as sentential intensifiers because they have the constituent structure of a sentence. So, the intensifiers “*(jusqu'à) le feu sort seulement*” and “*(jusqu'à) ce n'est plus bon*” can be said to have the required components of a French sentence i.e., **subject** (le feu) + **verb** (sort) + **adverbial** (seulement) and **subject** (ce) + **verb** (n'est) + **qualifier** (plus bon), the introducer “jusqu'à” being optional in the construction”. As far as the co-occurrence of these intensifiers with sentence elements is concerned, it can pointed out that the range of modification of these sentential intensifiers is limited to adjectives and verbs. In [44a] and [45a], the intensifiers “*(jusqu'à) le feu sort seulement*” and “*(jusqu'à) ce n'est plus bon*” modify the adjective “mo” and “nyanga” respectively, whereas in (44b) and (45b), these intensifiers modify the verbs “lom” and “know” respectively. Besides, concerning the position of
these intensifiers in the sentence, one can observe that they both occur as postmodifiers irrespective of whether they modify verbs or adjectives. So, any change in the position of these intensifiers in the Camfrançais sentence will make it ungrammatical as in (46) and (47).

46. *La nga-ci est (jusqu’â) le feu sort seulement mo
   The girl-this is until the fire comes out only good
   “This girl is very beautiful.”

47. *Le djo-là (jusqu’â) ce n’ est plus bon know les math
   The man-that until pro. neg. is neg. know the maths
   “This man is very good at mathematics.”

In (46) and (47), the place of the phrasal intensifiers has been changed. To be more precise, in (46), the intensifier “(jusqu’â) le feu sort seulement” is placed before the adjective “mo”, which is the sentence element which it modifies while in (47) the intensifier “(jusqu’â) ce n’est plus bon” is placed before the verb “know”, which is the sentence element that it modifies. This change in the position of the intensifiers in (46) and (47) makes these sentences ungrammatical.

6. Semantic Classification of intensifiers

Semantically speaking, the word “intensification” is an abstract concept. So, for it to be well apprehended by the hearers, it must be expressed using concrete terms. In other words “to communicate [intensification] requires concrete and tangible expressions that can be related to the hearer’s experience, to facilitate comprehension” (Poonlarp, 2009, P. 283). This author goes further to point out that since the body plays a central role in the theory of meaning, intensifiers can therefore be classified into the domains of perceptions: visual, auditory, olfactory, tactile, gustatory and mental (Poonlarp, 2009, P. 283). This classification will help to discuss intensifiers in Camfrançais.

After scrutinizing the data on intensification in Camfrançais, it can be observed that almost all intensifiers in this language appeal to human sense organs and can be classified under the following spheres: visual, tactile, mental, gustatory and the spacio-temporal.

6.1. The visual sphere

The visual sphere includes the intensifiers which refer to quantity, number and appearance and some kinship terms. As pointed out by Poonlarp (2009, P. 283), “quantification constitutes the basic human faculty. People are often intrigued by a gigantic size or a large quantity.” The same holds true for what
is striking from its appearance. That can explain why Camfranglophones make use of language items which relate to quantity, number, appearance and some kinship terms which relate to size or age to intensify their utterances. Under this category are included the intensifiers provided below. Their literal meaning is provided in brackets.

- Quantity and number: *un sac de* (a bag of), *flop de* (many of), *la dimension de* (the dimension of), *dzam-dzam* (fat-fat)/*dzim-djim* (fat-fat)
- Appearance: *penya-penya* (new-new)
- Kinship terms (size/age): grand-frère (elder brother), maman (mother)

### 6.2. Tactile sphere

The tactile sphere includes intensifiers which have to do with weight, height, force and action, as illustrated below:

- Weight: *lourd* (heavy)
- Height: *longo-longo* (long-long)
- Force and action: *molo-molo* (gently-gently), *nayo-nayo* (slowly-slowly)
- Material: les cacas (excrement), les pet-pet (fart)

### 6.3. The mental sphere

Under the mental sphere are included the intensifiers which have to do with rejection and disbelief as well as valuing.

- Rejection and disbelief

A significant proportion of intensifiers in Camfranglais have to do with the realities that human beings reject because they can create fear or disgust (e.g., death, diseases, witchcraft, bodily wastes, poor physical and mental state, etc.). The intensifiers below are instructive in this respect. Their literal meaning is provided in brackets.

