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Grammar Activities of Spanish Language in Albanian Auditorium.

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Abstract

The attitude towards grammatical exercises of a foreign language is one of the fundamental pillars upon which differences and changes of methods are historically produced. It's like an image of teaching practice. Switching from the traditional approach to the direct method, from the audio-visual method to the actual communicative methods through natural access is complemented by grammar with its own activities as a concrete way to develop language, as well as a way to see how it can be best learned. The place where grammatical activities can be developed, "the auditorium" where the student learns being a participant and cooperating with other students, with the teacher in the real process of research and joint construction of knowledge in personal and relevant social issues. The teaching process of foreign languages may take place in various forms: linguistic projects, occasional texts analysis, solution of situations or problems or preparation of topics that may arise during scientific activity. The grammar of Spanish language is consulted between lecturers who define a basic method that serves to orientate, but in many cases it happens that each of the teachers uses methods that are considered appropriate based on the requirements and capacities of students' learning process who are participants in the auditorium.

Keywords: grammar activities, auditorium, Spanish language, method.

1. Introduction.

In this paper we are going to analyse grammar activities of Spanish language that take place in the Albanian auditorium. The latter is considered as the right place where a foreign language and its grammar activities are learnt best.

We are focused on grammar learning through activities and practices of foreign language learning specifically of Spanish language in Albania. An analytic treatment of grammatical exercises has been done classifying them into: grammatical activities practiced oriented to given grammatical structures; and grammatical activities independently practiced.

Following it is continued with the analysis of some exercises of Spanish language manuals which serve as an orientation of the situation as well as the use of grammar of this language. We are also going to see to what extent is grammar used in those manuals and language methods. Generally, the main objective of the practice books is the work done in class to understand and immediately verify grammar exercises. Most of the exercises in written way is given as homework in order for students to fix grammatical forms and have time to reflect on them. This has to do with the production and disposition of the exercises individually. The exercises also prepared in the independently form aim at developing student's autonomous learning.

2. Place of grammatical activities in Spanish language teaching.

Attained developments in teaching and educational research have led to increased demand to present new forms of work organization in the auditorium. The auditorium is the precise place where teaching and learning can be better promoted and it is in this context or occasion where we can consider the classroom to be transformed in a community of acquiring knowledge.

The auditorium is the place where the student learns being a participant and cooperating with other students, with the teacher in the real process of research and joint construction of knowledge in the relevant personal and social issues. The main idea of the class as a learning community is presented as a platform or a basic support for each student where he has to develop his knowledge.

As stated above we rely on the fact that learning is a social process, which is also based on the interaction and cooperation between people that in most cases are real situations.

According to this theory, teaching activities in the auditory are not structured according to the traditional method that focuses solely on teachers-centred approach, but mainly focused on research study by students themselves. The latter has decided to review the predefined topics with the teacher, consistently cooperating with each other. These learning processes can be held in various forms such as language projects, random analysis of texts, situations or problems solution or preparation of topics that may arise during scientific activity, such as a small conference.

Besides its peculiar form, it is essential that these processes refer to situations, tasks and activities which are original and important to its participants. Thus, original because it is similar to situations and activities out of school, and we say important because they refer to cultural and thematic issues, to which the student gives personal prominence and value. In other words, we can say that the student becomes a critic of different situations.

Thus, the auditorium is organised as a learning community, where teachers and students develop different activities including all language learning skills. These activities may be of stimulating or reproduction nature, or they adapt to real situations in ways that are meaningful to students.

2. Types of the grammatical activities.

In recent manuals of Spanish language grammar activities are more focused on the grammatical form then go to the discovery of the rule. This is specifically shown at manuals such as *Español Lengua Viva*, *Español Gramática Progresiva*, *Gente*, *Planeta E/LE*, *Aula*, *Prisma* dhe *Sueña*, that are currently used in groups of Spanish language as a second language. More specifically the student is offered a written or an oral text, and is asked to perform various grammatical activities, the types of which are mentioned below.

a. Classification: is one of the most common techniques. An example of this type of activity in elementary and intermediate levels may be included: it is provided a fund of verbs and students are asked to classify their grammatical forms in its explicit way through the data provided.

Table 1.

Ya conoces bastantes tiempos verbales. Intenta clasificar los verbos que te damos a continuación en el lugar que les corresponde.			
Presente	Imperativo	Indefinido	Perfecto Imperfecto
_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____

For more advanced language levels B1-C1, may be offered examples of use of a certain grammatical form and the student is further required to classify as in the example illustrated below:

The example taken from the method of Alfredo Gonzales Hermoso y Carlos Romero Dueñas, « *Puesta a Punto B2* », Edelsa, Madrid, 2009.¹ Classify different types of discourse connectors whose nature is of comparison, consequences or cause hypotheses.

Table 2.

Clasifique correctamente los conectores siguientes : muy diferente a/de, peor que, así pues, luego, como, mas...que, no se parece en nada a, dado que, en consecuencia, por lo que, eso demuestra, puesto que, la más, ma menos, de aquí sacamos, la mejor, la peor.

Comparar _____ _____ _____ _____	Sacar consecuencias _____ _____ _____	Deducir causas _____ _____ _____
---	--	---

b. Filling: this technique appears in all language manuals. Initially it is given a text, orally if possible, and the student is asked to complete sentences or groups of words. The aim is to highlight some grammatical forms so that the teacher can understand and discern whether the student finds it hard to acquire and use them in the written form after having encountered them. Following, it is done some explicit grammatical analysis or questions intended to apply linguistic analysis.

c. Answer the questions: it is also a very common technique in the Spanish language manuals for all language levels. The questions are intended to direct the attention of students on the grammatical forms and their features (such as place, distribution), and slowly push to the discovery of the rule. Let's illustrate what was said above in point B and C in the below table:

The example involves the activity of classification, filling and question-answer at the same time. (Taken from *Esespañol 1*, Cuaderno de recursos y ejercicios, Espasa Calpe, Madrid, 2002)².

Table 3.

¿Te acuerdas de los adjetivos posesivos? Ahora vamos a enseñarte los pronombres posesivos. Escucha los dialogos y rellena con los posesivos adecuados. : (Do you remember possessive adjectives? Now we are going to teach possessive adjectives. Listen to the dialogues and complete with the correct possessive adjective:)

- ¿Dónde están gafas? ● ¿Dónde está.....casa?
- Ahí, encima de la mesa. ○ Cerca de la, casi sois vecinos.
- No, esas son las

Ahora rellena la tabla, no te asustes y usa la lógica. (Complete the table.)

Masculino				Femenino			
Singular		Plural		Singular		Plural	
El	Mio	Mias
.....	Los	Tuyos	La	Tuya
.....
El	Nuestro	Nuestra
....	Vuestros	vuestras

¹Alfredo Gonzales Hermoso y Carlos Romero Dueñas,(2009), « *Puesta a Punto B2* », Edelsa, Madrid, , Exercise 1, Pg.21.

² VVAA. *Esespañol 1*, Cuaderno de recursos y ejercicios, Espasa Calpe, Madrid, 2002, Pg.52

		
.....	Suyos	Suya
	

Contesta a las preguntas siguientes: (Answer the following questions:)

¿Qué hay delante del adjetivo posesivo? (What is placed before the possessive adjective?)

¿A que persona se refiere el adjetivo posesivo suyo? (Which person is referred the possessive adjective his?)

d. Discovery activities: It is given a written text and students are asked to highlight or look for the target grammatical form to be put into practice. Generally this activity is addressed to a more advanced language level, B2-C1, because to find a grammatical form in a text prior knowledge is needed. The example on this type of activity can be shown as below which I got from *Prisma C1, Consolida*¹

Table 4.

Escucha la versión de una entrevista realizada a una conocida actriz. ¿Cómo calificarías el tono de la conversación? Subraya en la transcripción los elementos lingüísticos que presentan emociones, los organizadores del discurso y los marcadores temporales si hay. ¿Para que crees que están utilizados los organizadores del discurso? ¿En que posición aparecen en la oración? (Listen to an interview with a famous actress. How would you define the tone of the voice? In the text transcription, underline the organising elements of the discourse and the time linkers if there are any. Why are the organising elements of discourse used? What is their place in a sentence?)
--

e. Rules' formulation : in this case the student is given some sentences and is asked to formulate the grammatical rule which is used.

Table 5 taken from the method *Esespañol 2*²

<p>Ej.1a. Observa las siguientes frases. Fijate en las expresiones destacadas y en la relación que hay entre los elementos de la frase: Como (causa) he perdido la entrada (consecuencia) tengo que comprar otra. (consecuencia) Tengo que comprar otra entrada porque (causa) he perdido la que tenía. (consecuencia) Tengo que comprar otra entrada ya que (causa) he perdido la que tenía. Ya que (causa) has cobrado, (consecuencia) invítame a comer. Ahora intenta completar las siguientes reglas:</p> <table border="1" style="margin-left: 20px;"> <tr> <td>_____ + (causa), (consecuencia)</td> </tr> <tr> <td>(consecuencia) + _____ + (causa)</td> </tr> <tr> <td>(consecuencia), + _____ + (causa)</td> </tr> <tr> <td>_____ + (causa), (consecuencia)</td> </tr> </table>	_____ + (causa), (consecuencia)	(consecuencia) + _____ + (causa)	(consecuencia), + _____ + (causa)	_____ + (causa), (consecuencia)
_____ + (causa), (consecuencia)				
(consecuencia) + _____ + (causa)				
(consecuencia), + _____ + (causa)				
_____ + (causa), (consecuencia)				

In this kind of activity *blank schemes* are available, the use of which was originally proposed by Cesarini S. according to whom: "the term *blank schemes* meant a kind of rule skeleton where the the students set the gathered data. " ³Cesarini also confirms:" the use of blank schemes is more functional in comparison to the answer-questions type of activities, because on one hand it allows students to come to the formulation of a rule, and on the other hand enriches them with the metalinguistic support"⁴.

In fact the student, especially the one who owns a beginner language level, although understands grammatical rules through examples, is unable to formulate it because he does not possess the necessary technical terms.

¹ Evelyn Aixalá, Marisa Muñoz, Eva Muñoz, "Prisma C1, consolida", Libro del alumno. method of spanish language for foreigners, editorial EDINUMEN, Madrid, 2007, Pg. 32.

² VVAA. *Esespañol 2*, Cuaderno de recursos y ejercicios, Espasa Calpe, Madrid, 2002, pg.49

³ Cesarini Sforza, "L'uso degli schemi vuoti nella riflessione metalinguistica", in *Educazione permanente*, nr. 1-2, 1995, pg. 113.

⁴ Same place, pg. 114.

All these types of activities above mentioned are usually used to detect grammar inductively or differently said under the guidance of teachers. There may also be methods in others language' manuals, but usually the methods used in grammatical activities are not only inductive. They are also used in a mixed form, where several elements are deductively presented through a question which aims to make students think about the grammatical form required.

Exercises and activities of inductive practice are specifically handled by Stephen Pit Corder, generally known as Pit Corder, a professor of applied linguistics at the University of Edinburgh, known for his contribution for the study and analysis of errors. He was the first leader of the British Association for Applied Linguistics, 1967-1970, and his contribution was important in developing the field of applied linguistics in the UK.¹ Mechanical exercises, which aim to verify hypotheses built on the so-called *testing exercises' hypothesis*.², were distinguished by him through the inductive practice. All these activities aim to practice gained knowledge. This author also distinguished *recognition type* of activities, in which the students should find the right choice from two or three options that are provided. This type of exercise is called in English *multiplical choice*.³

2.1. Grammatical activities that are practiced oriented to given grammatical structures.

To practice grammatical rules in a more accurate manner are used DRILL exercises (exercises according to a provided model) or the so-called *PATTERN DRILLS*, more concretically used for the audio-oral method. It is suggested that the unchanged model is repeated without altering it or with some very small changes at lexical terms, which enable the student to use the analogy student until the student acquires given structures. These exercises are reviewed by changing them and giving them communicative values by including personal experience. In this way, questions dealing with personal facts and everyday life are built. Let's illustrate this example with the use of adverbs *ya, todavía, nunca -already, yet, never*:

o Think of the latest movies you've seen. Ask your friend if he has seen it or not.

-Si, ya lo he visto.

¿Has visto las películas de? -No, todavía no lo he visto.

-Nunca lo he visto.

Through this example the student memorises the structure of the answer form in any other kind of following built by him.

Using photos and images can result very successful in these exercises. The teacher asks students to bring a photo of their family, then work in pairs and ask questions about them. Generally, bringing personal things is considered motivating and a key to success in communication. Analytical and comparative methods can be used between two pictures. This category includes descriptions imagining for example the map of a personal room. Although same structures are repeated, this type of activity enriches vocabulary bringing a list of names of objects.

Another category used in our auditorium is combing activities. A typical requirement used for these types of activities is: Connect or combine images to the right words, or words to the definition that best fits with them. I use these kind of exercises in Spanish language syntax to connect the main clause with the subordinate clause using different connectors that belong to that clause.

¹ http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Pit_Corder

² Corder, S.P., "Introduzione alla linguistica applicata", Bologna, Il Mulino, 1983, pg. 383.

³ Corder, S.P., "Introduzione alla linguistica applicata", Bologna, Il Mulino, 1983, pg. 383.

Table 6. (example taken from the method of Alfredo Gonzales Hermoso y Carlos Romero Dueñas, "puesta a B2 Punto" Edelsa, Madrid, 2009) ¹

Una cada frase de la primera columna con su correspondiente de la segunda. Utilice en cada caso un conector adversativo distinto : 1. El toro bravo es tratado a cuerpo ...tampoco tengo problemas de aparcamiento. de rey hasta su muerte.... 2. No tengo coche para ir lejos....el animal sufre enormemente.

Table 7 (taken from *Esespañol 2*, Cuaderno de recursos y ejercicios, Espasa Calpe, Madrid, 2002²,

Ordena las palabras de estas frases y escríbelo: navegar/que/se/sabes/supone _____ que/ciudad/dicen/es/bonita/más/la _____
--

Putting in order irregular paragraphs to form a text is also used. This helps students to exercise on anaphoric structures or the use of connectors. This kind of exercise is to help students practise language forms of composed sentences in subordinate causative clauses using *porque* – because, time clauses using *cuando* - when, etc.

Multiple-choice activities: are exercises that are related to the completion of a sentence or text and students must choose the correct grammatical form from several given options. Multiple choice may appear somewhat complicated when incorrect grammatical forms, which do not even exist, are given so that they take away students' attention.

Table 8: examples of multiple choice:

Busque la forma correcta: Te he traído los libros que me pediste _____. 1. <i>El día otro</i> 2. <i>El otro día</i> 3. <i>Otro día</i>	B. ¿Podrías completar estas frases para que tengan sentido? 1. ¡Espero que <i>llueve/ llueva/ lloverá</i> porque hace mucho tiempo que no llueve. 2. a. Me voy de viaje. - b. ¡Que te <i>lo pases / pasas / pasarás</i> bien!
--	---

In case B the student must have an advanced language level. He must distinguish incorrect grammatical forms, made up by the teacher, and be able to finish the task referring to the accordance of the topic of grammatical categories in number and gender.

Transformation or manipulative activities: are most frequently used and consist of transforming the sentences or short texts (such as the shift from singular to plural or vice versa). There may also be used exercises which consist of transforming the sentences from affirmative form into negative form or otherwise.

Following I will show an example when complex sentences are transformed without changing their meaning using the structure *aun + gerundio* (though + gerund form of the verb):

Table 9. (example taken from Alfredo Gonzales methods Hermoso y Carlos Romero Duenas, "Puesta a Punto B2" Edelsa, Madrid, 2009) ³

Transforme las siguientes frases concesivas en otras equivalentes construidas con la forma AUN+gerundio: Aunque es importante el secreto profesional, todavía lo es más la libertad de expresión. Es difícil de decidir, con todo y con eso me quedo con la libertad de expresión. A pesar de ser peligrosa, prefiero la moto a cualquier otro vehículo. Pese a que es difícil el aparcamiento en la calle, la moto se puede dejar en cualquier parte.
--

¹ Alfredo Gonzales Hermoso y Carlos Romero Dueñas, « *Puesta a Punto B2* », Edelsa, Madrid, 2009, Ushtr.a), pg. 53.

² VVAA. *Esespañol 2*, Cuaderno de recursos y ejercicios, Espasa Calpe, Madrid, 2002, pg.31

³ Alfredo Gonzales Hermoso y Carlos Romero Dueñas, « *Puesta a Punto B2* », Edelsa, Madrid, 2009, exercise B. pg.77

Activities identifying the incorrect form: are considered even more motivating exercises than those with multiple choice and are preferred by students because they urge the pleasure of discovery to them. The following example is referred to beginner level students where they are asked to find the wrong form of the prepositions of Spanish language:

Table 10. (example obtained by the method of the Spanish language for foreign learners: *Prisma método de español para extranjeros: A2 Nivel elemental. Libro del alumno*. Madrid, Edinumen, 2007)¹

Busque la forma incorrecta de las preposiciones en las oraciones siguientes: (find the wrong form of the prepositions in the following sentences.)

El avión que está aterrizando llega a Madrid.

Me gusta ir en pie a la escuela.

Estoy enamorado con Luisa

Normalmente sueño en árboles y jirafas.

2.2 Grammar activities which are practised independently.

After the student has memorised the grammatical structures under the guidance of the teacher, students can switch to another step that is practicing grammatical activities independently. At this point there is a wider range of choosing of activities but it is conditioned on the typology of form or the grammatical rule aimed to be achieved through these activities. Celce Murcia Marianne and Sharon Hilles, authors of a perfect manual, address teachers of English as a foreign language, according to whom language presents three different areas: social area which is dedicated to the role of interlocutors; semantic area dedicated to the understanding of linguistic elements and discursive area which has to do with the order of the words, with the cohesion of a text, sequence and order of given information.² This means that grammatical arguments will be treated on the basis of linguistic areas presented. An examples may be the use of personal pronouns as a polite manner to be linked to the social field and in this case it is practiced the use of role-play activities (acting).

Storytelling technique - fits perfectly to the use of verbs in the past tense. The student can be asked to tell a story in the past using a fund of words given or illustrate with images these kind of activities. The use of images has helped a lot in teaching *typology of descriptive texts*, from the moment that the main function of the use of images is describing the given pictures. This technique helps students to be independent in the formulation of responses because in this case he has already acquired grammatical structures needed to describe an image. Except the use of adjectives, another important grammatical category used to describe an image is the use of adverbs of place which indicate the location and position of different objects that appear in the images provided. Another grammatical aim of this technique is the use of names and verbs mainly used to ask questions about the images such as: What is presented in figure? What is happening? What are the people in the picture doing? etc.

In the subject of *typology of argumentative texts*, we have used some free activities. This subject based on the curricula of Spanish language in Albania is practised in the third year of studies, because we are dealing with students with a language level already advanced and this fact makes them more independent in the design and use of a foreign language. Following it is listed a series of free activities in the form of game which we think are motivating and funny to the students. From previous experience we can say these activities have made the Spanish subject and language become more attractive to students.

- How to defend an idea: the class schedules groups of three students, each group chooses an idea. Each of the students prepares the topic independently. The presentation of the topic is done in front of the class; the student chooses to use notes or an orientation scheme. This is the way each group presents its topic. The other students should evaluate the correct use of the arguments presented to defend the presented topic. Some suggestions for this activity-game include: - start with a brief introduction; - give at least three arguments on the topic; - short conclusion; - use appropriate connectors.

¹ Evelyn Aixalá, Marisa Muñoz, Eva Muñoz, "Prisma método de español para extranjeros: A2 Nivel elemental. Libro del alumno. Madrid, Edinumen, 2007, pg.14.

² Celce-Murcia Marianne, Hilles Sharon, "Techniques and Resources in teaching grammar", Oxford, Oxford University Press, 1988, Pg. 10. Celce-Murcia Marianne is actually a professor of applied linguistics in the University of California. She has published various books on teaching techniques and linguistic methodology.

- **Compare and discover:** in this case the aim is to identify which are the best options for a theme to compare then with other options. Students must choose one of three topics given to be discussed and developed. There are five groups of students and each of these groups prepares a set of arguments on the topic which was previously chosen by the students. Each group elects its representative to express the arguments. At the end it is voted for the group which provided the most convincing options. Some suggestions for this activity-game include: - mention the advantages of the given options; - predict disadvantages in order to discuss on them; - draw positive conclusions; - show the negative consequences making a comparison on the options and finally discover the correct one.
- **Create a job interview:** the class is divided into pairs where one student is the employee and the other is the interviewer. Meanwhile each pair of students prepares a series of questions to present in front of the class to act out the interview. Some suggestions for this activity-game include: - prepare specific and short questions; - allow sufficient time for the interviewer to answer the questions, while the interviewee has enough time to prepare the following questions; - lead the interview in a formal style. The aim of this activity is: the use of forms of courtesy; the right formulation of questions; give opinions and receive explanations using correct grammatical structures acquired earlier.
- **Exchange of objects:** in this case students need to bring in a variety of objects and exchange them with others convincing each other on the value, use, or the reason why they should have such an object. This is a form of barter which urges the student to use descriptive structures on the object which manages to exchange. Grammatical forms of communication on the refusal, rejection, acceptance, etc. are used throughout this technique. Some suggestions for this activity-game include: description of the facility; - material, form, the reason why to take the object and its use.
- **Preparation of a leaflet and an advertisement.** This activity requires group-work where each student must accomplish various tasks in compiling a written leaflet. It can be varied: advertisement of a language course, a cosmetic product, a business, a tourist guide, etc. Guiding suggestions for the realization of this activity can be: observing and taking into account of the real leaflets to see the techniques used, which are topics that can generate interest to the public; - use of exclamatory sentences; - written texts should be short and precise; use of images to attract public attention.

3. Summary of techniques, types of texts and grammatical forms of free independent activities from several Spanish-language manuals.

We can make a list of independent or free activities, in almost all Spanish language manuals which include: the techniques which are used, the types of texts proposed and grammatical forms that are practised. All of the above mentioned are summarized in the following table. To accomplish this, we have specifically used these language manuals: *Prisma A1,A2,B1,B2,C1,C2*,¹ *Sueña 1,2,3*,² *Puesta a punto B2*,³ *Esespañol 1,2,3*:⁴

Techniques	Texts types	Grammatical forms
Use of images	Narrations	-use of verb tenses -time expressions (time adverbs) -use of anaforic elements and articles -comparisons using different verb tenses: <i>Antes era un estudiante ahora es un buen abogado.</i>)
	Descriptive	-use of adverbs of place; -use of adjectives; -relative pronouns; -use of <i>donde, y que.</i>
Narration of a story	Narrative	- verbs in the past tenses -time expressions (<i>hoy, ayer, mañana, la semana pasada, esta semana...</i>)

¹ Evelyn Aixalá, Marisa Muñoz, Eva Muñoz, "Prisma método de español para extranjeros: Libro del alumno. Edinumen, Madrid, 2007

² VVAA. "Sueña 1, 2, 3 y 4": Libro del alumno. Libro del profesor. Cuaderno de actividades. method of Spanish language for foreigners Madrid, Anaya, 2000-2001.

³ Alfredo Gonzales Hermoso y Carlos Romero Dueñas, « Puesta a Punto B2 », Edelsa, Madrid, 2009.

⁴ VVAA. « Esespañol 1,2,3 », Cuaderno de recursos y ejercicios, Espasa Calpe, Madrid, 2002

Activities games	Presentations, Job interviews, Phone situations , etc.	-use of courtesy forms; -use of imperative form; -use of personal pronouns
	Argumentative	-use of relative clauses using verbs which express opinion (pienso que, opino que...) -discourse organizations (<i>en primer lugar, por un lado, por el otro, primer argumento, además, en resumen, para finalizar...</i>) -argumentative connectors (<i>desde el momento que, por esta razón, aun+imperativo, no obstante...</i>)

4. Conclusions.

As a conclusion of this paper we can say that the auditorium is the place where the student learns being a participant and cooperating with other students, with the teacher in the real process of research and joint construction of knowledge, in personal and relevant social issues.

The teaching process of foreign languages may take place in various forms: linguistic projects, occasional texts analysis, solution of situations or problems or preparation of topics that may arise during scientific activity.

The aim of learning activities and assessment tasks is to promote the learning process itself, the use of language in the classroom, including original processes of communication.

Summing up what was above written and based on our experience as lecturers of Spanish as a foreign language, there are a series or set of activities that we develop in the classroom, which are connected to the outside world and arouse particular interest to the students and also promote and enrich the processes of teaching and learning of a foreign language. These processes raise a student's awareness on assignments and activities making him more active and giving him a prestigious position in society.

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Language Policy for the Tendency of the Sound Complex in the Albanian Anthroponymy and Patronymic

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Abstract

The authors reflect on the progress of anthroponymy and patronymy sounds tendency and its applied linguistic policy in the last century and the beginning of the new millennium. The research is carried out in two periods: during and post-communism. The authors have done a long-time research on this topic, which has resulted in an accurate argumentative discourse on pre-linguistic choices of these sonorically complex usages in family discourse. The authors have listed carefully the entry of Illyrian/Albanian names and the tendency of sonorically usages, which were part of language planning process; and everything is argued on the basis of national spirit of the time. The linguistic policy of entering of Illyrian names into family discourse is also seen as a general trend of Renaissance (1730-1912) for the purpose of restoring historic memory to Albanians. After the 1990-s, the beginning of democracy in Albania, nonetheless the publishing of the study on newborn names, the linguistic policy has never been applied for many reasons. For the last two years, 2015-2016, linguistics, students, surveyors, educational secretaries, members of civil status, have listed a number of reasons on the choices of the names of newborns in Albania. The freedom of choice of the sonorically complex, the trend of names, the tendency of names in the western world, emigration, etc., are some of the reasons to justify the choices and the linguistic behavior of sonorically complexes. The study is carried out in several municipalities and it is noticed that sonorically choices are highly influenced by the trends in media. There is an avoidance of inherited muslim, catholic and orthodox names and of those names claimed by linguistic policy of 1970-1990. Such linguistic tendency is argued on national basis by making comparisons on the frequency of uses. Diachronic comparisons of Albanian names found in registers of different years reflect the cultural trends of the parents. Albanian families have been quite generous with the borrowings of names from other cultures. Borrowings, as an integral part of linguistic policy, are result of foreign literature, movies, history and fashion.

Keywords: Language Policy for the Tendency of the Sound Complex in the Albanian Anthroponymy and Patronymic

Introduction

The sound complex of the anthroponymy and the patronymic have attracted many linguists on making that object of their studies even in small spaces, territorially and culturally limited: in one commune or several communes of a district with lot of villages and cities. Also have drew the attention, the second forms of personal names which are a transitory phenomenon or one of the interesting points where the linguistic meets (mixes up with) the unlinguistic therefore it constitutes one of the furrows of further sociolinguistic research.

Other linguistics has seen this sound complex as an arbitrary connection with the humans they name. While they don't have close connections with the humans they name, they can undergo interferences from the family assembly or language policies over the years which can consciously change and replace them with other names, as happens during periods of conquest.

The community consequently changes their faith and requires the forced change of old naming. Particularly personal proper nouns are subject to this interference. Another cause of conscious changes is the popular etymology, asking from individuals of a family or further more to know the meaning of the name or of the patronymic because after all these are language words. The author of the compiled vocabulary with people names, advises, to explain these anthroponyms to each one : "Proper nouns, as a rule, are depleted from the expressed meaning of the general noun or the word they come from. You can say they get a neutral meaning or "do not have" a meaning at all, they do not express the notions, but they just name it. "Therefore names are not used by the linguistic meaning they originally have."¹ Also can't deny the tendency to link their sound form with meaningful words of the language trying to give a sense to words, to their personal proper nouns. In other cases to hide the meaning of personal names from names with bad meanings or pejorative nuance of meaning, the form of patronymic¹ has been intentionally changed, as will be discussed below by surveys conducted with 100 students, representatives of municipalities: *Vlorë, Përmet, Himarë, Selaninë, Berat, Skrapar, Sarandë, Gjirokastër, Këlcyrë, Tepelene, Fier, Patos, Kuçovë, Lushnjë, Divjakë, Durrës, Gramsh, Librazhd, Mat.*

Despite the difficulties of the linguist, the family names which are younger should be carefully overcome, though they use the toponym as a subject. The difficulty increases even by other factors, even though their value has to do more not only with the linguistic interest but also with the cultural interest, their bearers, they want to know the origin of their family name. Is already written from other linguistics that the stabilization² process of the personal name, family name has been a long process; going through several stages which extend over a period of time from several centuries, trying to build language policies in these years. Seeking this way, they gathered full linguistic material to complement certain directions and tendencies.

So we researched those regions of incomparable idioms of the North Tosk dialect with the South Tosk dialect or further more. We accomplish what the professor Gj.Shkurtaj has emphasized in several years that this topic will be followed in the future even in surveys and further researches in all Albanian³ regions.

More or less is searched the path that has described this fixing and stabilizing process of the sound complex to the personal name, the family name also in the municipalities of Përmet, Këlcyrë, Vlora, the municipalities in South and North of the country. Consequences of the linguistic policy in the years before 1990 for the tendency of the sound complex and the sound complex in the democracy years, after the 1990s- till today.

1. The evolution of anthroponymy and patronymic with the European system of identification.

When the Albanian principalities were created, the masters were called with patronymic, the family name. Here and there you can face the dominant three-terms formula, the nickname appears as the third element of the formula.

As family name serves also the origin of the place of residence; the patronymics of this type, in the terminology of the field are called patronization of toponyms. Today according to datas they are about 10 % of the family name fund on the municipalities we surveyed and compared, widely treated with in another study.

The features of the formation of sound complex for their denomination and construction are different from one municipality to another. Somehow they vary considering also the regional idiom. The construction of the sound complex composite by joining the surname with the head of the family name, it has a small extension in all the subregions⁴, and in the municipalities we explored.

It is also written by other researchers that the entirety of the Albanian anthroponyms experiences a profound break with the Ottoman occupation of the country. The new Asian conqueror along with the new religion (Islamization) brought with it also the Islamic anthroponymy, which began to prepositioned Arbër's names, that until then were only Christians. However, in Ottoman registers is also reflected at the inherited anthroponymic situation from the pre-Ottoman period; With an anthroponymic of two-term formula, stabilized in centuries later. The Islamization of the population of Albanian cities was

¹Memushaj,R. *Himara's Patronymic in "Himara in Centuries"* Tiranë,2004,f.297.

²Bidllari,Ç. *Onomastic research* . Tiranë, 2010,f.7.

³Shkurtaj,Gj. *Onomastic and ethnolinguistic*. Tiranë, 2015,f.26.

⁴Zaputi,I. *Barleci or Barleti ?* SF, nr.3 1970,f.170-177.

realized through two paths, first through the transition to Islam of its resident population in cities and the second, through the mechanical movements of the rural population towards the cities.

During the eighteenth century even the population of the provinces of southern Albania was introduced massively to the Islamic path.

The secret Christianity represented a two-dimensional transitional state, through which Christian individuals accepted formally Islam only in order to avoid payment of the *Zhizje* tax and to enjoy equality with the Islamic population in social life, which began to preposition the Albanians names, whose names until then had been only Christians. However, in Ottoman registers is also reflected the anthroponymic situation inherited from the pre-Ottoman period; with an anthroponymic two-terms formula, stabilized in later centuries. Meanwhile the Islamization of the Albanian cities was realized through two routes, first through the transition to Islam of its population living in cities and second through the mechanical movements of the rural population towards the cities. During the 18th century, the population of the provinces of southern Albania entered the path (road) of mass Islamization¹

The secret Christianity represented a two-dimensional (religious beliefs) transitional state through which Christian individual accepted Islam formally only in order to avoid payment of the sloping tax and to enjoy equality with the Islamic population in social life. While in public these individuals appeared as Muslims bearing names of the Islamic sphere and went to the mosque in the family they were practicing the Christian rituals.

Among the Islamic sects in question, Bektashism gained considerable popularity and expansion in Albanian territories.

The penetration of Islam in the ranks of the Albanian people may be related to certain features of its ethno-psychological nature, which favors at that time the implementation of the Ottoman Empire's language policy.

Throughout history, the Albanians are remarkable for their pride, seduction and ambition to occupy a social and materially enviable positions in any political and social system. By his nature it has been difficult to accept the disregard, the status of a second-class citizen²

However, two significant limitations have been noted that relativize our estimates in this regard: First, the Ottoman land registers, for their own identity do not represent the anthroponyms of the female inhabitants, and second, as far as the male sex inhabitants are concerned, the registrations are limited only by the names of heads of the family and bachelors, only those who paid taxes, so we do not have the full personal name of the whole family in the entire population. This was also the main reason to expand the research for anthroponymy and patronymic. The Catholic contraction is related to the diminishing role of Catholicism in the South of Albania, its gradual withdrawal to the North and to the rural part of the South. This means that it appears generally without endings, the characteristic of non-Albanian orthodox names

So for example: the name or surname "Stamat" is written in the form "Stamad" and not Stamat or Stamatis, as it has been written by linguists over the years. Similarly, we find it written "Niko" and not "Nikos", "Nichola" and not "Nicholas".

Other linguists who have researched anthroponymy and patronymic have underlined the studying difficulty which extends to the South as well. We also had the experience of the linguist D.Luka at the center of the research: "Often the letters : ç,e,c which are missing in the Arabic alphabet, in the 1467 register are replaced with -xh(j). We doubt as well as for the 1431 register that the guttural -k and palatal q (ki) should not have been pronounced the same, although they are given with the same letter.

While we read the names it's important from the linguistic point of view to differentiate the graphic elements without confusing them with the phonetic ones. For the character itself of the original alphabet it's difficult to distinguish: -s from -sh, -d from -dh,- l from -ll and in the 1485 land register also the vowels: i,e,u,dhe o."³

The tendency of the sound complex in anthroponymy and patronymic makes it difficult during the research for traditional orthograms, the ability to spell(orthography) names, family names, and the fact of altering alphabets over the centuries.

¹ Duka, F. *Ottoman centuries in Albanian space*.Tiranë, 2009,f.47.

² Duka, F. *Ottoman centuries in Albanian space*.Tiranë, 2009,f.57.

³ Luka, D. *Language observation on the onomastics of the Ottoman cadastral records of XV century (1431,1467,1485)*. SF.4, 1983,f.161.

On the other hand in many cases you can find registered as names also family names, in their abbreviated form, characteristic of orthodox anthroponymy such as for example: Koço or Koc instead of Kosta or Konstandin¹. Sound complex such as personal names are found in other municipalities of Përmet as well, like: *Ninka*, *Tanuçi(Q)*, *Metushi(Ç)*, *Sulçe(F)*, *Pelushi(P)*, *Agushi(V)*, *Lako(SH)*, *Malushi(Ç)*. *only for the letter (T) we can mention: Tice, Todhe, Todî, Tore, Toska, Toti, Tralo, Tuku, Tundo etc.*

Also, there are not uncommon ameliorative forms in the name formation or surnames of the city inhabitants, which are characteristic of the Albanian variant of anthroponymy: Sulçe(F), Pelushi(P), Agushi(V), etc.

Ethnopsychological reasons, the long period of Islamic linguistic politics is accompanied by other changes that represent the youngest older names in most cases, are well explained through the historical phonetics of the Albanian language by making them objects with linguistic value.

In some areas of the northern edges, in researched registers by linguists, prevails Slavic-Orthodox anthroponymy. The emergence of these names with total Albanian clothing can be explained by the lack of analogous forms of Slavic names, thus the inability to adapt to them. Slavic suffixes emerge only on a Slavic root. These are rarely linked to local topics.

Most of the Slavic names with their own correspondent in both the Albanian and Slavic vocabulary (lexicon) are translations from Albanian to Slavic language just for easiness of use by the administration not excluding administrative interventions with certain goals as one of the forms that use sometimes invaders. Here you can add new personal names according to the country's configuration, tree-names or any other distinguishing element according to the French linguist Dauzat, Albert in his major work: "*Les noms de famille de France*". (Paris, 1949, f.180)

A full study has been carried out according to Belgian researcher Eugen Vroonen, who distinguishes within this type of patronymies: names that characterize physical characteristics like: age, hair color and skin, mentioning of an organ or part of the body, various mutilations, wounds; beauty, body ugliness; strength, vitality and weakness, morality characteristics, profane names, religious names, moral strength and weakness, justice, sincerity, self-restraint; arbitrariness, severity, hypocrisy, flattery, lack of language, elegance in clothing, main sin or virtue, miserliness, generosity, hot-temper/peaceful, envy, laziness, carelessness².

It's written that language policies over the years have brought a movement within the system with rapport displacement until the system closes with the establishment of the first administration of the Albanian state and especially with the first population census (in 1923); "registration is repeated every 10 years until 1945. It takes place in these years after the Second World War, until 1 September 1948, when the law on personal names was adopted, which is published in the "General Codification of the Legislation" in force on the Popular Republic of Albania, Annex 1959-1960, Tirana. Prime Minister's Edition, 1961.

This system was improved year after year, according to this variety of types and forms, and it manages to identify the citizens with the two-term formula and in too formal circumstances uses the three-term formula. to make it work more accurately.

However, this system is the result of a long evolution that is in full compliance with the European system of identification.

1. Language policy of the years before 1970-1990 on the tendency of the sound complex

Even before the 1970s and onwards, many linguists treated in full articles the names of the population and the names of the families. Complete publications were also made. In those years was also published a vocabulary of about 5000 people names that was published as an appendix in the "Vatra e Kultures" (Culture Hearth) magazine, in 1972, mainly with Albanian source or Albanianised that served as a guide to parents and their employees.