- *Casse* (tired), *casse seulement* (tired only), *la magie seulement* (the magic only), *la sorcellerie seulement* (the witchcraft only), *la mort seulement* (the death only), *les nerfs seulement* (the nerves only), *à chier seulement* (to defecate only), *jusqu’à* (until), *le feu sort seulement* (fire comes out only), *les problèmes de* (the problems of), *la sorcellerie de* (the witchcraft of), *la magie de* (the magic of), *la mort de* (the death of), *la tension de* (the tension of), *la tuerie de* (the butchery of), *les nerfs de* (the nerves of), *à mort* (to death).

- Valuing: *mal* (badly), *grave* (serious), *grave seulement* (serious only), *mal mauvais* (badly bad), *(jusqu’à) ce n’est plus bon.*
6.4. Gustatory and spacio-temporal spheres

A very scanty number of intensifiers are found under these spheres.

- Gustatory (taste): *amer* (bitter)
- Spacio-temporal: *là-là-là* (there-there-there)

The table below portrays the distribution of the types on intensifiers per semantic domains.

**Table 1**  
*Distribution of the Types of Intensifiers on the Basis of Semantics*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Semantic domains</th>
<th>Types of Intensifiers</th>
<th>Single-word</th>
<th>Reduplicative</th>
<th>Phrasal</th>
<th>Sentential</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Visual                    | **Quantity and Number** 0  2  3  0  8  
                           | **Appearance** 0  1  0  0  0  
                           | **Size/age** 2  0  0  0  2  |
| Tactile                   | **Weight** 1  1  0  0  2  
                           | **Height** 1  1  0  0  2  
                           | **Force and action** 0  2  0  0  2  |
| Material                  | **Rejection and disbelief** 3  0  12  1  20  
                           | **Valuing** 2  0  1  1  4  |
| Gustatory                 | 1  0  0  0  1  |
| Spacio-temporal           | 0  1  0  0  1  |
| **Total**                 | 9  8  18  2  37  |

The above table indicates that the majority of intensifiers attested in Camfranglais are phrasal (18 tokens) followed by single-word (9 tokens), reduplicative (8 tokens) and sentential (2 tokens) intensifiers. Besides, the sphere which cut the lion’s share of the intensifiers is the mental sphere (20 tokens). More precisely, the domain of rejection and disbelief (18 tokens), followed by the visual sphere (8 tokens), the tactile sphere (7 tokens), the gustatory and spacio-temporal spheres (1 token each). It can therefore be said that the sphere in which the majority of intensifiers in Camfranglais are attested is the mental one and more precisely the domain of rejection and disbelief. So, in order to intensify, Camfranglophones are more inclined to using lexes which refer to phenomena which can be detrimental to human beings such as death (e.g., “la mort seulement”), diseases (e.g., les nerfs seulement), fire (jusqu’à le feu sort seulement), witchcraft (la sorcellerie seulement), magic (la magie seulement), bodily waste (à chier seulement) etc. This concurs Poonlarp (2009, P. 284) point’s according to which:

[…] intensification lexes are the results of the psychological rejection, that is, fear or disgust. As we all know, traumatic experience, such as
death, insanity, or extreme physical pains, usually leaves a long-lasting imprint on the human mind, and people tend to avoid these subjects in normal circumstances. Taboo topics such as sexual activity, bodily wastes, epidemic and disaster are also shunned for the reason of politeness on the ground that the mentioning of such topics may bring upon misfortune. However, evoking these issues suggest the intensity of feelings in emotive utterances.

As pointed out above, the visual sphere is another source of provision of intensifiers in Camfranglais. It is common knowledge that what is remarkable by its quantity, number, volume and appearance, size and age does not leave people indifferent. So, using words which relate to significant quantities (e.g., un sac de prof, flop de muna), size (la ndzam-dzam nga-là)) and striking appearance (une voiture penya-penya) can be used to intensify successfully.

Similarly, it has been observed that some intensifiers attested in Camfranglais fall under the tactile sphere. This is due to the fact that lexes which denote huge weight (e.g., un djo lourd), significant height (eg. un muna longo-longo), force and action (eg. elle waka molo-molo), material (eg. les cacas du gardien) to give more emphasis to what is intensified.