Then this list was elaborated by a group of linguists who worked in the field of anthroponymy and was published as a separate book "Dictionary with people's name", 1982. That period has left a very beautiful footprint in Albanianhood and the common names of people in Albania and almost throughout Albanian lands.³ We can not say that it continued to act

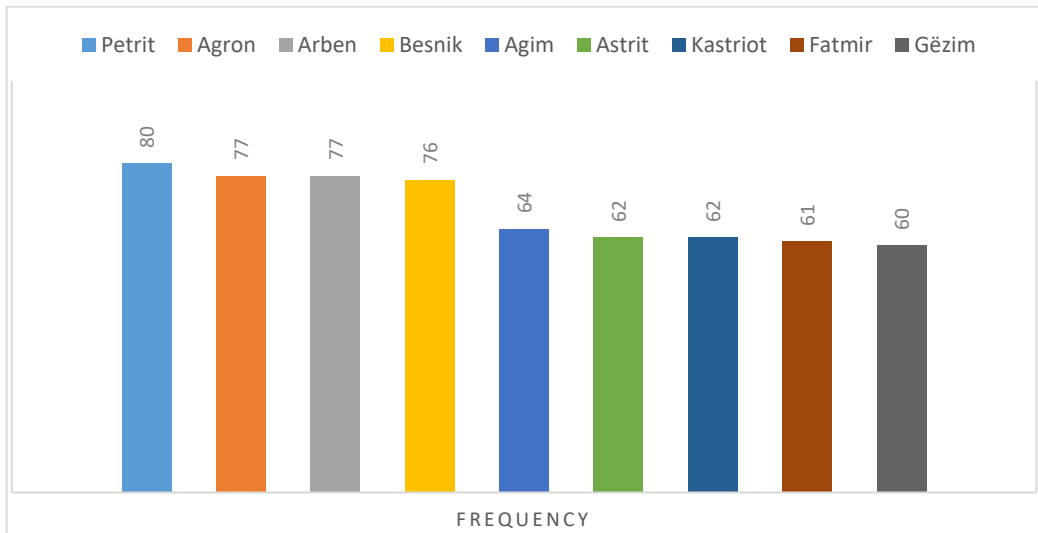
¹ Same book, f.244.

² Vroonen, E. "*Les noms de personnes dans le monde*" (Anthroponymie universelle compare) 1967, f.409-426.

³ Shkurtaj, Gj. *Onomastic and enolinguistic*. Tiranë, 20015, f.28.

as a "patriotic trend" in naming proper nouns, but we see it clear at the municipalities that surveyed the voter lists of the two municipalities, which reflected perfectly both genders. On the telephone numbers of the city of Vlora and Përmet,¹ the literature emphasized in the frequency of using those names, who built for those years the language policy for the people's names

Anthroponyms, sound complex, chosen by family assemblies with local source, that have the greatest use which are reflected in the chart below:



Graphic (chart) nr. 1. Anthroponyms with local source that have the greatest use

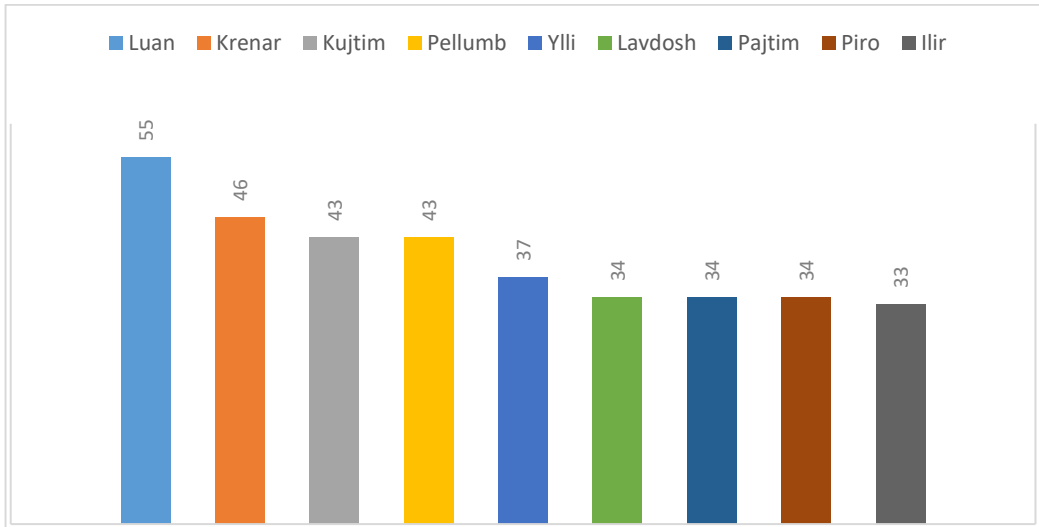
Personal name concepts, as a sign, are different. We mentioned above some of the linguistic thoughts. The name sign (stamp) is also viewed in the sociolinguistic aspect. Putting a child's name is an act of will and a social obligation, somehow the child always carries the parents blessing together with the belonging to a culture, a religion, or a happiness vision of tomorrow's world. He's going to keep that name for life, the name that others gave him, as a distinguish sign and at the same time as a sign of union with the surrounding society. The tradition has been the establishment of families assemblies for all, family members are active in discussing and selecting the name. The family assembly decides on the sound complex that the child will hear thousands of times. The man and his name are inseparable, the name lives even after man's dead, to remind his descendants of his work. Somehow the name is not like any other sign. He is a living sign.² The longevity of the individual's name was a concern for the family generations when they reflected the language policy of these years. Grandparents, parents who preside over families assemblies worry about the naming: First, how will it be caressed in the family;

Secondly, how will it sound when is placed next to determinative like: uncle(sire, old man), or auntie, when he reaches a certain age; till to the beautiful sound of ear when this sound complex was associated with over-segmental elements. The language politics of the time also affirmed some of the names of animals, birds, and plants by expanding the meaning of the general noun, reflecting it also in the following graphics.

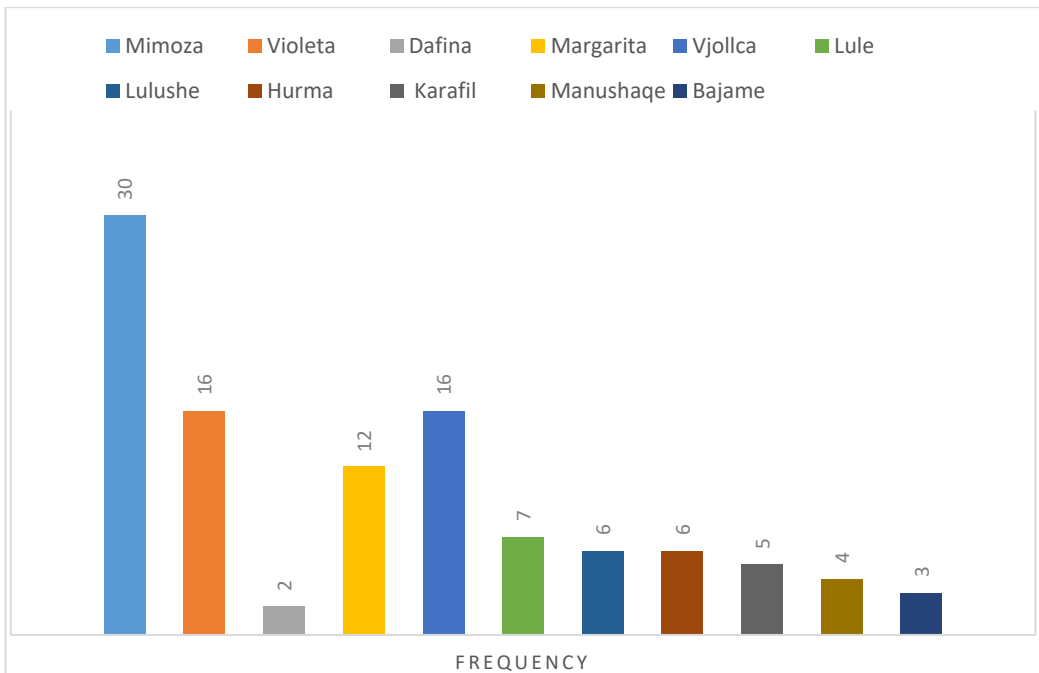
¹ The onomastic material we used as a sample for the study: personal names and family names, Based on sources obtained from the 2013 electoral registers of Vlora's city, the list of names from the (ISSH) SSI of the Sevaster and Armen communes and Vlora's telephone numbers of 2003, Përmet's telephone numbers of the year 2003 etc.

² Kostallari, A. "People and names", *National Literary Standard and Language Culture*, 1.vol Tiranë, 1973, f. 361.

The names and family names that we have taken for the study belong to individuals over the age of 18, who are reflected in the language policy of the 1970s that we left behind.



Graphic Nr. 2. Anthroponyms that derive from animals and birds names, and formation with the suffix *-im*
Anthroponyms from local source that have the highest use frequency



Graphic Nr.3. Anthroponyms derived from plant names

The observation of time records reflects the Albanians names through the years, you can learn not only the family's religion, or the tastes and cultural tendency of the parents, but more or less the generation they belong to. As well as other times, Albanian culture has shown itself unsparing with loanwords from other cultures that have accessed us through literature, films, history and fashion.

Normally when you prepare to put a child's name, you are always forced to follow different conventions, different signs, complex sounds that sound nice and are distinct as sound waves for the ear, for example: religious or national; which always refer to the total temptation of baptismal authority. There are also limitations in the space that remains relatively out of the sphere in which this authority operates, since many times the child is named after his grandfather(grandmother), or another name, based on a variety of rules that may relate to the family proximity and kinship structures; or with the calendar: or by the order of birth etc.

The parent is free to choose a name beyond religious, nationalist, traditional, ritual, consideration etc; And this choice can not only be aesthetic; so the chosen name should be beautiful. Of course it can not be denied that aesthetics plays a first class role in personal name selection; at least the modern Albanian, can no longer experience the evocative force of the name that was possibly linked to once. The factors listed above about these years and language policies, correctly implemented by Civil Status Offices, family assemblies also mapped out some tendency. Almost mandatory, the tendency of this policy are also reflected in the use frequency on the graphics presented, such as: plant and animal names, abstract names, by mapping out the Albanian culture etc.

3. The sound complex in the years of democracy, after the 1990s

The system change brought also changes in language policy for the tendency of the sound complex to the anthroponymy and patronymy and on. The above mentioned language policy began to be implemented less, even for the main factor that the institution that planned it did not applied the best realization of the distinctive tendency of the sound complex in anthroponymy and patronymic. The propensity of the sound complex with Illyrian names and remarkable figures starting from the beginning of the twentieth century it looks like it fades, to be interrupted. It is not involved in fashion while it brings linguistic culture over the years and puts Illyrian names as part of a general trend of the National Renaissance to restore the historic memory of Albanians. A tendency increase is not noticeable nor for the tradition initially launched among the middle classes of citizens. In other social classes as well there is no tendency to use names that belonged to distinguished men and women of the nation and plant and animal names.

Linguists treated in conferences also special publications for the policy improvement, the consolidation of the best tendencies and the Linguists addressed special conferences and publications to improve policy to consolidate the best trends and distinctions as any other European nation. A survey was conducted with a sample chosen by the country's municipalities in the north and the south. Survey questions aimed at expanding the argument for the family assembly, setting the anthroponymy, patronymic and its choice and aesthetic, which led to the chosen tendency of the sound complex. Family assemblies for all students are active in the family for discussions and selections of the personal name and family name.

Among these choices are those who are influenced from media and literature.

These assemblies continue today in the explored regions for anthroponymies and patronymics.

To the question "How did you get your name?";

70% respond from the names of speakers, singers, winners of beauty contests, character actors (main actors):Jonida, Zhuliola, singer's name; movie actor: Sonila, Abigela, Paula, Ornela, Marjeta; book character: Asjola, Osjola, Olt; winners of beauty contests: Sidorela, advertisement's name: Lori, Lorena.

10% of the names were set by letter's merging: mir + ban <Mirban, two brothers Er+ s+jan<Ersjana, two parents names, grandfather's sisters, aunties names: Sa+ina<Saina, Marianthi, art+ ilda<Arilda etc.

5% of the names are set as grandfather's, grandmother's, aunt's(mother's sister), aunt's(father's sister) and other relatives legacy who want to perpetuate their name even when they are alive although, once afflicted, by most parents of rural areas is mostly preferred the traditional by resetting their parents names. To the question "How do you choose aesthetically a

beautiful name for you and for your family members and your relatives(tribe)?"; According to sub-zones with different concepts even when it is a borrowed name.

Selecting a name by the aesthetic beauty of the sound complex from the family or other members in the family assemblies which are comfortable with what this sound complex means: Ersila ,Ersi – goddess, Sara- princess, Habibe<love, Siderela-music, passion, Zajmira <good voice, Gëzim-a boy after two girls, Euxhenia – well-born Flutura - to be beautiful as a butterfly, Sotira- good-hearted,, Juliana – is a christian name, feminine beauty name.

1-2% take place the islamic inherited names, and it is not supposed to replace this sound complex

1% Are expressed for changing the sound complex by stressing out those sounds complex, those names that are most used on the Internet: Sara.Todete> Odeta, Juliana, etc.

The sounds complex chosen as a proper name, which has as its basic function simply the marking, the individualization of the living being, putting a label on each of them, so that the individual or object named is easily identified and distinguished from other individuals. Sound complex recorders assert that parents choose the name aesthetically and ease in pronunciation, usually are chosen names with fewer words: *Emi, Ana, Rei, Ina, Ami*.

So the above trend it's not noticeable by the fulfilling of the reports presented in the graphics with the names of flowers and animals becomes rare, have a frequency of use up to one as well as those formed with the suffix -im.

Proper nouns, since they do not mark concepts, have no content. Few are the students who ask for the meaning, the etymology of the sound complex, how can they be translated; and consequently changing the name.

The biggest reason for the changes is the adaptation with the name that is fashionable in the country where they emigrate together with their family. To the survey's question

"Can you write any case of changing the name and family name and the reasons?"

They line up as a motive for changing their name at first the trend of emigration: *Xhevair < Jani, Ferlando < Andi, Landi< Fabion , lives in Germany, Agron<Sami, Mjafitime< Sidorela, Era<Irini*.

The emigration's reason has continued with the choice of the sound complex for the family name as well: Shehaj <Stefani, Shaqiri < Karpuzi, Gjoka <Gjika, Gjoleka < Kristo.

To the question "Has your *family name* changed?" They answer by listing the reasons for adapting to the sound complex of the family name for emigration reasons like for example: *Shehaj<Stefani,Shaqiri< Karpuzi, Gjoka <Gjika, Gjoleka< Kristo*, but also changes for property reason like:*Cjapi <Sabriu, Dangaj <Kajo,Vaso <Sefraj, Asllanaj <Aliu etj*.

It is also claimed by sound system recorders that during the period post-1991 many families, which emigrated, because of the documentation or even insults, especially immigrants in Greece, have changed their names as well as the columns of motherhood and fatherhood reflecting from Muslim names in Christian names: *Fatime<Fotini,Vesel<Vasil* etc.

To the question "Why someone has two names?";

There are several alternatives: 1-2% have two names: Bush for Qamil, Zenel for Maxim, Fiqirete for Ornela. The first one now replaces the grandfather who has already been renewed as a name and others for immigration reasons.

They call as second name the family ameliorative done in the family for the family register and the casual register carried out with sound drops in different positions such as: *afteres: Oligerta>Gerta, Aligerta>Gerta, Euxhenia>Xhenia, Todeta>Deta, Elfrida>Frida, Elisa>Lisa, Abigela>Gela, Trifon>Foni, Domalda > Alda, Pamela>Mela, Sidorala> Dorela, Kristabela>Bela, Ervina> Vina;*

and apocope: *Juliana >Juli, Marjeta>Mari, Emirjana>Emi, Enelita>Eni, Jugerta>Jugi*

They form this second name for family records and careless in various ways with additions and ameliorative suffixes: *Ersjana>Cole, Armada>Didi, Olta>Oltush, Gëzim>Xhimi, Anxhela>Xheku>Xheni, Asjola>Asi, Paula>Pau, Flutur > Luçi, Arbana>Bai, Bleona> Lona, Zajmira> Zami, Sotira>Tirka, Olta> Oltush* etc.

It is written by the linguists that a part of the inhabitants registered in the *daftar*(land registers) of 1583, they kept as names as well family names, characteristic of the Albanian ethnicity. A part of the registered residents in 1583 within the "Muslim community" still held a Christian family name of early Islamization period as: *Hasan Gjoni* etc. Emigration into different countries of Europe has shown the trend in adapting the name and family name of the country where he will be placed to work. While younger generations have come to the "throne" of heritage, selecting names from centuries-old national tradition is a neglected job by the eldest after the 90s who have not turned it into tribal and family education the setting of Albanian names.

Has fashion influenced into the choice of the sound complex displayed on the web pages?

Are they reflected in the choice and now the setting of children's names?

The selective family assemblies of the child's name sound complex appear to be reflected after the 2000s, when they were also used by the population: computers, tablets, and cell phones. With these tools they can easily find the promulgated trend by the Social Security Administration, but also the one in the country where they will emigrate. This information is participant in the family assembly, or talking on Skype etc. The most favorite names for children beyond Albania: Jacob and Sophia are the most popular names for infants (babies) born in 2012, as has announced the Social Security Administration. The list was filled with names from the Bible, pop culture, but also with characters names from media: *Jacob* for eighteen consecutive years is at the top of the list, in terms of names for boys. The most favorite names for men in some generations are: *Gilbert, Michael, David, John, James, William, Matthew und Robert*. Meanwhile for girls' names preferences change more often. So in the last 5 years, four different names have dominated the preferences for girls' names. From 1996 to 2007, Emily was the most favorite name, but from 2007 and beyond the names Emma, Isabella and Sophia are the most popular. Below are 10 names for men and women who are or are expected to be most preferred in the years to come, and may be anthroponymies tendencies and later patronymies with some little changes in the letter and the entire sound complex even in Albania.

10 the most used names for girl and boys, with are discussed from family assemblies:

Boys	Girls
Jacob,	Sophia
Mason	Isabella
William	Emma
Jayden	Olivia
Noah	Ava
Michael	Emily
Ethan	Abigail
Alexander	Madison
Aiden	Mia
Daniel	Chloe

This fashion was observed in some municipalities of North Tosk dialect and Labëria, Vlora Municipality selecting the sound complex during 2015.

In the Municipality of Përmet and Këlcyra the names of Islamic origin that were once dominant during 2015 are rarely settled, only once, the frequency of use is one: *Sinan*.

Melodi, Burbuqe that once before the 90s were preferred or trendy on the family assemblies were repeated only once. In both municipalities is noticed the placement of two syllables names: *Roi, Nergis, Matias*; Names that are not pronounced with -s are being written as they were borrowed from the respective languages.

Most of the names are set according to the trend that appears online: *Afrosta, Izabela, Mikele, Aluesta, Vanesa, Dario, Juel, Elena, Joel, Noemi, Serxhio, Aria, Flojdi* etc. In the municipality of Këlcyra, the sound complex chosen for the year 2015 with the highest frequency is *Noel*, with two variants *Xhoel, Roel* (3) *Aja* (2) *Melina* (2) etc.

In the Municipality of Vlora it is settled by family assemblies: *Emi, Ana, Rei, Ina, Ami* etc.

In all three municipalities that we have explored, there is a tendency to choose the sound complex from trends shown in the media, so it is a common phenomenon with wide-range. Have been avoided inherited Muslim, Orthodox names and Catholic names, even those tendencies who succeeded in the language politics of the 1970s-1990s. This trend is further argued in the anthroponymy and patronymic to a wider national level. There is anxiety when examining the sound complex chosen by family assemblies wider than the aforementioned municipalities. You can feel the concern when you consider the sound complex chosen by family assemblies wider than the aforementioned municipalities.

So this is confirmed by the latest INSTAT (Institute of Statistics) data, that from more than 35,000 children born in 2014, the most popular name is Amelia, followed by Amelja, Ajla, Melisa, Klea, Sara, Kejsi, Noemi, Alesia and Leandra. The sound complex for male children, at the top is Noel, followed by Joel, Joel, Mateo, Ergi, Luis, Aaron, Samuel, Roan and Roel. But referring to BIRN, none of the 20 most commonly used names for newborn babies in Albania have no Albanian roots or they aren't constructed according to the aforementioned Albanian linguists policies. From the above presentation we clearly see the remark of 70 years ago that H.Boissi formulates in his statement: "There are few family names formed by first names as abstract": "*Shkëlqim*". It is explainable, why such names have not passed in patronymic, it is surprising to us what comes out in the Cadastre and Concessions Registry for the district of Shkodra in 1416-1417 "patronymic Kujtimi, Pjetër Kujtimi", which is not encountered neither today in the material collected in the district of Përmet. While in other municipalities the student's paternity for the years under review have a usage frequency of up to 50% the names that are fashionable: Agim (5), Kujtim (4), Gezim (3) etc.

Though the personal names formed with the suffix -im have a high frequency of use after the language policy of the 1970s: *Agimi (64) Kujtim(43)Pajtim (34)Bashkim (31) Shkëlqim(27)* etc., are not transferred into family names. Maybe it takes time to turn to family names.

This wide, beautiful tendency is not mentioned by student enumerators, it is avoided by the enumerators, by not mention it. The above changes are also argued with other factors that reflect the survey conducted with students of the first-year for language-literature, with first-year master's degree Language and Literature students in May 2016.

So to argue further the language policy for anthroponymy and patronymic we expanded the geographic extent in many municipalities in the country. We analyzed for two years the names of students coming from the municipality that lie in the north of the country. The anthroponymy and pathronymic of first year students in the Faculty of Human Sciences, at "Ismail Qemali" University, we examined to see what was the most widely used name with the highest frequency for the years 2015-2017. How it went on with the trend choices from the family assemblies even on the threshold of 1998-2000 for the sound complex? How does go on this trend this with the parents anthroponymy and patronymic? How are they reflected in student names by calculating the frequency of use and the comparison with the graphics of the years 1970-1990 above?(4),Antonela ((4),Sidorela(4)Esmeralda (4)Sara(4),Klea(3),Anisa(3)Xhoana(3), Daniela(3) etc.

Academic Year 2015-2016,2016-2017, First year at the Faculty of Human Sciences

Anthroponymy			Paternity		Pathronymy						
Order	Unfiltered word count Occurrence		Order	Unfiltered word count Occurrences	Order	Unfiltered word count Occurrence					
1.	Anxhela	17	4.6322	1.	Artur	7	1.9126	1.	Xhaferaj	6	1.6349
2.	Kristjana	5	1.3624	2.	Astrit	7	1.9126	2.	Hoxha	5	1.3624
3.	Françeska	4	1.0899	3.	Luan	7	1.9126	3.	Muçaj	4	1.0899
4.	Antonela	4	1.0899	4.	Petrit	6	1.6393	4.	Mustafa	4	1.0899
5.	Megi	4	1.0899	5.	Viktor	5	1.3661	5.	Sula	4	1.0899
6.	Sidorela	4	1.0899	6.	Vladimir	5	1.3661	6.	Veizaj	4	1.0899

¹ Bibollari, Ç. *Onomastics Research* Tiranë,2010, f.57.

7.Esmeralda	4	1.0899	7.Agim	5	1.3661	7. Halili	3	0.8174
8.Sara	4	1.0899	8.Sokrat	4	1.0929	8. Breg	3	0.8174
9.Ermelinda	3	0.8174	9.Arben	4	1.0929	9. Doko	3	0.8174
10 Klea	3	0.8174	10.Ardian	4	1.0929	10.Meta	3	0.8174
11.Anisa	3	0.8174	11.Artan	4	1.0929	11. Hoxhaj	3	0.8174

The tendency of sound complex for student's parent is quite different from that of the student by having a high usage frequency: Artur (7), Astrit (7), Luan(7), Petrit (6), Vladimir (5), Agim(5) etc.

While patronymics reflect just a little bit from language policy as they change very slowly by coming out with greater frequency of use: Hoxha(5)+ Hoxhaj(3), Xhaferaj(6), Muçaj(4) etc.

wich are inherited pathronymics for centuries and fossilized by Islamic language policy of five centuries ago.

Language policy before the 1990s brought the addition of names : *Dafina, Agim, Vjollca, Luan, Lumturi, Besnik, Dashamir, Dhurata, Majlinda, Liri, Bekim, for whom there has always been authentic tradition, Illyrian names such as: Agron, Teuta, Ardian, Enkeleida, Bardhyl, Taulant, etc.* wich were completely unknown to family assemblies as a whole. This language policy of the Illyrian names introduction can also be seen as part of a general trend of the National Renaissance to restore historic memory to Albanians by making it part of family assemblies by selecting the sound complex.

From the changing of the system, the beginnings of democracy 1990 - today, this language policy with all the editions and studies of names, family names did not apply for many other factors listed by surveyors such as: freedom of choice for the sound complex, the trend of the names comping from the west, emigration's trend etc.

The entire number of baby names born in these years especially those related to the most important parts of the Albanian language community with the lifestyle and the spiritual and material culture of it, are less preserved intact, do not come up as a trend.

Civil Status Employees implement correctly the list of prohibited names (2008). These names are considered to express negative qualities and are commonly expressed in everyday life. This makes them unsuitable for ordinary use, which is not reflected in the names of students, preschool children, and on the birth lists of 2015 in the surveyed municipalities. Parallel can also be applied as well the prudent work of the linguist V. Zoto, "Name's Dictionary." (2005) and other dictionaries to carefully select the Albanian sound complex from family assemblies.

Literary Translation Between Albania and Spain A Cultural Bridge Between Two Countries

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Abstract

The present paper aims to evidence the literary translation as a cultural bridge between the two countries, Albania and Spain. It is a topic which has interests in terms of literary translation because the literary translation Albanian-Spanish and vice versa is a non-treated topic in our country. Literature is a bridge between the two countries and language possesses all the characteristics of culture, because when it is translated it is produced an exchange of linguistic systems. In this paper, we will present chronological data on the number of literary translations in both countries, respectively in Albania and Spain, and we will explain the importance of literary translation as a process that connects cultures, inasmuch as the literary translation aims to transfer literary or artistic experiences of a culture to another culture. Moreover, this paper will provide an overview of the impact of literary translation in both cultures, Albanian and Spanish.

Keywords: literary translation, culture values, Albania, Spain.

Introduction

An overview of Spanish in Albania

According to the report of Cervantes Institute of 2016, Spanish language is a native language for more than 472 million people and a second most spoken language in the world after mandarin Chinese.¹ Spoken in 21 countries, recently Spanish has become a language which is requested in Albanian schools and universities. Spanish became for the first time, part of the 'Asim Vokshi' high school curriculum in 1979-1980, to be interrupted after 4 years and then to be part of the curriculum again after 1990. Spanish was taught only in this high school until 2007. One year later, the Spanish embassy enabled the opening of the Department of Spanish in the Faculty of Foreign Languages, in the University of Tirana. With the opening of this department and the support of the Spanish embassy, the department could draw a cooperation project with some universities in Spain. Titled "'Fortalecimiento del Departamento de Español de la Facultad de Lenguas Extranjeras de la Universidad de Tirana', this Project was financed by the Spanish Agency of International Cooperation and Development (AECID). The Project planned programs that could come to help to the syllabuses, but also the specialization of the staff, and also the supply with necessary didactic materials, dictionaries, digital tables (boards), etc. In order to implement this Project, a very important part was on the cooperation with the International University Menendez Pelayo (UIMP). With the opening of the department of Spanish, the number of students enrolled was 40, the lowest number in the faculty. With the passing of the years, the number was increasing and today the number of students enrolled is 75, exceeding the number of students enrolled in Turkish, Greek or Russian. The interest of students to learn this foreign language is increasing, as it is increasing the number of students in other departments of the Faculty of Foreign Languages, who choose Spanish as a second language to learn.

Tendencies of translation, then and now (yesterday and today)

As we all know, from the practices of cultural communication, at different periods and places, translation has played an important role in human history development, in various relations among peoples, as well as in forwarding scientific and literary knowledge among them. Without translation, this great bridge of communication in the civilized world, this picture of extraordinary achievements in civilization, we wouldn't have the possibility to discover values of languages and spaces,

¹El español: lengua viva. Informe 2016, Instituto Cervantes, <http://ëëë.cervantes.es/imagenes/File/prensa/EspanolLenguaViva16.pdf>

at different periods of time and at different written models. Moreover, without the mediation of translation, as a possibility of communication extension, thus exchanging values, it wouldn't be possible for the cultural integration of different settings, as an edge of spiritual values intercommunication of different peoples and cultures.

Besides being an interconnectivity bridge, translation serves also as a mirror where there are generally reflected changes happened during the years, but also where the verification of achievements and changes of different cultures happened and also the process of mutual exchange happens. However, the discipline of translation of literary works is now a real scientific discipline with a well-defined object, what has enabled the contact of most important moments in culture, science and literature. We shall not forget that the symbol of this process is the Babel Tower, thus the need of people to "decode" messages different languages transmit. This made it possible that individuals, through translation, come into knowing the culture, literature and scientific achievements. Besides the great steps on the last years on intercultural, interlinguistic and interspatial relations and achievements in art, science, politics and economy, the real creator in translation, which is already a real scientific discipline and which works on bases of well-defined standards, is Saint Jerome, the father of the Church, who, even though being alone in Belen, in the end of the fourth century dedicated to the translation of the Bible in Latin, a task which took 30 years. With this oeuvre, he put the foundations of translation and the weaknesses of cultural intercommunication. As a theoretical result of this extraordinary and preliminary effort, but also as a result of the practice gained in translation, Saint Jerome left a legacy for the future of human civilization, a document which explains the tendency for interpretation, which is titled "Letter for Pammaquio".

In this uncommon letter of its kind, with wide mythological submissions and of an explicit nature, among many things, he speaks of the principles and methods of translation, with which he would build the first translation poetics: *De optimo genere interpretandi* (On the best way of translating).¹

Writings on translation, as an interconnectivity bridge and as a communication picture, are as old as the century which forwards the Christian epoch. The need for communication among cultures made translation a window where to see the civilized world from. The writings of Cicero, Horacio and Saint Jerome (4th century A.D.) had a great influence on intercultural communication settings until the 20th century.²

They have enabled the developments in science, culture and literature, as a process without which peoples would not have the possibility to come into contact with progress. Even though the practices of translation date back many years, its study as a special discipline in the institutions of higher education do not date back than the second half of the 20th century.³ It is noticed a great contradiction between translation as a living process, the contact with a different culture and the aspect of study, the diffraction and perfecting of communication methods through translation. On the other hand, this act has not been given the place deserved, as a means and extraordinary way of communication between edges of civilizations. After a very long way from century to century, from one stage to another, translation has the status of a special discipline, which is studied and analyzed scientifically only in the 20th century, carrying also the delays and unavoidable lacks. During 1950s and '60s of the last century, a translation study, far from the idea to be an autonomous discipline, was considered as a branch of applied linguistics.⁴ At the end of Second World War, we find the first works which carry the problem of translation, as a practice and method which needs to be defined in all its aspects, as a clear situation when the debate started for the level of translating different works, for the methodology and various forms. Translation, even though it was considered as a sub-issue of linguistics, thus leaving it again under the shadows of linguistics, when in fact in its content, structure and function, with the aspects it represents, is broader and much more specific as a process. There are many ideas and discussions on translation, on the ways and models, but the right definition on its nature seems to be the one from the American linguist Eugene Nida: Translating consists in reproducing in the receptor language the closest natural equivalent of the source language message, first in terms of meaning and secondly in terms of style.⁵ Symbolized already as connecting bridges or as a necessary means for cultural exchanges and seen more as an unavoidable need which grows from day to day, translation as an open act and process is a worldwide phenomenon, which is studied in all its

¹Salinas Viereck, Roberto, *La traducción como instrumento y estética en la literatura hispanoamericana del siglo XVI*, Universidad Complutense de Madrid, 2003, p. 43.

²Ajazi, Edlir, *Aspekte teorike dhe praktike të përkthimit*, Universiteti Tiranës, p. 2.

³Ajazi, Edlir, *Aspekte teorike dhe praktike të përkthimit*, Universiteti Tiranës, Tiranë, p. 2.

⁴Luis Estevez, Jose Alberto, *Las traducciones escritas de letras de canciones: Bob Dylan en España (1971-2006)*, Universidad de Laguna, Curso 2009/2010, Tesis Doctorales, p. 24.

⁵Nida, Eugene Albert, *Language Structure and Translation: Essays*, Stanford University Press, California, 1975, p. 33.

stages, but which seems that it hasn't still found an ultimate and complete definition. But, it is still in the beginnings of building a unity theory of translation, based on scientific foundations, able to clarify in all aspects – communicative, pragmatic, linguistic and especially aesthetic – that very complicated process which we call in a very simple term: translation.¹ Translation is a very complex process that implies the transmission of information between different languages, spaces and nations, which often encounters major difficulties of the nature of a single value, i.e. semantic and aesthetic compatibility of words of different languages, therefore, often used the expression *traduttore / traditore*, translator / traitor. In fact, the translation of any nature whatsoever, has its difficulties, especially when cultures are far from each other, not only geographically, but more on that civilization and cultural aspects. A good example of this can be the case when an Albanian interpreter tries to bring in Albanian translation of the fall of snow in Alaska, the coldest place in America, where the temperature can mark the -60 degrees Celsius, and the land itself has several kinds of descriptions for the word snow itself or the type of its fall. Many theorists in translation, already viewed it as a process that also consists of translation criticism, have explored the inside and tried to see it from an interdisciplinary, autonomous and scientific perspective, as an approach that enables expansion communication spaces with the process itself. Vinay and Darbelnet define translation as "transition from language A to B language to express the same reality" while Catford argues that translation represents "the replacement of textual material in another language."² While Eugenio Coseriu is of the opinion that the translation from a linguistic point of view means to reproduce in another language, maintaining the unique and transforming what is inevitable. The philosopher George Steiner notes that translation is the behavior of the silent mode in the active state of a given situation or text, that happens in intercultural relations. Until the twentieth century translation was seen by more as an almost exclusively philological perspective, being away from the objective of the field representing. With the proliferation of Russian formalism, structuralism and subsequently, the translation concept continued to be treated in a manner distinct from linguistics, while the theory of communication led to the adoption of sociolinguistics and psychology related disciplines, which reassessed the translation act. Nowadays modern disciplines, such as comparative stylistics, comparative literature, semantics, grammar and systemic, communication theories, cognitive theories join the discipline in question, but none of them fully includes it.³ Discourse on what translation represents, in practical terms, and proper theoretical marking, remains open, being perfect every day, but the research aspect does not follow the pace of the act of translation. If you add the other fact, namely the translation theory as an inevitable act that deals with early modeling and presents the different schools of translation, along the long route that has been translated as an autonomous process and is so well blessed in all meanings of various alloys and various science, culture, art and literature, problems come up and it becomes more complex.

Translation of literary works from Spanish and vice versa

According to a study carried out in the terrain, in some of the most important institutions, as the National Library and the Library of the Faculty of History and Philology, but also with the support of some publishing houses in Tirana, the number of translations from Spanish to Albanian is 135. This is a higher figure compared to that of Albanian works translated into Spanish, which is 74. The first translation from Spanish to Albanian dates back to 1928, of the novel 'El ingenioso Hidalgo Don Quijote de la Mancha', Miguel de Cervantes de Saavedra, which was translated from the literature professor from Shkodra and at the same time translator, Ndoc Vasija. For the Albanian reader, this was the first introduction to "Don Quijote" but also to the first Spanish translations. Some years later, in 1932, the translation of Don Quijote would come to Albanian from another translator, poet and famous diplomat, Fan S. Noli. For the Albanian press of those years, translating to Albanian this representative novel of Spanish literature, brought a lot of discussions, but people were also enthusiastic about this world oeuvre which could not lack in Albanian. In "Republika" newspaper of Boston, on October, 22nd, 1931, the columnist nicknamed "The Student" writes an article called "Don Quijote and Albania". With a very enthusiastic language, he expresses his joy that this novel is coming to Albanian, and introduces also the values of the translator, the importance of its translation for Albania and Albanians. "We definitely believe that this 'plume knight' which is bringing to Albanian the masterpiece of Cervantes, for the good of all Albanians, and not only for those who want to die for Albania."⁴ The following

¹Pema, Alket, "Mbi përkthimin në gjuhën shqipe të poezisë së Uolt Uitmanit", Universiteti Tiranës, 2014, p.7.

²Llacer Llorca, Eusebio, *Sobre la traducción: Ideas tradicionales y teorías contemporáneas*, Universitat de Valencia, 2004, p.179.

³Vukovic, Jovanka, *Como definimos el concepto de traducción?*, Cagnolati, Beatriz. *La Traductología: Miradas para comprender su complejidad*, Universidad Nacional de La Plata, 2012, p.11-12.