Furthermore, lexes which belong to the gustatory sphere, for instance which denote denote bitterness, (e.g., Le djo-là est amer en Math) and spatio-temporal (là-là-là) are also used by Camfranglophones to mark intensification.

7. Conclusion

The study of intensifiers in camfranglais has revealed that Camfranglophones are very linguistically creative as regards the constructions that they use to intensify their utterances. From the standpoint of discourse, four types of intensifiers can be identified in this hybrid language, namely single-word intensifiers, reduplicative intensifiers, phrasal intensifiers and sentential intensifiers, the majority of them being amplifiers. Single-word intensifiers belong to the word classes of determiners, adjectives and adverbs and can either act as premodifiers or as postmodifiers. With respect to reduplicative intensifiers, the findings indicate that, on the basis of their syntactic functions, they can be classified into two groups, namely those which can function as noun phrase modifiers and subject/object complement, on the one hand, and those which can only perform the role of adjunct on the other hand. Like reduplicative intensifiers, phrasal ones have been grouped into two categories, namely, phrasal intensifiers which function as adjective and verb modifiers as well as those which function as noun modifiers. These phrasal intensifiers take the form of noun phrases, adjectival phrases and
prepositional phrases. Concerning sentential intensifiers, it is found that their range of modification is limited to adjectives and verbs. The structural analysis of intensifiers in Camfranglais demonstrates beyond doubt that this composite language is rule-governed. The analysis also reveals that the overwhelming majority of intensifiers in Camfranglais originate from the French language which is the matrix language of camfranglais. Semantically speaking, it is found that almost all these intensifiers are made up of lexes which appeal to sense organs and, as such, they have been grouped into five main categories, namely those belonging to the visual, tactile, mental, gustatory and spacio-temporal spheres, the dominant sphere being the mental one, more precisely the domain of rejection and disbelief. Studies should be intensified on other urban vernaculars so as to facilitate comparative studies among these vernaculars. Such studies will enable researchers to establish the principles which govern intensification in urban vernaculars.

Notes:
1. For a simple introduction to English phonology and phonetics, please see Salmani Nodoushan and Birjandi (2005); for a morphological perspective on English word accent, please see Salmani Nodoushan (2009).

The Author

Lozzi Martial Meutem Kamtchueng (Email: lozzimartial@yahoo.fr) was born in Bafoussam, Cameroon. He is a holder of two diplomas in English and French language teaching (DIPESI, 2004 and DIPES II, 2006) from the Higher Teachers’ Training colleges of the University of Yaounde I, Cameroon as well as a BA (Bilingual Letters-English and French), a Maitrise (English Language Studies, 2006), a DEA/Master’s Degree (English Language Studies, 2008) and a PhD (English Language Studies, 2013). He is interested in English and French language use in non-native contexts, language teaching and contrastive studies. Presently, he is a senior Lecturer in English Linguistics in the Department of Bilingual Letters of the University of Maroua, Cameroon.

References


Appendix: The Questionnaire


1) Cette voiture est très belle.
2) L'argent là est très insuffisant.
3) Il y a trop d'élèves dans cette classe.
4) Cette maison est très belle.
5) Cet enfant est très malade.
6) J'ai une envie folle de manger du pain.
7) Cette fille est très jolie.
8) Il fait trop chaud.
9) La fête là était très belle.
10) J'ai beaucoup envie de manger.
11) Cette fille est trop grasse.
12) Cet homme est très grand de taille.
13) Ce gars est très petit de taille.
14) Je suis très pauvre.
15) Ce gars est trop riche.
16) Neymar est un très grand joueur.
17) La voiture que mon père a achetée est très belle.
18) Itang a un piètre gardien de but.
19) J'aime beaucoup cette fille.
20) Ces gars ont trop vite fait son travail.
Book Review


Reviewed by Patharaorn Patharakorn & Kendi Ho, University of Hawai‘i at Mānoa, USA

English use in the present-day has been characterized in many ways. Three terminologies most widely used are World Englishes (WE), English as a Lingua Franca (ELF), and English as an International Language (EIL). Focusing on the proliferation of English as part of the globalization phenomena, these three terminologies share their concerns of how English has transcended the one country one language ideology that it can take on multiple cultures and standards that no longer belong to any specific groups of its users. However, different terminologies do have their different histories and their implications for pedagogical application can vary widely. WE focuses on the localization of English as a product of globalization, creating different varieties of English around the world (McKay, 2010). It emphasizes the plurality of English standards, legitimizing local varieties of English used in Outer Circle and Expanding Circle countries (for details on WE, see Kachru, 1986; see also Liu, 2015).

A more recent discussion on the effect of globalization on English is ELF, which pays attention to the interactions among second language (L2) speakers of English. ELF research agendas include identifying pragmatic, grammatical, and phonological features of ELF talk. Corpus studies have contributed much to the current understanding of ELF, and many of the studies have pointed to a number of pragmalinguistic (language forms that are used to carry out certain pragmatic actions) and sociopragmatic features (i.e., sociocultural conditions that call for certain pragmatic actions) unique for ELF interactions (for more in depth reading on ELF, see Firth, 1996; Jenkins, 2000; Seidlhofer, 2004).

Pennycook (2003) argued that while WE and ELF do share the same goal in advocating the heterogeneity of English, their treatment of English as though it occupies a neutral space ignores the broader political context and power struggle behind values and standards of English. Sharing this similar concern, McKay (2010) uses the term EIL as an umbrella term for WE and ELF with a
required attention to “global and local aspect of English and [...] the way in which specific use of English is impacted by issues of power and struggle” (p. 95). With a growing body of research, EIL studies have sought to understand questions of learner incentives for learning English, learners’ identity, and how new technology can help with learning English internationally.

With the special aforementioned status of English language characterized as EIL, the central message of this book emphasizes the pluralism and context sensitive nature of English teaching and learning worldwide. Our review will later explain their position as we summarize the content within each chapter below. Overall, although this volume starts off by offering a current snapshot of trends and practices of English language classrooms around the world, its purpose is to suggest an alternative to such practice. This book is advocating for an EIL-compatible teaching and assessment practice of English as it confronts many misconceptions popularly held by related parties within the field (See also Brown, 2016; Brown with Salmani Noudoush, 2015). Even though the goal of this volume is to call for a change in the concepts around which English classrooms are currently conducted, this does not mean that we have to throw away everything we know. In fact, we find that the tone of this book is very empowering for both teachers and learners of English. Moreover, although its content directly tackles complex issues put forth in our earlier discussion of WE, ELF, and EIL, this book remains very accessible to English language teachers at any level.

The two authors of this book are highly prolific scholars in the field of applied linguistics. Sandra McKay is a Professor Emeritus at San Francisco State University and an affiliate member at the department of Second Language Studies at the University of Hawai’i at Mānoa. She is one of the early pioneers and one of the authoritative voices on EIL research. She has taught in many contexts around the world on topics ranging from sociolinguistics to research methodology and second language pedagogy. James Dean (JD) Brown is a professor at the department of Second Language Studies at the University of Hawai’i at Mānoa. He has written a large collection of books in the areas of language testing and assessment, program evaluation, curriculum designs, and quantitative and mixed method research in applied linguistics. He has also given lectures and conducted many research projects in numerous countries including Japan, Brazil, China, and many others around the world. It is evident that the authors’ advocacy for adopting EIL approach for local practices comes from their seasoned expertise, not only as scholars, but also as language teachers and teacher trainers. Therefore, this book is very practical in the perspective that it takes to promote changes and professional reflections in English language classrooms and curriculum around the world.

_Teaching and assessing EIL in local contexts around the world_ consists of seven
chapters. In each chapter, pedagogical implications are comprehensively discussed, and their arguments are thoughtfully summarized in ready-to-use principles for classroom application. At the end of each chapter, the authors provide discussion questions and application tasks for readers to actively engage with the chapter’s content while reflect on their current practice of learning or teaching English in their contexts. All principles explained at the back of each chapter were gathered for easy reference at the end section of the book along with an index for terminologies and proper names the authors have mentioned.