⁴Nushi, Admira. *Don Kishoti, ky humbës fitimtar. Tezë doktrature*, Universiteti Tiranës, 2015, p. 41

years would bring other translations of Spanish literature, by broadening the cultural and literary horizon of Albanians towards the Spanish country. We can mention here some of the Spanish writers who were brought masterfully in Albanian during the years of dictatorship, where we encounter a lot of censorships in translation, such as: Vicente Blasco Ibanez, Lope de Vega, Pablo Neruda, Mariano Azuela Gonzales, Armando Salinas Lopez, Federico Garcia Lorca, Gabriel Garcia Marquez, Miguel Angel Asturias, Ernesto Castro, Aquilino Ribeiro, Maria Alise Barozo, Romulo Gallegos, Julio Cortazar, Isabel Allende, etc. Spanish literary translations albeit censored and not fully translated helped the reader to approach closer to Spanish reality. Another work which found support of the Albanian reader was theatrical works of Federico Garcia Lorca 'The House of Bernarda Alba ', a work in which reflected Spanish society in the era of Franco during the Spanish Civil War in the years 1936-1939. House of Bernarda was not confined to the four walls, or in the black clothes of female characters but was the personification of the state and the Spanish government and the poor socio-economic state. Some of the aforementioned authors were brought back again in Albanian language after 90 years because during the long years of dictatorship they had been censored. One of these Spanish or Latin American authors, whose novel was not published in full but the translation was censored, is the Chilean writer Isabel Allende, with her work 'House of Spirits'. The text was originally published with interference inside, because of censorship that existed in that period. The second edition after the 90s created the ultimate possibility of communicating with the entirety of her novels. Spanish literary translations in Albanian language had an extraordinary increase in the year '56 and onwards reaching a record of 49 literary translations until 1988. Two years later, with the fall of the dictatorship translations would be allowed to be completed and the readers, already Spanish literature enthusiasts had the opportunity to become acquainted and to read contemporary Spanish and Latin American authors. From 1990 until April 2017 the Albanian reader has had the opportunity to read about 76 Spanish literary translations.

Table Nr.1

Chronology of Spanish literary translations in Albania	
Period: 1928 - 1944:	Translated works: 10
Period: 1956 - 1988:	Translated works: 49
Period: 1990 - 2017:	Translated works: 76

Albania, country of eagles with an ancient history but not very well known by the Spanish state has such a wide range of translations. If we take a look at the history, we may note that there are various events, although few in number linking the two nations. Historical relations between Albania and Spain are too few, not to say somewhat non-existent. With the opening of the Spanish Embassy in Tirana, Albania, in 2006 and the following years it is made possible and continues to work from both sides to get as much cooperation in various cultural, social, economic and political fields. It is therefore not surprising the fact that there is a somewhat small number of literary translations, compared to the Spanish in Albanian. The first literary works in Spanish from Albanian language dates back to 1973, of Ismail Kadare's novel "The General of the Dead Army", neatly translated by Ramon Sanchez Lizarralde. This novel was very well received by the Spanish reader and had a great resonance in the Spanish press. The first literary translations from Albanian into Spanish, made possible by the translator Ramon Sanchez Lizarralde, a graduate of the University of Tirana, Faculty of History and Philology of Albanian language, in 1983, will be a cultural window but also a bridge to Albanian literature, particularly affecting closely a true but distant reality for the Spanish state itself. The first literary books that were translated into Spanish language were the novels of Ismail Kadare, with various themes which enabled recognition in a broader aspect of the eagles' country. Of the many titles by which there is a historical reality or even unknown Albanian customs for the Spanish people, we can mention the cruelty of rivalry between Orthodox and Catholics in the novel 'Constantine and Doruntine', the parable against totalitarianism and totalitarian evil in the novel "The Palace of dreams", the divorce of Albania with the Soviet Union in "The great winter" or revenge and bloodhood in canon in 'Broken April', the theme of which was received very well by the Spanish reader, enabling more closely recognition of literary culture but also of local customs. Spanish translator Ramon Sanchez Lizarralde has translated about 30 novels of the Albanian writer Ismail Kadare over 25 years, giving an invaluable contribution not only to the culture and the Albanian state to be recognized more closely in Spain but also by building a connecting cultural bridge between these two countries. Although the writer Ismail Kadare has the largest number of literary translations in Spanish language, thanks to translator R. S. Lizarralde who was also 'Albanian voice' in Spain, there are also some other

writers whose works are in Spanish bookstores. Among them we can mention: Fatos Kongoli, Petraq Risto, Bashkim Shehu, etc.

Table Nr.2

Chronology of Albanian literary translations in Spain		
Author	Period	Nr. of publishings
Ismail Kadare	1973 – 2014	64
Agron Tufa, Ervin Hativi, Gentian Çoçoli	2004	1
Petraç Risto	2008	1
Starova Luan	2008	1
Fatos Kongoli	2009-2014	7

Although fewer in number, literary translations in Spanish helped escort a culture, tradition and wider recognition of the Albanian state, which until four decades ago was almost unknown to the Spanish people. In a research done on the internet and in social networks it is noticed that the translation of literary works, has created a new image but also more positive image in the eyes of the Spanish reader towards the Albanian state. By reading the Albanian works, the reader is familiar with the Spanish dictatorship, history, events, expressing traditions, loyalty but also hospitality as one of the most significant features of our country. The same thing is noticed in the Albanian social networks where there are a lot of blogs or various literary forums where discussion on Spanish and the Latin American literature, as well as the importance of translation of the most prominent literary works. Today, literary translations, unlike the dictatorial period of the Albanian state, coming into Albanian from the original language but also without censorship, allowing even closer and closer recognition of cultures.

Concluding Remarks

In conclusion, we can say that literary translations are not only a bridge between countries, but also help to expand the horizon by unifying elements between the respective cultures. Literary translation is not only a literary product of a novel or language, but it is also a value adjustment from one culture to another. It is the only bridge which brings together countries and cultures in order to create a universal cultural circuit.

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Reading Classical Authors in the Digital Era

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Abstract

Statement of the problem: Learning about classic authors, whose language is hardly understandable for children, has become a challenge. The decline of literary reading and the lack of focus in the subject matter and idea of the text, which are interrelated to the early culture / identity, make students lose their will to read classic works, thus failing to fulfil the aims and competencies required with the Pre-university Curriculum Framework. Methodology: The research is based on the analysis of Curriculum Framework and the structure of school subjects. Furthermore, methods of teaching classic works and use of complementary means are treated through a combination of quantitative method with the ethnographic one. Results: The research concludes that students tend to read classic works (works by old authors) more easily if they are offered the abridged versions. Making of abridged collections of such works, and complementing book contents with digital content is the tendency that schools have in the digital era. Conclusions / recommendations: MEST should aim towards changing the structure of language and literature course, draft new programs, and prepare additional content for teaching and learning of texts and classic authors (e-school).

Keywords: classic authors, curriculum aims/competencies, school texts, abridged versions, digital content.

Introduction

Reading the classics can awaken "the echo of bygone times in the story." British Library has transformed this echo in a transcendental echo of reading: new books are stretched with contents of the earlier books. This echo is comparable with those of two great classic authors: Jorge Luis Borges and Italo Calvino. Borges did mention the transcendental echo of the earlier works in his theory of twelve metaphors known widely. Italo Calvino, on the other hand, offered fourteen reasons why we should permanently read the classics of literature.

Considering *classic authors*, nowadays we find the echo of the past times in their works coming back in such form that we continuously discover ourselves in a narrative overview. That's why we see the classic texts as a permanent source on which even the curricular aim of cultivating the cultural and national identity is based.

Literature as bearer of cultural memory builds an inseparable part of our cognitive universe and plays a role in highlighting the transformation of our everyday experiences in aesthetic experience (Sanz & Romero, 2007: 6). But, the reading of classic authors, whose language is hardly understandable for children, has become a school challenge. The decline in reading and focusing in the subject and text ideas, which are related to the early culture / identity affects the students will to read classic works and, consequently, they do not meet at least one of the goals of the Curriculum Framework of Pre-university Education, especially the first goal (article 1.3.): cultivation of personal identity, national and cultural background of the state, and its first competency, that is achieving communication and expression skills.

In the other hand, the barriers that children have in adapting their *language competencies* (Eco, 2000: 13) and their *encyclopaedic competency*, can have an immerse impact in the relations the students will create with the classic texts and authors.

Hence, the teaching methods should consider the clash between those competencies of the reader and the curricular goals and competences. As far as the national education system does not provide any particular program (which would be part of a course program offered by teachers, and which would consist in improving teacher's competencies and the ways they align the readers competencies with those curricular competencies), students will refuse to focus in the subject and ideas of the texts which are related to the early culture / identity and will diminish students' will to read classic works and, consequently, they do not meet at least one of the goals of the *National Curriculum*.

1. Why Read the Classics?

This paper presents an effort to align the curricular competencies with reader's competences and teacher's skills in offering the content to the students, even though they do not have a systematic program to evaluate students' progress. This form of evaluation would represent an effective mechanism in proving whether the goals and objectives written in the National Curriculum have influenced the learning behaviours of students in the learning process or whether a school has been successful in creating a positive learning environment, in which the reading of the classic authors would be easily possible.

We will also analyse the traditional course structure, considering the difficulties in *absorption* of the course content and the materials teachers are using to offer the classic text to students.

As a logical step, at the last part, the texts will be analysed within the new proposed structure of the course and an additional mechanism will be offered in creating a better learning environment, in which students, using some new digital tools and digital content will be approximated to a learning environment in which their competencies (including encyclopaedic, language and extra textual competencies) will be closer to the course structure and its content.

2. Curricular Competencies / Reading Competencies

The curriculum competencies imply that teachers have a duty to help students achieve some basic competencies. As mentioned, the cultivation of the personal, national and state identity as well as cultural background are the main goals. Therefore, the Albanian Literature and Language course structure should be adapted to this goal and provide the result: the improvement of the communication skills and expression. For this aim/competency, in the course structure, the *curriculum* offers some basic classic authors like: Marin Barleti, Gjon Buzuku, Pjeter Budi, Pjeter Bogdani etc. They have a central role in the content of school textbooks. Through their texts the curriculum has foreseen the fulfilment of these goals / competencies. But the manner of delivery of texts, as far as their language, are often incompatible with the students' competencies and their orientation towards new technologies.

The classical debate on the level of cooperation of readers with the text consists mainly between the text as a *code structure* (theory of the codes) and the *encyclopaedic competency* of the reader (Eco, 2000, 13). How to offer the book content to the students' using a language that is suitable to their level of knowledge, their lexical and language competency and their possibility to create an approach to the text?

The inter-connective structure of the texts, at its ideal level, should provide such a discursive opportunity that it would help readers use their language and extra language competency to understand the text and to be able to learn from it. The role of the curriculum framework should consist on offering a specific course program, learning materials and tools which create a close contextual competency, suitable for both the author (the strategy of the author) and the reader (the strategy of the text). Therefore, the contextual selection is important to all: curriculum experts, course program writers and learning strategists. They should all have an approach which produces a learning platform in which all parties are text-oriented. The competency of the text (offered by the text), adaptable with that of the reader, being used in this learning platform, would help the creation of the third level of the competency: the text competency (Eco, 2000), which will be used in an effective learning environment. Creating a comfortable learning environment, like a reading chair or author's hat in the classrooms promotes the *Love of Reading* (RICA, 2007: 23) and improves students' learning behaviours.

The ability to read the classic texts, written in a dialect or even more in one of the idiolects, is one of the crucial tests of the today's technology oriented society. Even though the instructional reading is considered to be between 92-97 percent of accuracy level (Tabersky), there are different text oriented approaches which help students to create a reading skills and competencies. The most known are: the method which emphasizes the *meaning* and the second which emphasizes the *decoding* (Schwartz, 1984: 12). Undependably, if students are focused in "sounds and words" or "look and say" method, the reading skills they will get depend on the materials that we offer them. Therefore, taking into consideration the different

cultures and experiences of students, we should offer to them specific materials which would be acceptable by them in teaching process and would help them to achieve the reading competences. That would help them create a positive approach to the classic authors as well. Therefore, getting good reading skills is a key to getting good learning skills. The children who do not learn to read well will not easily master other skills and knowledge (Wynne, 2008: X). The challenge will become even higher if we analyze the reading skills of children to read the classic authors and books. Children whose language and extra textual competencies are not in accordance with the text content and text language will not be able to develop enough skills and get knowledge. As a result, they will not fully achieve the curricular competencies, like the communication and expression for their personal, cultural or national identity. For this purpose, RYCA has proposed to conduct the assessment of the reading development of the students, as a reflective process of the students. The understanding of the classic texts, as an assessment process as a whole is very complex, but it must include one very important question, made by the students themselves: "Do I understand what the author was going to say"? (Wynne, 2008: 15). Will the students really be able to understand the so called *intentio auctoris* (Eco, 1995: 35) if they did not develop good reading skills and have a lack of knowledge and competencies?! And, how does the *Curriculum Framework* stimulate the achievement of those reading competencies by the children? As we have explained in the paper: *The Impact of the Curriculum Framework in the Literary Writing of the Children in Lower Secondary School*¹, the Curriculum competencies are gained mainly through: a) listening and speaking; b) reading and c) writing. The curriculum does not, however, specify two very important tools in achieving the communication skills, the *questioning* and *discussing* (Musai, 225). The questioning, in itself, helps schools in planning, organizing and managing the reading instructions and, through them, mastering more skills and competencies. On the other hand, *discussing* or using oral language activities can be an effective tool for promoting the reading comprehension or the critical meaning by the children.

However, the development of the phonological and linguistic approaches is crucial in preparing students to work with classic authors. The language competency remains a crucial factor in creating a positive environment for mastering reading skills. In order to benefit from the activity with the classic texts, students must have a certain level of linguistic awareness, including phonemic and lexical awareness. Only at the level in which the students have achieved a good level of language competency we can consider that they will be able to work with the *strategy of the text*, through the fifth reading competency: *the word identification strategies*, which provide the transformation of communication signals into messages throughout the decoding process (Wynne, 2008: 55). This transforming process brings the students in a platform where they are able to use the literary response to the texts and analyses. They will be ready to develop the literary analyses skills, which means: the analyses of the story elements, the character development, figurative language, literary allusions, the author's point of view and genre. This process will be of a high benefit for the students. They will not only get the skills and knowledge, or develop an independent reading process, but they will also develop further the oral and written language skills and achieve a satisfactory level of a vocabulary development. In addition, students will reach to a certain personal or cultural level which allows a good communication and expression and stimulate the awareness on the personal and cultural identity, which, as mentioned above, is one of the priority competencies.

3. Course Structure / Reading Competencies

The practical problem is that the course program and its tools are often not adaptable with the aim. The reader competencies are not in accordance with the text structure and text language. Therefore, the evaluation of the traditional course structure with the aim to identify the tools and materials to be used in a new course structure would be helpful for implementing this theory: the relation between curriculum, text and teaching strategy.

Consequently, schools are struggling between the traditional concept of learning delivery, , and the modern one, which means reforming the existing curriculum and the inclusion of digital content and digital media in the transmission of knowledge to students..

These two incompatible concepts affect the learning environment and individual learning behaviour because the students' habits are different: some learn textbook content very easily if it is accompanied with visualization; others, however,

¹ *The Impact of the National Curricula in the imaginative work of the studentes of the primary schools*; Lublin, Poland, 17-19 May 2017, The Magement, Knowledge and Learning International Conference 2017; organized by: International School for Social and Business Studies (ISSBS), Slovenia; Maria Curie-Sklodovska University, Poland and Kasetsart University, Thailand;

understand more deeply if the content is provided in writing. For the first group it is necessary to use additional materials and tools to facilitate the transfer of knowledge.

But, there is another issue, which is sensitive to both categories: communication texts and classic authors, whose language is "archaic", written in dialect or even idiolect, which may or may not coincide with the language "used" by students. Children are usually more focused on the meaning than in the words (Taberski). The problem is that the text often does not provide language adaptable with their competencies, so they lose the meaning having not understood the words. The glossary helps them to identify the meanings of the word before they understand the meaning of the text.

3. 1. The traditional course structure

Based on the *Curriculum Framework of Pre-University Education*, the structure of language and literature course has set several goals, achievable through the provision of works / literary texts of the authors varying from the Middle Ages onwards. These targets consist primarily in *knowledge acquisition, language training, cultural training, and formation as an individual and as a citizen*. As goals related directly to lower secondary school, they will highlight the mastery of the native language and literature, and recognition of the culture. The basic tools for achieving this goal are *the most popular literary works*, including those of the classic authors. The aim is to offer students the opportunity to get good language skills, structured thinking and independent judgment, in addition to expanding their imaginative space.

At this point, communication with literary texts becomes crucial to meet these goals. But, texts contained in the curriculum are different, written at different times and with relatively different language.. The texts of contemporary authors can be understood more easily, since the language used in them is closer to students' linguistic and encyclopaedic competences.

Therefore, curriculum and course program have provided uniform method of text reading, and common goals which should be obtained as a result of communication with these texts. But, *uniform communication* and the same interactive methodology of teaching cannot be uniform as to archaic language of Buzuku, or to the northern Albanian Language idiolect of Fishta. The decoding process will be very difficult and different from each-other. But, once realized, this decoding process will not imply the *reading comprehension*, even though it has been considered for a long time that the successful decoding results in reading comprehension (Fries, 1962). Consequently, it will be quite difficult to get the comprehension skills from the reading process of classic texts if the decoding process would not be supported by asking inferential and critical thinking questions which would challenge and engage the students in the text (RICA, 2008: 13). Not questioning means depriving students of the possibility of extracting the meaning of the text, which based on the bottom-up theory should begin with the smallest parts, often phonetic ones, and continue to the general meaning of the text. Likewise, the children will not be equipped with the necessary language skills and will not be able to expand their judgmental skills. By not communicating with these texts, students will not achieve the course objectives. Not knowing basic forms and discourses of textbooks, readers cannot develop basic communication skills as a required curriculum competency, will not be able to cultivate a sense of *togetherness* and cultivate cultural and national identity.

3.2. Modern course structure

Nowadays, schools are struggling between the traditional concept of learning delivery, on one hand and modern style, which means reforming the existing curriculum and the inclusion of digital content and digital tools in transmission of knowledge to students, on the other hand. The involvement of the 'open online courses' (MOOC's) submits the vision for the next digital school. The contemporary structure of the Albanian Language and Literature course, therefore, must rely on the provision of printed textbooks as basic tools for providing knowledge, but in versions suitable for children, as well as providing additional digital tools. Supporting materials are needed for easy comprehension of the authors of literary texts, especially the classic authors.

As stated here, we note that the idea to read the classics offering students only printed publications ignores technological expectations (i.e. the use of e-publications) and does not meet curricular goals. These auxiliary materials do not "revolutionize" school, a conservative institution that supports the hard changes, nor digitize it, as a result of the use of technology in providing additional knowledge. After all, auxiliary materials have been ever-present in the reading of texts in our past: a glossary, an illustrated book, a page or a printed booklet notes. They create a hypertext based on the content of the courses offered in the curriculum. This has already happened to most of the arts, in which technology, new media,

are increasingly present in the way of transmission / knowledge learning. Literature seems to have remained the only one of the arts which still resists the use of technology in providing knowledge seems. Even for its teaching, additional content which would accompany the basic content of the course is rarely used in schools.

3.2.1. Abridged versions

How can children read the works of classic authors like Barleti or Fishta? Are they prepared to read these works if that is a hardly accessible world, expressed with archaic language? Providing auxiliary materials, such as abridged collections, blogs, dramatic story, games etc., as well as video interviews with different actors or writers, may align these works with students.

Offering abridged versions (shortened versions of books) becomes necessary especially for understanding the content of texts and authors, whose work is hardly understandable. Today it is difficult to find students who have the patience to read "Missal" of Buzuku transliterated into Latin, and even less in its Albanian version.

3.2.2. Digital content

Having mentioned all of the above, the provision of additional materials becomes an immediate need. Through new media, classics of literature can be offered to children in a technologic version, accessible to their imagination and helpful to them in acquiring communication skills. Today the *Skanderbeg History* is not offered to students only in a book format. Besides that, teachers recommend students to watch the movie together, so that they can discuss about it. As a text that reminds them the great history, it can be read by students if it is provided in a language comprehensible to them, accompanied with additional material, throughout which they would be able "to learn, for example, where the famous castle of Sfetigrad can be found today, or to understand how the formations of the army prepared for battle looked like.

3.2.3. Author-specific websites

One of the ways technology can be used to learn the authors' works are the author-specific websites. These sites offer students an opportunity to improve reading and writing skills, using the possibility to learn through modern authors. But, the case is different with the classic authors. In this case, the website should be oriented in knowing the discourses, using the texts and, perhaps, discuss with the writers or literary critics about the ideas, themes and discourses of the classic author.

Conclusions

Analysis of the curricula that provide teaching methods of classic works through the development of shortened versions (abridged versions), as well as digital content, digital media (digital tools), blogs and online gaming seems to be the future of the structure of the Albanian Language and Literature course. Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (MEST) should develop programs and projects to include supporting materials for teaching texts and classic authors (e-schools), as well as provide materials for teachers, which would facilitate communication and presentation of these texts. Today, the *Curriculum Framework* does not specify the methodology of acquiring communication skills as a result of their use. It is necessary to design a new contemporary structure of the course, including the teaching materials. Schools should increase the capacities to use auxiliary materials for teaching works of classic authors.

The "School Me" education program has already provided additional tools for teaching different subjects in schools teaching in Albanian language, from first grade to ninth grade. Through it, students gain the knowledge audio visually. This content can additionally transform not only the methodology of teaching, but can also provide an easier understanding of forms, discourses and ideas of the text (broadcast audio visually), although its content is not yet adapted to the curriculum of lower

secondary school grades. It incorporates the rules of spelling and other language lessons, but lessons for Albanian literature are still not part of the program.

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The Algerian Post-Independence Linguistic Policy - a Recovery of National Identity

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Abstract

The Arabic language and education in Algeria faced hard times under the French occupation and witnessed the dramatic decline of literacy rate among the Algerian population up to independence (1830-1962). Indeed French determined and well-planned history of domination, systematic illiteracy, linguistic and cultural alienation and socio-economic deprivation had a significant impact on the form, pace, direction and purpose of educational strategy options in post-independence Algeria. Accordingly, the planned objectives of Algerian policy were to regain identity, ensure personality growth of the young Algerian generations and lay the ground for the learning of modern technologies in order to participate in the national development and cope with economic demands of the modern world.

Keywords: Post-independence, Algeria, National identity, Linguistic policy.

Introduction

Language is the expression of a Nation's culture as well as a means of communication between peoples. It is also a support for legitimacy in former European colonies. For instance, in the multilingual context of the Maghreb, *several* legitimacies have been associated with different languages. The legitimacy of modernity has been connected with the French language. The Algerian post-independence policy of Arabisation has remained an attempt to transfer this legitimacy to Arabic, the official language of Algeria. The latter had been a French colony for more than a century (1830-1962) and subject to the most aggressive colonial policy of assimilation.

During this colonial era, after she had demolished the Algerian traditional educational systems, France pursued a determined policy to spread the French language through the setting up of schools with competent teachers trained to promote French political and cultural ideas. She ignored the national language and patois of Algeria in her system of education and excluded native culture from curricula in schools. Thus, the educational system provided specificity of the conqueror, a destruction of Algerian personality and cultural identity.

Therefore, once independence, Algeria tried to recover her national linguistic and cultural identity as an Arab Muslim country in which the language of the coloniser, the French, was no longer the imposed official language and a new linguistic policy, "Arabisation" was adopted to allow the Arabic language regain its legitimate place.

The purpose of the present paper is to show how contextual, social constraints have exerted a significant influence on the establishment of the prevailing linguistic situation in Algeria. To what extent could the adopted linguistic policy, highly desired by policy makers and decision holders, be successful in the presence of multiple contextual variables that have marked the Algerian speech community individually and collectively?

I- Colonial Education and Algerian Cultural Alienation:

The relation between culture and education is, indeed, a close and even an organic one as British sociologists – among others – have demonstrated.¹ Through education as a whole process, culture can be transmitted to succeeding generations. Thus, wanting to make Algerians, for instance, heirs of French civilization, France had a complete control on the educational system in Algeria. After she had demolished traditional educational systems there, she imposed French education whose standards and curricula were the same as in France. This policy precisely meant the communication, transmission,

1 M. Crowder, Senegal : A Study in French Assimilation Policy, London : Institute of Race Relations, 1962, p. 1.

acquisition of French knowledge, competences, beliefs, habits and ideals, a fact that would produce "French" Algerians, for instance, in hope that loyalty to France and whose detachment from the local environment would be secured as Algerian culture was excluded from curricula in school. In the latter, Arabic was ranked as foreign language. Besides, the teaching in these schools made no reference to Algeria as an African country and concentrated on French civilization, history and grandeur. "The French system [of education] was much more concerned with persuading children of the virtues of the colonial system and French culture".¹

For instance, in conformity with the law 1883, France extended the virtues of the new schooling-system which emerged in France and with which the name of Jules Ferry was associated "laïcité, gratuité, and caractère obligatoire".² Moreover, the 1892 decree, forbade to the Koranic schools to accept children during class-hours. Added to this, an official authorization was prerequisite if these Koranic schools were to receive children before or after their school-hours. The teaching of Arabic was officially reduced to two hours and half per week, and in most cases, this was badly organized.³ In other words, Arabic was taught as a foreign language. This new schooling system was obviously aimed at complete destruction of the Arabic language and Algerian cultural identity. It was the main tool French colonial ideology used to perfect the establishment of French cultural heritage, through the conquest of the minds, in other words, through "the spirit" as advocated by Napoleon I in his twilight reflections at St. Helena.⁴

Thus, whenever possible, in their imperialist expansion and thereafter, French leaders adopted both force and cultural penetration. Despite their use of the sword, they never neglected the importance of cultural invasion in view of the lasting results this could ensure. As a French deputy asked his colleagues in the 1900 : "What political operations or armed invasions was ever able, with less expense, to produce such important and lasting results ?".⁵ Having had as their ultimate objective the cultural and political integration of the Algerian people, the French were aggressive in this colony as were in all their colonies.⁶ Their policy was particularly guided by Napoleon III who realized after his defeat in the Franco-Prussian War the implications and potential involved in Napoleon I's intentions as he became aware of the usefulness of the cultural component to spread Influence.⁷ Thus, French education stood as a major channel through which culture could exert influence and allow the conqueror to achieve his ultimate goal, domination. In this context, the Governor of Algeria (1832-1833), Duc de Rovigo, declared that he saw in the propagation of education and the French language an efficient instrument to dominate Algeria.⁸

Thus, conceived as a threat to the Algerian own cultural and identity *values*, the French colonial imposed policy in Algeria met a strong opposition from the native population. For instance, parents refused to send their children to French schools, a fact that urged the French authorities to think of a more or less "flexible" policy to convince Algerian educated elite to cooperate as mediators between the French military authorities and the local population. For instance, in 1950, to achieve their control through education, the colonial power in Algeria reintroduced the pre-colonial model of Medersas (public schools) to train the Algerian preachers of the mosques, judges of the courts of justice and teachers of Arabic. However, within the colonial imposed education, the French language was introduced as a main subject. At that time, there were three Medersas in Algeria : one in the capital city of Algiers, the second one in the East of Algeria, Constantine and the third one in the West of Algeria, Tlemcen. All of the three public schools were under the control of the colonial power.

1 Ibid, p. 378.

2 O. Carlier, F. Colonna, A. Djeghloul and M. El-Korso, *Lettrés, Intellectuels et Militants en Algérie 1888-1950*, Alger : Office des Publications Universitaires : 04-88, p. 6.

3 Idem.

4 "I have been forced to conquer Europe by the sword, he who comes after will conquer it by the spirit. For the spirit is always more powerful than the sword". Quoted in P. H. Coombs, *The Fourth Dimension of Foreign Policy : Educational and Cultural Affairs*, New York : Harper and Row, 1964, p. 79.

5 Idem.

6 M. Crowder, *op. cit* p. 1.

7 P. H. Coombs, *op. cit*.

8 Le Duc de Rovigo (Governor of Algeria 1832-33) "Je regarde la propagation de l'instruction et de notre langue comme le moyen le plus efficace de faire des progrès à notre domination dans ce pays". Quoted in M. Benrabah. *Langues et Pouvoir en Algérie : Histoire d'un Traumatisme Linguistique*, Paris : Edition Séguiet, 1999, p. 44.

Such colonial linguistic strategy meant instruct in order to control. This colonial motto was embodied in the institution of bilingual schools ; hence, Arabic, French colleges. The latter's number was 36 between 1850 and 1870. Therefore, in 1876, the administration of the public schools (Medersas) was delegated to civilians with close control to avoid the spread of awareness in concerns like equality, freedom and other human rights that were not respected by the colonial administration. This French fear of the spread of awareness was manifested by the General Governor of Algeria, Tirman who, in 1876, estimated that the hostility of the indigenous population (the colonised people) was measured to the degree of their instruction.¹

Thus, a colonial decree of 1895 made compulsory for all candidates to the function of preachers, judges and teachers to have training at the newly settled Medersas in which the French language learning was deeply consolidated. This imposed measure resulted in a gradual multiplication of bilingual institutions expected to prepare and train collaborators and mediators for the French colonial administration. Yet, this colonial imposed cultural model continued to be resisted by the Algerians.

II- The Algerian Resistance to Cultural Alienation:

By the end of the nineteenth century, the French cultural model continued to meet resistance from the Algerians. Some of the honourable families manifested their resistance by exile to the Middle East and the remaining majority preferred illiteracy rather than cultural alienation. Indeed, a harsh opposition and struggle was led by the Algerian educated elite against the French colonial educational policy. The majority of those elite were armed with pre-colonial education they acquired in Koranic schools and Medersas of the time. They were deeply nourished with their native culture, a fact that allowed them to manifest a constant resistance against the colonial system. The latter, thus, encouraged generalisation of schooling, guaranteeing job only to individuals having been graded from the colonial educational institutions. Yet, the local population continued to see in the colonial schooling system a real threat for their cultural values and uncertain professional future and social promotion.

This Algerian clinging to their language led the colonial power to review its attitude towards the Arabic language. The latter, in theory, was given a status through an official article in 1947. It stated that Arabic constituted one of the languages of the French union and the teaching of Arabic in Algeria was to be organised.² Yet, although the national movements gained some acknowledgement on behalf of the colonial administration, the French language remained outstandingly the main outcome of a long-established colonial system of education. As a matter of fact, many Algerian writers profited from their mastery of the French language and delivered their denouncements in the language of the coloniser. For instance, the end of the nineteenth century registered the emergence of the first publications by Algerian writers in the French language. These were mainly in form of essays and descriptions of the inhuman reality lived by Algerians. Far from any rebellion and opposition, the content called for equality and justice. Thirteen novels and three short stories were published by Algerian writers in French between 1920 and 1949. However, from 1947 onwards, the pacific tendency of the Algerian writers changed to cause a complete maturity of the political awareness. In fact, this change was mainly provoked by the slaughter committed by the colonial army in the eastern part of Algeria, namely in Setif, Guelma and Kherrata, on the 8th May, 1945 in which 45,000 Algerians were killed while they were manifesting peacefully to remind France of her promise to give them their rights and independence if they fought for her in the Second World War (1939-1945). Those Algerian writers, who witnessed the horrors committed by the French in Algeria, denounced the colonial exploitation and the linguistic deprivation causing poverty and cultural alienation.

The cultural and linguistic conflict between the two different nations was obvious in the clear cut difference of extremely opposed civilizations, ways of life and identity traits. At the same time, the Algerian elite acknowledged that their constant resistance to the French schooling system constituted an obstacle for their emancipation. The French language, in fact, could be instrumentalised to denounce the colonial injustice, acquire knowledge and information and serve as a tool for salvation. Thus, it became prerequisite to acquire the attributes of the colonial system, namely language and culture, to prepare a fruitful struggle and face the enemy using his own weapons. In this context, one of the prominent Algerian literary

1 Quoted by M. Benrabah, *ibid*, p. 51.

2 *Ibid*, p. 59.

men of French expression, Kateb Yacine claimed that at that particular time, he felt it necessary to speak French even better than the French themselves in order to convince them that Algerians were not French.¹

III- Post-Independence Algerian Educational Situation and A New Linguistic Policy:

The resistance of Algerians to the colonial system of education increased illiteracy which reached ninety percent among the Algerian population at Independence in 1962. In 1969-70, sixty three percent of men and eighty five percent of the women remained illiterate.² Indeed, the schooling rate had been very low because the consequences of the French colonialism and seven years of bloody war in Algeria were disastrous. Some of the major results of the Algerian 1954 Revolutionary War included "8,000 villages were destroyed ; 1,000,000 dead ; 2,000,000 displaced ; 400,000 refugees ; hundreds of thousands interned and prisoners".³ Moreover, the French massive withdrawal population had damaged the structure of the Algerian economy and administration. Indeed, "the hand-over of power was not carried out in due and regular order".⁴ The absolute break between the old and new administration handicapped the normal functioning of the country which lacked technical staff, equipment and, most important, trained administrators.⁵ Algerian leaders were conscious that industrialization could only be achieved through education. Thus, the latter received a quarter of the Algerian national budget and 11 percent of the investment programme under the Four Year Plan (1970-73).⁶ This recognition of the key role education enjoyed in the Algerian Four Year Plan allowed "an impressive rate of expansion at all levels.... For example, the number of secondary school pupils... more than doubled to a total of 420,000".⁷ In fact, the recovery of the Algerian identity remained a crucial issue to achieve.

Indeed, at Independence, the prevailing linguistic situation needed a strong will and a political commitment to know a new direction that reflects the Algerian cultural identity that the French colonialism eradicated by imposing the French language and culture. For instance, the French language was among the languages of daily use in the newly independent Algeria. While Algerian Arabic, Berber in some areas and French were daily used, the classical Arabic was only used in Medersas. Consequently, the eradication of the French language and the administration of the Arabic language as an important pillar foundation of the Arab-Muslim Algerian nation became an objective in itself, President Houari Boumediene (1965-1978) was determined to achieve. This political leader who studied at Zitouna (Tunisia) and Al Azhar (Egypt) was well-equipped with a strong personality, an Arabic and Islamic culture, and a political will to lay down decrees and orders for the uprooting of the foreign cultural and linguistic prints France deeply cultivated in Algeria during the colonial era. His claim had a purely an Arab-Muslim dimension. Indeed, the exclusion of what remained of the colonial era was strongly felt, particularly when the linguistic policy of Arabisation was established.

Language remains the symbol of social interaction and daily communication. Aiming at a more and efficient practical social control, the Algerian Government opted for the policy of Arabisation. Thus, the Ministry of Education's intervention in the process of Arabisation resulted in a direct redefinition of a linguistic planning. There were three main levels where the government's interference, of course through the Ministry of Education, was apparent. The first one was related to the teaching methods; the second one had to do with the institution of the Classical Arabic in a functional parameter ; the third level was embodied in the linguistic lay out, namely the technical spheres in which the language was structured.

In her post-independence struggle against ignorance and illiteracy in order to progress, Algeria made schooling compulsory. This, in fact, increased the number of schooling pupils. For instance, during the decade 1965-75, the schooling rate significantly raised. In primary level, the number of enrolled pupils doubled from 1,200,000 to 2,750,000 ; in secondary schools, the number increased from 100,000 to 450,000 ; and at university level, the number of students augmented from 7000 to 50,000. The educational system registered the Arabisation of the first years of the Primary school. In this context, the British Council reported : "complete Arabisation remain[ed] the long-term aim, but it [was] not being rushed through,

1 Ibid, p. 67.

2 BW10/11, Restricted, The British Council Algeria Representative's Annual Report 1969-70, 1970, p. 2.

3 BW10/11, Confidential, Visit to Algeria, April 24-May 7, 1963, Report by Mr. C. W. Fyfield - Representative Designate, 24 May 1963, p.2

4 Ibid,

6 BW10/11, Restricted, The British Council Algeria Representative's Annual Report 1970-71, 1971, p. 1.

7 BW10/11, Restricted, The British Council Algeria Representative's Annual Report 1972-73, 1973, p. 1.

and it [was] still only in the first two years of the primary course that Arabic [was] the language of instruction".¹ The remaining years continued to receive instruction in the French language. This process had to be gradual to encourage Arabisation year after year and pave the way for the elimination of bilingual classes from primary and middle schools, then from the higher education levels. At the university level, this new linguistic policy was adopted in Humanities and other fields but met difficulties to be extended to the medical and scientific studies. Yet the Government carried on exerting pressure to impose this policy. For instance, the National Pedagogical Institute for Printing Books was instructed to favour the printing of books written in Arabic to those written in French. This, in fact, aimed at the devaluation of the French language in an attempt to uproot what the coloniser planted.