In the first chapter, “The social and educational context,” they explain how English is now having the status of an international language, what the key features of EIL are, and what current trends of English teaching and learning around the world look like. The status of EIL is first supported by the most number of second language speakers spreading all around the world, and the way that English is a channel through which nations participate in the global community. People want to speak English to become part of the global conversation and join the global market. For some, this represents an upward mobilization connecting their corner of the world with the rest of the globe. The second part of the chapter then discusses the repercussion of such status: the varieties of English, and unavoidably, the contention over its standards. Defining or adopting any standards is a complex undertaking; nonetheless, this task has to be taken up by teachers, or curriculum designers, who understand the students’ needs as well as the societal demands for that particular context the most. The chapter finally turns to consider the current realities of English as a foreign language (EFL) education. For many countries in which English is a required foreign language, English is playing a gatekeeping role for higher education and professional growth. Most governments are now pushing for their youths to start learning English at younger ages, and parents are demanding more bilingual education for their children. The current trend for English education is more English education. It is therefore important to recognize that English learning has become a hugely lucrative industry which is far from being apolitical. As EIL teaching practitioners, we have to be extra careful when selecting learning materials or adopting a certain standard, and always consider the pedagogical suitability to our students’ needs.

In the second chapter, “EIL teachers, learners, and classroom interaction,” three long-held beliefs about teachers, learners, and classroom interaction are demystified. The first myth is about the superiority of native speakers as teachers of English language. Instead of using the term “non-native teachers”, the authors opted for the term “bilingual teachers” to emphasize the strengths that these teachers have for understanding their learners’ needs. As mentioned earlier, such understanding is crucial for teachers to make
pedagogical decisions for the learners. Therefore, bilingual teachers should be empowered to have the confidence to teach and to feel that even though they are not a “native” speaker of English, they can become an expert user of the variety and domain of English usage that they are teaching. For the second myth that EFL learners generally have low motivation for learning the language, this chapter presents counter evidence showing that learners can have strong instrumental motivation to obtain high English proficiency. As learners also share the misconception of the superiority of native over non-native speakers, some highly motivated learners even actually set their goals to becoming “native-like”. This brings back the issue of standards and underlines the importance of its definition, which has been discussed later on in the chapters on assessment topics. The last myth has to do with the exclusive use of English in the classroom. The authors firmly believe that such position is a fallacy, for much recent research has pointed to the benefit of using first language, or switching between first and second languages to aid the acquisition of the second language. Ultimately, under a given consideration of learners’ proficiency level and the purpose of that language learning tasks, students’ first language should be treated as a resource instead of being prohibited.

The third chapter, “Key aspects of EIL students’ English needs,” promotes the use of needs assessment in systematically gathering data that will help teachers understand their local EIL learning contexts. One of the book’s main points is that “different populations will be better served by different EIL programs.” (p. 50). As previous chapters have continuously emphasized the importance of locally defined standards and learners’ needs, and that teachers are in the best position to make pedagogically informed decisions to fit those needs and standards, this chapter guides teaching practitioners on how to conduct a needs assessment. It provides instant survey questionnaires to gauge students and teacher’s attitudes and beliefs for learning and teaching EIL that can easily be adapted to fit different contexts.

In the fourth chapter, “Teaching and assessing grammar” EIL is distinguished from World Englishes (WE) and English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) in the need to support student language development for mutual intelligibility in the global context. The authors show how grammar learning can be infused with a focus on meaning, form, and intercultural competency by exposing learners to varieties of Englishes and their appropriate use. This includes local sociopragmatic competence, such as the ability to follow the norms of politeness, and pragmalinguistic competence, the ability to use linguistic forms, such as hedging, for politeness. The suggested EIL goals are to encourage practice in conversation and learners’ expression of their own pragmatic norms. In addition, the chapter reframes high stakes standardized assessment for their use in measuring competency in Inner Circle countries.
Finally, after establishing local and global grammar needs and uses of EIL, the chapter concludes with guiding principles for classroom teaching and assessment.