In the same context, the post-independence administration took measures to weaken the status of the French language in the educational system. Thus, from 1962 to 2004, the Algerian pupils started to study the French language at the fourth year level in primary school. In addition to this, a new process named "linguistic cleaning" was started to change, whenever possible, terms and labeling from French to Arabic. By so doing, the Algerian administration consolidated the process of Arabisation. For instance, all the names of streets and important amenities the colonial administration imposed, during the colonial era, were changed into Arabic-origin names taken from the Algerian historical patrimony. As illustrations, Street Michelet became Didouche Mourad and Street Isly became Larbi Ben M'Hidi. This environmental and social context's Arabisation strengthened the position of classical Arabic. Yet, the proportion of francophone Algerian population remained significant. For instance, it was estimated to 49 percent (27,3 million inhabitants) in 1993 and was expected to reach 67 percent by 2003.²

Thus, despite the tremendous efforts Algeria devoted to make of Arabisation a successful process in the quickest possible time, the French language continued to exert an influence on the Algerian society. Several factors contributed to maintain that expansion. Among these one can refer to the number of Algerian emigrants in France. More than 800,000 emigrants in France, in tight relation with their families and relatives in Algeria helped the promotion of the French language. In the same context, the French Magazine, 'Esprit', estimated that 9 to 12 million Algerians were among the French TV channels (TF1, France 2, Canal +, ...) watchers.³

On the other hand, the colonial educational shaping of the educator, the text-book and the teaching model contributed to lower proficiency in the Arabic language. Post 1962 teacher lacked competence, academic training and motivation as well as academic qualifications in terms of pedagogy of teaching. Besides, the provided text-books were characterized by disparities. For instance, in 1966, the Ministry of Education reported that pupils at Secondary School level lacked the rudimentary components of a basis in classical Arabic. To remedy this alarming educational situation, it was conceived that Algerian teachers would better teach Algerian pupils, since they could understand pupils using their mother tongue, to reach the needs and interests of the Algerian population of learners. Besides this, their knowledge of the Algerian context could be instrumental. Hence, teachers from the Middle East were gradually thanked to leave their posts for Algerians. For instance, in 1969, there were 1500 Egyptian teachers in Algeria.

As to the problem of disparity in text-books, the option was to guarantee their uniformity. Yet, the absence of specified methods in the process of teaching Classical Arabic was a serious pedagogical problem in newly independent Algeria. In this context, in 1973, Taleb Ibrahim (the then Minister of Culture and previously Minister of National Education in 1965) claimed that the Arabisation as a fundamental option constituted an objective that required precision.⁴ This lack of objectivity was the result of the post-independence ideological choice of Arabisation and political will that wanted to detach Algeria from France by distinguishing Algerian teaching from what it used to be during the colonial era.⁵

However, the favoured treatment Algeria has always manifested towards the educational field by devoting an important portion of her national budget was not enough to solve the shortage of teachers which the continually growing population made even more difficult. For instance, the population growth was up over 3 percent a year.⁶

1 BW10/11, op. cit, 1971, p. 2.

2 P. Rosillon, Atlas de la Langue Française, Paris : Bordas, 1995, p. 91.

3 Esprit, "La Politique Française de Coopération vis-à-vis de l'Algérie : Un Quiproquo Tragique", in Esprit, n° 208, Janvier 1995, p. 59.

4 A. T. Ibrahim, De la Décolonisation à la Révolution Culturelle, Alger : SNED, 1973, p. 94.

5 Ibid, p. 97.

6 BW10/11, op. cit, 1971, p. 1.

Conclusion

The use of the French language has been historically, linguistically socially and practically an accepted reality among Algerians. In spite of the massive process of Arabisation, the proportion of the francophone population remained significant. The francophone population is in constant increase particularly as the current political administration does not block the private educational institutions, where the French language is taught even from the pre-school year, to grow and extend. Thus, if Algeria succeeded to obtain her political independence after seven years of bloody war, her linguistic independence requires a longer time of deep, hard, professional, objective and scientific work.

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The Influence of Indian Literary-Philosophical and Religious Works on the Eastern Literature

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Abstract

The religious and philosophical elements expressed in ancient Indian literature have had great influences on world literature. One notable example is the ancient Indian piece, "Panchatantra". This magnificent written work of world literature has become one of the most famous and influential works in the development of the European and Asian story genre. The Indian masterpiece has also influenced the Arabic-American immigration writer, Kahlil Gibran. Thus, the impress of Indian scripture can be seen in many of Gibran's works such as "The Prophet". The philosophical and religious teachings of the "Bhagavad Gita" have had an impactful role in M. Naimy's development as an Arabic immigration writer. Mikhail Naimy, a poet, writer and a literary critic, was one of the prominent representatives of the early 21st century Arab-American immigrant literature. When conveying the idea of wholeness and unity between an individual soul and God in his work, "The Book of Mirdad", the author used different religious and philosophical sources including the ancient Indian scripture Bhagavat-Gita. The concepts such as an eternal soul, "I", a God's messenger are very similar in "The Book of Mirdad" and the Indian religious-philosophical teachings. M.Naimy has accentuated the importance of issues that reflect many of the ancient Indian beliefs expressed in the "Bhagavad Gita" including the material sides of world and divinity, vision, soul, and spirit. The ancient Indian beliefs of "The People are Raised to the God's level" are distinctively reflected by M. Naimy in his novel "The Book of Mirdad".

Keywords: Mikhail Naimy, "The Book of Mirdad", Bhagavat-Gita, God,

Introduction

Being ancient and rich enough, Indian literature, literary-philosophical views and ancient Indian beliefs have impacted world literature in a variety of ways throughout history that Eastern and Western men of letters benefited from those sources to a great extent. Indian sources have widely spread and influenced world literature in Eastern and Western aspects. Literal works and philosophical sources of the Eastern world, particularly, nations of the Near East, Turkish, Arab and others incomparably paved the ways for Indian sources to come into prominence over the whole globe. First and foremost, ancient Indian collection of fables, proverbs, anecdotes, stories - "Panchatantra" which dates back to the 3rd-4th centuries significantly influenced the Eastern and Western literature with its didactic nature. This magnificent piece turned into one of the most well-known works having led to bring about profound effects on the development of European and Asian story genre. "Pachatantra", however, was translated into the Arabic during the reign of Khosrow Anushiravan I, the celebrated leader of The Sasanian Empire (Iran), unfortunately, it failed to survive until now. As soon as the Indian masterpiece was translated into the Arabic in the mid-8th century, it immediately affected the way Near Eastern literature developed, obviously, formed the rich basis for literal thought and genre. Afterwards, Abdullah Ibn al Muqaffa skilfully supplemented the missing parts and completed the work with its Arabic translation- "Khalilah wa Dimnah". Being not only a translation, but with a variety of genres and amazing essence reflecting Indian spirit, it eventually took its unprecedented place in world literature. Additionally, "Pachatantra" was translated into more than 60 European and Asian languages over 200 times¹. In this regard, the splendid Indian literal piece of art impressed Azerbaijani literature as well as vast majority of the Eastern people – Turkish, Arab, Persian and others.

¹Гринцер, П.А. (1984). Классическая древнеиндийская литература. История всемирной литературы, II т., М., Наука, /26-66/, 41.

On the other hand, Indian resources gained popularity in the West through the writers travelled to India and settled down there in recent centuries of the world civilization.

As the classical heritage was enthusiastically studied and new attitudes were getting shaped towards culture in the 20th century, Indian literature and religious-philosophical views aroused a striking interest again in this period. Furthermore, well-known writers of Arab immigration literature welcomed the Indian literary contributions in their works, specifically those who lived in the USA, Gibran Kahlil Gibran and Mikhail Naimy. While both Christian writers adroitly took advantage of religious elements in Islam, Christianity, Sufism philosophical teachings, Eastern and Western literature and philosophy schools, they worked up original themes, transformed ideas, created up-to-date motives based on ancient Indian literature and religious-philosophical thoughts. It is important to note that aforementioned authors did not simply refer to certain Indian sources in their works, rather they tended to use the synthesis of those elements ingeniously. Namely, they pointed to the nuances that were of different sources but the same perception in the similar way where religions, philosophical views, cultures have a lot in common in terms of congruent concepts. Yet, some comparable ideas in "The Prophet", "Words of Gibran" by G.K. Gibran were derived from "Khalilah wa Dimnah", M. Naimy accentuated the importance of issues that reflected many of the ancient Indian beliefs expressed in the "Bhagavad Gita" and combined delicately with the thoughts originated from Sufism. This article elaborately focuses on the aspects correlating with Indian beliefs in M. Naimy's novel "The Book of Mirdad".

1. M. Naimy as one of famous Arab immigration writers

Mikhail Naimy, a poet, writer and a literary critic, was one of the prominent representatives of the early 21st century Arab-American immigrant literature. Arab immigration literature which is commonly known as "An Nahda" – the renaissance period¹ in Arab literature has brought quite new trends to the well-rooted and rich Arabian culture. Apparently, Arab immigration literature has been formed on the literary traditions of the new stage - 19th century Arab literature absorbing its own national background and global literary-philosophical tendency. M. Naimy, the philosopher and writer made practical use of various philosophical heritages and cultures of the both Eastern and Western world and illustrated them in his literary creation in a unique manner. "The Book of Mirdad" (1946) is of great importance in M. Naimy's literary legacy written in English, as well. M. Naimy has highlighted the significance of issues that mirror the material sides of the world and divinity, vision, soul and spirit. Within the framework of these issues, M. Naimy also cited several religious, religious-philosophical and philosophical teachings in one of those crucial scriptures - "Bhagavad Gita" in which most of ancient Indian beliefs were written down.

2. Similarities between "The Book of Mirdad" and "Bhagavad Gita"

"Bhagavad Gita", one part of "Mahabharata" was composed 5000 years ago based on the dialogue between God and Lord Krishna's companion and bouncer Arjuna in the Sanskrit language. Today, it is widely admitted as a set of philosophical and religious teachings which inspires people to reach the utmost spiritual level of perfectness. Undoubtedly, the philosophical and religious influence of "Bhagavad Gita" can clearly be seen in M. Naimy's literary works. As for the both – the ancient Indian beliefs and M. Naimy's outlook, the common characteristic is the idea of "lifting the people up to the God's level"².

a) The "Prophet" concept

In the chapter "The Bound Abbot" of the book, there at the top of As and Lebanon mountains, at the Altar Peak remains the wreck of Ark dating back to Noah's time based on a legend. According to the legend, when dying prophet Noah, in his last will and testament he ordered to build the Ark and bid his son Sam and "nine chosen people": "I bid you, my son, to build an altar upon the highest peak in these mountains, which peak shall henceforth be known as Altar Peak. Upon that altar I propose to offer my last thanks offering. And from the fire I shall kindle thereon I bid you keep a light perpetually burning. As to the house, you shall make of it a sanctuary for a small community of chosen men whose number shall never exceed nine, nor ever be less than nine. They shall be known as Ark Companions. They shall not leave the sanctuary, but shall be cloistered therein all their days, practicing all the austerities of the Mother Ark, keeping the fire of faith burning and

¹ İmanquliyeva, A. (2003). Yeni ərəb ədəbiyyatı korifeyləri, Bakı, Elm, 13.

² Güngören, 1. (1981). Buda ve öğretisi, Ankara, Yol yayınları, 42.

calling unto The Highest for guidance to themselves and to their fellow-men."¹ There were 8 people in the Ark, the last one to be the 9th in the community was Mirdad who was depicted as a messenger representing "I" concept in close relation to "Bhagavad Gita" as a figure of God and as for M. Naimy the one conveying prophet ideology. Likewise, for the orientalist A. Imanguliyeva, Mirdad bears a striking resemblance with a prophet owning a perfect character more than a simple person might have. In the novel Noah talks Sam about the 9th man in the Ark: "Behold, I revealed unto you a great secret, my son. The ninth person was a stowaway, known and seen by me alone. He was my constant companion and my helmsman. Ask me no more of him, but fail not to make room for him in your sanctuary. These are my wishes, Sam, my son. See you to them?"² In times when the men forget Noah's words, the Ark and lusts and wickedness they bring on, become no longer mindful about the Faith, Mirdad arrives in the long run. Certainly, the motives involving "when mankind are no more mindful of faith, prophets come back" are as vivid as they are in Islam, Christianity and ancient Indian beliefs. "We were already swallowed down by the female lion of ignorance, whereas, God's mercy for the living for especially men is infinite. So, for that reason He chose His companion Arjuna as His apprentice and recited Bhagavad Gita. As being the companion of God, Arjuna stood out above the ignorance in all ways. However, he was left in such a desperate situation in Kurukshetra battlefield that he would shed light on the daily problems when people asked Krishna. Thus, having gone through these, God wanted men to ask Krishna for solutions and Arjuna to be obliged to clear them up for favor of next generations."³

"Bhagavad Gita" assures that getting in touch with those who sethign and moral integrity like Krishna and revealing the secret about God are as necessary as "listening to God himself."⁴ In the same way, Mirdad, in the novel by M.Naimy, is the central character undertaking the mission – to tell the secret of God to the people when they ended up losing divine love and became worldly-minded. Moreover, the stranger with pathetic appearance, "famished and covered with wounds" asks to join the community centuries after Noah's death and who takes the control of the Ark's wheel – Mirdad resembles rebirth of soul in ancient Indian beliefs. It is stated in the "Bhagavad Gita" (Chapter 4, Text 5): "God, The Almighty, said: "O man defeating all his enemies! We were born together with you many times; I remember them all, but you not."⁵ For the ancient Indian piece of art, the soul reincarnates in various bodies as it undergoes a 3-stage-development consisting childhood, adolescence and senescence in body everlastingly⁶.

b) "I" concept

M.Naimy believes the word "I" is a perfect word: "To feel Himself; to think Himself; to speak Himself God need not utter more than I. Therefore, is I His only word. Therefore, is it THE WORD."⁷

M.Naimy doesn't mean lexical perfectness of the word in a sentence as a method conveying the idea, but the word "I" is perfect mainly because it conveys the meaning of God: "For understanding is the Spirit Holy that vivifies the Word, and binds it unto Consciousness. It is the rider-beam of the balance Eternal whose two pans are the Primal Consciousness and the Word⁸."

The Arabian writer, therefore, considers human self as the manifestation of God's self and as a bearer of the holy spirit. In Naimy's view, "I" itself is both creative and creature, from this perspective, he reasons existence of the spiritual bond between God and human. Drawing the analogy, "Like the Creator, like the creature."⁹ Naimy stresses the divine layer in the human spirit. He points the fact out that human beings are inclined to aspire for ephemeral, worldly things with their egos, on the other hand: "Many satans exist there in the world you live, you yourselves have created them"¹⁰. "I" is the core of everything in your world and source of everything you own in your life. As long as the core is sustained, your world will be sustained. Anything under the sun, nor in the heavens is able to destroy your harmony. But when it appears today

¹Naimy, M. (1993). The book of Mirdad, New York, Arkana penguin books, 10.

²Naimy, M. (1993). The book of Mirdad, New York, Arkana penguin books, 10.

³Bhaqavad-qita olduđu kimi. (1991). Bhaktiviedanta Buk Trast, 24.

⁴Ibid, 219.

⁵Ibid, 201.

⁶Ibid, 94.

⁷Naimy, M. (1993). The book of Mirdad, New York, Arkana penguin books, 41.

⁸Ibid, 41.

⁹Ibid, 296.

¹⁰Naimy, M. (1993). The book of Mirdad, New York, Arkana penguin books, 296.

here, tomorrow there and the other day in another place, then your world is doomed to collapse sooner or later.¹ M. Naimy heeds the significance of constant and perfect faith and preaches the men to be aware of the feeble sides of human ego. In like manner, it is noted in "Bhagavad Gita" (Chapter 8, Text 7): "You definitely will reach me dedicating your whole self, life and cognition to Me."²

Arabian writer indicates the necessity of having an absolute understanding which denotes the spiritual ties between God and manifestation of God in what he created. "God knows with His Conscious that everything He created is the Whole³". Naimy thinks of God - "I", as being immortal and eternal, nevertheless, for man he mentions the shortcomings of his "I" giving the example of a particle and the Whole. Because, he is weak and incapable as engulfed in "birth and death"⁴ "Remember that the Word is one. And you, as syllables in The Word, are in reality but one."⁵ In the old Indian scripture, "Bhagavad Gita" (Chapter 2, Text 6) the same opinions were clearly mentioned: "Saints achieve eternal peace and perfectness indeed who are those can see the God deeper inside and outside of everything."⁶ In the same book, (Chapter 9, "The Most Confidential Knowledge", Text 6) the unity between God and man is described distinctively: "Like the mighty wind always in the world, indeed, all the living things are inside Me."⁷

M. Naimy believes that struggling with one's ego and triumphing over it is the only way to preserve the unity with "I" and pay respect to God's spirit. Getting rid of material handicaps "I" of man gets the opportunity to become one in God's. "Throw the swaddles away which swaddle your "I" and only then you will be able to see the Word akin to His, the Word that everything got the origin from it and only then you will see everything in harmony and peace within one syllable."⁸ "Bhagavad Gita" (Chapter 2, "Gita's Summary", Text 55) explains the method of reaching perfect identity by leaving material pleasure of man's ego: "God, the Almighty said: "O Partha, whenever man clears the indulgence outfabricated by mind, his mind becomes clear. And he takes the first step to be pleased in his self, now, he is in the pure transcendental consciousness."⁹ "Bhagavad Gita" presents the idea of perfectness in man's personality who never adheres to good or bad things; neither aspires for them nor hates them. The man succeeding this independence of self refers to the state of person who has already reached the perfect knowledge.¹⁰

The arrival of Mirdad aims to restore the deranged divine balance between God and man as all the prophets were assigned to. However, Naimy's Mirdad has one more peculiar mission besides teaching people their responsibilities and delivering God's words. It is to "represent God in man"¹¹.

Naimy's fundamental "I" concept is mainly expressed in these thoughts. Arab writer regards man as "bearer of the world in his "I" who is the greatest reflection of God. When Naimy says "When with men, I am a god. When with God, I am a man."¹²

In "The Book of Mirdad" he gives vent to his own opinions of "I" concept where he presents his views certainly about God not he means "man is a god." Naimy asserts "I", "Word" and "Consciousness" is the trinity of being and he calls it "the perfect balance". He says that but people name this balance - "God". As the burden of word is inside the meaning of it, Naimy takes to deliver the faith to the existence of nonmaterial and invisible God upon himself. Thus, he puts the sacred

¹ Naimy, M. (1993). The book of Mirdad, New York, Arkana penguin books.

² Bhaqavad-qita olduđu kimi. (1991). Bhaktivedanta Buk Trast, 366.

³ Naimy, M. (1993). The book of Mirdad. New York, Arkana penguin books, 45.

⁴ Ibid, 46.

⁵ Ibid, 47.

⁶ Bhaqavad-qita olduđu kimi. (1991). Bhaktivedanta Buk Trast, 92.

⁷ Ibid, 398.

⁸ Naimy, M. (1993). The book of Mirdad. New York, Arkana penguin books, 307.

⁹ Bhaqavad-qita olduđu kimi. (1991). Bhaktivedanta Buk Trast, 137.

¹⁰ Ibid, 138.

¹¹ Naimy, M. (1993). The book of Mirdad. New York, Arkana penguin books, 52.

¹² Ibid, 50.

essence of words to use and explains the sincerity and perfectness of them in this regard. With his own method, Naimy demonstrates his faith to God's existence: "God is a holy name. Thus, thoughts he made holy are holy. So what if man is not a manifestation of God? Then of whose it would be? May be man is different from God itself? Does not a whole wood hide in the oak? Does not God spread around and embrace the soul of man?"