In the fifth chapter, "Teaching and assessing oracy," the term EIL Oracy is used to refer to ability to listen and speak intelligibly in that particular EIL context. It is proposed that instead of adopting the definition of fluency as approximating or approaching the native speaker’s standards and norms, EIL curriculum standards should reflect what is appropriate in their contexts and domains of language use. Teaching EIL oracy should not emphasize on correcting students’ accents or focusing on the accuracy of their production that does not affect its overall intelligibility. The attention instead should be directed to what can realistically be taught, and most of the time, it is to raise the learners’ awareness of alternative standards in the EIL, and that they understand how different standards are appropriate in different contexts. Recognizing that it takes the effort from both the speaker and the listener to achieve mutual intelligibility is also a key, but most importantly, teaching EIL oracy should be about (a) fostering a sense of ownership of the varieties of English that they speak, (b) providing motivation for continuous learning, and (c) encouraging students to develop EIL fluency. This means that assessment standards have to be refined to reflect local intelligibility in specific domains and contexts. At the end of the chapter a few alternative forms for classroom oracy assessments along with the rubrics for scoring those tasks are also provided.

In the sixth chapter, "Teaching and assessing literacy," the changing views of the influence of culture on both areas of literacy, writing and reading, are addressed. In addition, learning strategies to build global citizens through literacy are given. Culture issues in writing are discussed in showing the influences of contrastive rhetoric and the development of genre awareness in culture-bound EIL goals. Encouraging students to use their local rhetorical moves are demonstrated in business writing. To support students’ writing development, metalanguage assessments such as portfolios and large-scale projects with rubrics are suggested. For reading, cross-cultural differences in background knowledge of content in ELT textbooks are highlighted to guide critical learning strategies for different stages of reading. Assessment of reading comprehension focuses on what the learners are attempting to do in intensive and extensive reading rather than in assimilationist tendencies to conform to fixed native speaker linguistic goals.

The seventh chapter, "Integrating Computer Mediated Language into EIL Classrooms," culminates the principles of EIL teaching and assessment by incorporating principles of EIL literacy and fluency with the integration of technology to develop language skills and cross-cultural awareness. The
foundation is laid with the introduction of several varieties of linguistic corpora, written and oral, and strategies for using these available resources in the classroom. These range from the WE Corpora to a teacher-made corpora to focus on more local language uses of English. Hawai‘i Creole English or Pidgin is used as an example to show how a free concordance tool, such as AntConc, can be used effectively to explore learning linguistic items for bilingual teaching or Digital Directed Learning (DDL). In addition resources are given for local materials development from the concordance as well as consideration of low technology environments. To guide teachers in integrating the vast repertoire of online resources to their students, examples of online websites and ways of assessing students’ social media and technology use is given. Finally, the authors show how technology is a tool to help teachers develop EIL curricula with EIL oracy and literacy standards.

McKay and Brown give a broad sweep of rethinking English teaching and assessment internationally. Each chapter focuses on conceptual and practical issues for learning in the classroom and contributes to cross-cultural understanding of EIL for all stakeholders, students, teachers, and administrators to support developing local EIL curricula. We found the book to be straightforward in confronting popular misconceptions about native speaker norms in language teaching and learning by presenting pedagogical principles grounded in English language learning research. Although the notion of EIL curriculum has been developed for quite some time over the years, this book directly connects EIL goals and objectives to teaching and assessment. As English language teachers, we can easily apply the resources and strategies to encourage our students to embrace their own local English norms as well as to be more cross-culturally aware of social expectations. The comprehensive approach of using systematic needs assessment to develop EIL intelligibility curriculum goals should be adopted by all teachers for the advancement of EIL program development.

The Authors

Patharaorn Patharakorn (Email: ppathara@hawaii.edu) is a PhD student in the department of Second Language Studies (SLS) at the University of Hawai‘i at Mānoa (UHM). She works as an EFL and ESL teacher for university students in Thailand and the United States, and teaches undergraduate courses in the SLS department at UHM. Her research interests include classroom assessment, oral assessment, interactional competence development, and second language learning motivation.

Kendi Ho (Email: kendih@hawaii.edu) is an ESL/EFL teacher with experience in teaching adult immigrants for college and career readiness as well as teaching academic English in Vietnam. She is currently in the doctoral
program in the Second Language Studies department at the University of Hawai‘i at Mānoa. Her research interests include language program development and evaluation, English for Medical Purposes (EMP), Low-Educated Second Language and Literacy Acquisition (LESLLA), and Mobile Assisted Language Learning (MALL).

References