Common aspects of Naimy's thoughts in Mirdad's words "When with men, I am a god. When with God, I am a man."¹ with "Bhagavad Gita" (Chapter 4, "Transcendental Knowledge", Text 7) are uttered: "Son of Bhatra! Whenever the religion falls down, wickedness emerges, then I appear."² In the statement, God is supposed to appear with His own nature mirroring man when people neglect the faith. Like Mirdad's role in the novel holding the wheel of Noah's Ark during the Flood and his arrival after many years is closely linked with the ideas in the religious-philosophical teaching.

c) "God" concept

M. Naimy shows monotheism forth: "God is not many. God is one. But many and divers are yet men's shadows. So long as men cast shadows on the earth, so long is each man's god no greater than his shadow. The shadow-less only are all in the light. The shadow-less only know one god. For god is Light, and Light alone is able to know Light."³

M. Naimy thinks man is a being who shades the earth but under a borrowed light of himself. But those who harbor God's light within their hearts, they will be enlightened by God's light shaking off the shades. Hence, shades symbolize the material world's manacles and represent the controversy among those "clung in their shades" and "glimmering with understanding".⁴ So, Mirdad intends to agglomerate the shades and free the people from the world's cage and help them to realize their enlightenment with their divine lights. In Naimy's views, it is the sole way to cognize the reality: "As the Light of God beams over you, then all the secrets will seem you with its ins and outs with no need of evidence."⁵

Mirdad was represented as a man bearer of the God's light. He is the chosen one who already freed from the "shell" of the material world.⁶ Therefore, differs from others "When with men, I am a god. When with God, I am a man."⁷ Naimy, like it is the same as in other religions and religious-philosophical teachings supports the idea of the unity of all things and God, togetherness of the particle and the Whole: "What name can ever designate a Man who is no longer 'in the shell'? What country can contain a Man in whom a universe is contained? What ancestry can claim a Man whose only ancestor is God?"⁸ . All these words clarify Naimy's sense of God and the mission of Mirdad.

Monotheism perception like other heavenly religions is the subject matter for "Bhagavad Gita". Despite the fact that there are still controversies whether it is so or not, the texts of the olden scripture confirm the truth about its monotheistic character. "To worship other goddesses or serve them is not lawful." Another fact reaffirms it: "Of whose cognizances were stolen by worldly wishes devote themselves to goddesses and practice rituals conforming to their nature." (Chapter 7, Verse 20) It directly refers to the idea that the people who are under captivity of their passions, they praise not Krishna but other goddesses... Krishna is the greatest satisfaction and in the holy book, it is said that God is the source of all satisfaction or its treasure."⁹ In the novel, Mirdad speaks on Naimy's behalf implying that "There are not gods, but there are gods that worldly-minded people themselves made them up.": "Shades of man are various. As long as man casts a shadow over the earth, his God will step parallel to his shade."

In Naimy's interpretation of man-God relations, it is openly understood that the views writer referred to man's dedication to God, came from "Bhagavad Gita". The ancient Indian belief promotes to serve God with transcendental love and leave the earth-born ambitions and likings. "Dhananjaya! Serve God faithfully, stay away from hideous acts. They are ungenerous who are delighted with the outcomes of what they have done." (Chapter 2, Text 49)¹⁰ According to the ancient Indian beliefs,

¹ Naimy, M. (1993). The book of Mirdad, New York, Arkana penguin books, 50.

² Bhaqavad-qita olduđu kimi. (1991). Bhaktivedanta Buk Trast, 204.

³ Naimy, M. (1993). The book of Mirdad, New York, Arkana penguin books, 51.

⁴ Ibid, 51.

⁵ Ibid, 309.

⁶ Ibid, 309.

⁷ Ibid, 309.

⁸ Ibid, 309.

⁹ Bhaqavad-qita olduđu kimi. (1991). Bhaktivedanta Buk Trast, 33.

¹⁰ Ibid, 131.

the wise saved their lives from counter-effects of their deeds they did in the material world by help of serving Godloyally.¹ For Vedas dedication of man to God is the most essential religiousprinciple.

Conclusion

In the final analysis, it is apparent that the plot basically covers the life of people around prophet Noah and what happened years after the Flood. The writer takes the advantage of the story in terms of writing his own thoughts up by means of the events and in the person of Mirdad he masterfully interprets the unity of God and man. What combines the ancient Indian beliefs with Mirdad is to overcome the untruthful ego and level up the pure consciousness. Herein, Mirdad serves for the moral progress of the mankind and purifying the cognizance of people. Supporting the idea of equality of people in the face of God, M.Naimy sought common traits between Prophet Muhammad and Prophet Jesus, as well as he benefited from the concepts of "I" and "God" in old Indian beliefs.

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¹ Bhaqavad-qita olduğu kimi. (1991). Bhaktivedanta Buk Trast, 135.

Understanding Students' Perspective and Use of Technology for Language Learning at Islamic Boarding School

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Abstract

Pesantren or Islamic Boarding school is one of the oldest Islamic Institutions in Indonesia, home to the the largest muslim population in the world. There are two types of *pesantren*, traditional (salafi) and modern (khalaf). In selected modern *pesantren*, students are obliged to communicate in Arabic and/ or English language as a part of their bilingual program. The implementation of English in daily conversation requires students to acquire high level of English proficiency. The purpose of this study is to provide insight of ESL acquisition and practice, technology use to enhance language learning, and future enhancement of language learning through students' lenses. The writer distributed questionnaire and conducted focus group discussion to thirty Darul Ulum Islamic Boarding School students. The findings showed that while there are restrictions on the use of technology devices in *pesantren*, half of students feel that they have sufficient exposure to English through traditional teaching program. However, many students acknowledge that they have limited vocabulary that addresses to their daily lives, thus they would like to find more resources that accommodate this needs. Finally, based on the findings, this paper suggests that *pesantren* allows for more access to technology devices and diverse resources of ESL as well as availability of librarian or experts that can help students to use technology for learning efficiently.

Keywords: *pesantren*, ESL, bilingual program, student's perspective

1. Introduction

Undoubtedly, almost every child today is sufficiently adept with using technology—digital natives, many term. Almost every child becomes aware of technology devices. They have never known a life without technology and technology devices now become integral part of their lives and they are using them for almost all purposes, including education.

Technology in learning has brought change to education paradigm (Linto, 2015). Education now comes in many forms such as online, blended, and collaborative learning. These changes leverage students' digital skills and prepare them to be a part of digital millennia. In English Language Learning (ELL) scheme, specifically, successful integration of technology will lead to collaborative, autonomous, and active student-centered learning cycle (Linto, 2015; Sung & Yeh, 2012). Students become active participants and researchers (Taylor and Gitsaki, 2003) with access to abundant and diverse resources and information. Research in computer-assisted language learning (CALL) has suggested that computer technologies indeed facilitate processes beneficial to second language learning (Sung and Yeh, 2012). With the assistance of computer-based instruction, students are able to enhance their communication competence by folds (Zha, Kelly, Park, & Fitzgerald, 2006).

Islamic boarding schools or *pesantren* are the oldest and most known Islamic based education Institutions in Indonesia. In Tan (2014), it is stated that of 50.000 Islamic schools in the countries, over one third of them are *pesantrens*. There are two types of *pesantren*, traditional *pesantren* and modern *pesantren*.

Modern *pesantren* is a modernized form of *pesantren* where it applies formal learning system as practiced in school by introducing structured grade system, use of national curriculum, and combination of Islamic studies and general sciences.

As its effort to implement unique and innovative learning experience, *pesantren* (read: modern *pesantren*) starts to apply bilingual program format. This format introduces a learning system where foreign languages are used as media instruction for communications within the school and dormitories. The implementation of bilingual program, as Dewanti (2016) explained "is intended to improve the mastery of English skills and also improve Indonesian human resources in the future in order to compete in global job."

For the successful implementation of the bilingual program, *pesantren* should always reinvent itself with various efforts such as designing comprehensive syllabus, attractive and effective activities, and appropriate teaching method and evaluation. With many benefits that technology offers, it is expected that education in *pesantren* would also be able to successfully integrate it into their many programs, including bilingual program. Therefore, in doing it successfully, it is essential to know students' perception, as the prime and end users, on technology integration in *pesantren*. The author will focus on finding out students' perceptions and use of technology for language learning.

2. Research Methodologies

Context and Participants

The study was conducted at Darul Ulum Islamic Boarding School in Banda Aceh, Indonesia. Darul Ulum is one of modern *pesantrens* that applies bilingual program and is commencing English as one of its main communication tools. The *pesantren* consists of *secondary school* program that includes junior and senior high school programs.

The sample of this study was selected using purposive sampling. The characteristics of sampling are:

(1) Students who have experienced living in boarding school for at least 3 years; (2) Students who have experienced using English as main communication tool in boarding school; and (3) Students who have learned using technology in classroom. From the characteristics set above, the participants chosen for this study were first-year and second-year high school students in Darul Ulum. A total of 35 students took part in the study.

Research Method

To collect the data, questionnaire and interview were facilitated. The author first distributed the questionnaire directly to students in two gender-segregated classes. The questionnaire consist of close-ended questions and one open-ended question. The purpose of the questionnaire is to find out students' understanding and use of technology in daily life and in academic setting as well as perceived ideal situation for in-class setting.

On August 9, the author interviewed 10 male and 10 female students in group discussion. The focus group discussion was conducted for about 120 minutes with author asking open-ended questions to each participant. The questions related to participants' experience in school, English language learning experience, technology integration, and familiarity with technology.

3. Findings

Perceived Technology Use

The questionnaire was used to collect the data on students' perception of technology use. Total of 35 students filled in the questionnaire. The first part of the questionnaire intended to examine students' frequent use of technology in schools and daily life.

Setting	Technology Device Usage		
	Always (70 – 100 %)	Often (40 – 69 %)	Seldom (0 – 59%)
Home	94%	6%	0%
Dorm	0%	34%	66%
Class	0%	50%	50%

As shown on the table above, students generally use technology devices when they are at home (94%) significantly higher in comparison to when they are at dorm and class. This is due to the fact that there is a policy that limits the use of gadget in dormitory. The regulation does not allow students to bring in their personal electronic devices (such as PC, laptop, and hand phone) to dormitories.

On being asked what electronic devices that the students own, all 35 students (100%) own cellphones with 90% of them owning smartphones. Meanwhile 27 students (77%) own laptop, 10 students (28%) own tablet, and 3 students (8%) own PC. In a section where students ranked the activities that they most often do using their device, 90% of students said communication as the most important function followed by entertainment (70%); learning (50%); and others (28%). Communication function relates to call, messaging, and social media apps where students are able to communicate with other person, entertainment relates to video, music, game focused apps, while learning function focuses on apps that aid students in working on their academic activities.

In one open-ended question, students were asked to provide names of applications/ functions they often use when using their electronic devices. All students answered calling and messaging functions. 34 students wrote social media apps such as: Facebook, Instagram, Path, WhatsApp, Line, and Twitter as applications they often use. Meanwhile 13 students (majority male students) wrote game apps, 15 wrote word processing tools, and 27 students cited music, radio, and video apps as the applications they often use.

A Day in Pesantren

Daily Life at Pesantren

In focus-group discussion, the author asked students to tell their day in *Pesantren* in general. Students collectively agree that the day in *pesantren* started by coming to mosque at dawn to perform Subuh prayer, morning lecture, and vocabulary lesson. After morning preparations, students go to *madrasah*. The *madrasah* is equivalent to secondary school. "We learn in school from 7.30 A.M until 3.00 P.M. After prayer, we'll have extra courses, it can be Islamic studies' courses, language courses, and school subjects. It's different each week," said a student. Their evening spent with Islamic focused subjects and lecturers. Students usually finished their days around 9.00 – 10.00 PM. One student added, "we usually have jam-packed schedule. Morning is school time and evening is boarding school time. We usually have other extra curricula activities on the weekend too."

English Language Usage

Following question asked was about the practice of bilingual program in their *pesantren*. The summary of response is as follow:

"In *pesantren*, we have rule where we have to either use English language or Arabic as daily communication tool. Usually, one week will be dedicated to speaking Arabic and the following week to English. For example, if the rule is to speak English that day, we will spend the day communicating in English to our peers and *ustaz/ah* (instructor). If we are found to use Indonesian or other languages besides English and Arabic, we will get warning. If we happen to get

our third warning, then we will be punished by the *Mahkamah* (council). The punishment is diverse depends on how severe students disobey the rule. It can be vocabulary memorization, extra class, or exhibitionism related punishment.”

On account of using foreign language in their daily activities, students added, “we usually use any vocabularies we have memorized. When we couldn’t remember any vocabularies, we combine languages (English – Arabic) to communicate with others.” Another student added, “I feel that I just use whatever vocabulary I can find, in all honesty, I don’t think I use proper English conversation and grammar when talking”. Other students nodded in agreement citing that they often use “broken” English and incomplete sentences when speaking.

English Language Learning

Students stated that they learn English vocabulary every morning. “After prayer, we have to memorize selected vocabularies to our *ustaz/zah*. There will be extra time for morning teaching and evaluation for our vocabularies.” Students usually learn the vocabulary given by their instructors. Meanwhile, the madrasah system at *pesantren* followed national curriculum standard. Students learn English as school subjects for specific designated time each week.

After school, students also attend extra classes. There are usually language classes once or twice a week. In these classes, students learn more about English grammar and language skills. “We have *ustaz/zah* taught us grammar and speaking. They usually prepare some English materials that are similar to what we learn in school”, said one student. On the weekend, students are also able to choose extracurricular activities related to languages. There are options to join English speaking club or debate club as extracurricular activities.

All of the students agreed that their main resources of language learning are dictionary, English subject books, and subject experts (school teachers and *ustaz/zah*). “We always listen to vocabularies given by our *ustaz/ah* every morning. And we usually bring our dictionary to classes too,” claimed one student. “If we have assignment at school that we don’t understand, we usually bring it to afternoon class and ask our *ustaz/ah*”. Another source of learning is school library. Students usually spend their time at library to find the books and other resources for their homework and practice. “When I was assigned homework, I would come to library to look for resources.” Another student followed, “We also learn from our seniors and peers. When we run out of words while talking to them, they usually help us out by reminding the words we forget.” However, another student argued, saying “I am afraid to talk with seniors because we never know that senior is the one reporting us to language council.”

Half the students responded positively when asked if they feel they have enough exposure of English language learning. Later in focus group, students revealed that they have quite a lot of time to learn English language in *pesantren*. However, surprisingly, many students also reported that they have limited

vocabulary. Therefore, they would like to get more language resources that resonate to their needs in *pesantren*.

Technology Use for Language Learning

There are few instances where technology is used as one of the resources in language learning. The *pesantren* has language laboratory and library. The language laboratory, however, was no longer utilized. As one student claimed, “there was one time when we head to library for listening section. But that was a long time ago when I was a senior student in junior high.” “I guess it’s busted,” another student claimed.

The library is equipped with computers that are connected to the internet. There are approximately eight computers found in the library. Students will use the computers to look for learning materials and resources. Some students claim that they would look up articles, audio, and translation application to help them coping with language learning. However, there is a limitation

to how often they can use the computer. One female student explained “We can use computers when it is our class’ turn. We will have to wait until the computer is available if we want to use it outside of our schedule.”

When asked about other instances where students learn using technology, some female students mentioned that their English teacher at school sometimes use projector and laptop to teach English class. “Our teacher prepares a slide presentation for in-class learning. There are few instances when we listen to English audio or watch video.”

The author further asked students about their experiences in using technology to learn English language. In questionnaire, the students were asked whether they have enough understanding in using technology to enhance their language learning, 17 students responded yes, 5 responded maybe and 13 said no. For those students who said maybe/ no revealed that lack of access and exposure to technology as the main reasons. “Since we cannot bring our personal smartphone and laptop, we can only rely on teachers, library, and school computers to find learning materials. When I come back on the weekend, I would use my phone to learn,” claimed one student. Other students also agreed that coming home and having access to their personal electronic devices are the only viable time they have interacting with technology by themselves.

When asked on how they would learn using their devices, students cite websites, social media, and games. “In Facebook, I would befriend foreigner and chat with him/ her. That’s a good way for me to practice my English”, said a female student. Male student further said, “I learn vocabulary by playing game. I usually play detective or sport game.” The table below further showed students’ usage of applications/ software to support their English language learning.

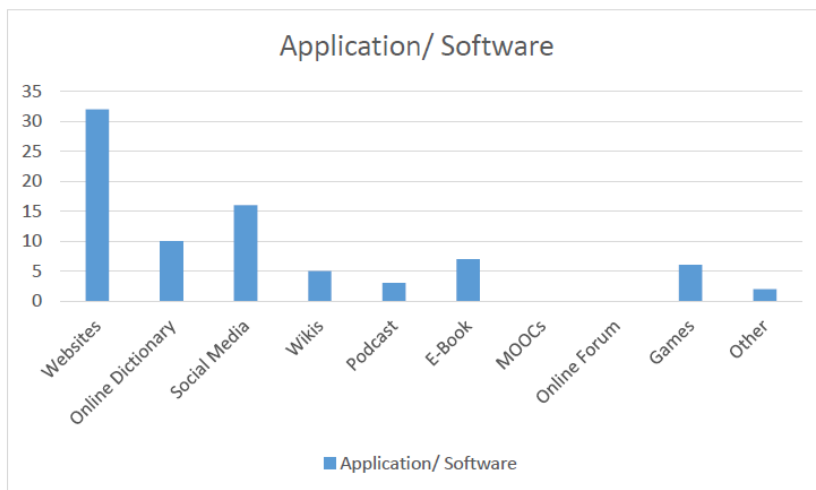


Image 1. Applications/ Software Use

Students’ Perception of Using Technology in Classroom

In the questionnaire, students were asked about their perception in using technology to enhance their language learning. 32 students said yes, confirming their positive reception towards technology integration, meanwhile other 3 students said no. The reasons why they reject technology in classroom were distraction and taking time for in-class setting. For students who said yes, they believed that using technology will help enhancing their language skills (29); providing more language materials (31); motivating their learning process (26) and helping them to connect with more people/ subject experts (5).

4. Discussion

This study aims to provide insight to English language learning and the use of technology to enhance ELL in *pesantren*. The findings showed some interesting results regarding language efficacy; learning resources, and digital literacy.

In general, students in *pesantren* have adequate time to learn English. The bilingual program and extracurricular activities help exposing students to more frequent English language practice. Through bilingual program that requires students to communicate with English, students should be more likely to acquire high-English language proficiency. However, during focus group discussion, the author found that majority of students show low self-efficacy and confidence towards their English language acquisition. The primary reasons are due to students' limited understanding towards 'correct' English speaking skill and limited vocabulary.

Due to policy regarding the prohibition on the use of technology devices in *pesantren*, students are not able to utilize learning mediated devices to maximize their English language learning experience. This means that students have limitations to internet connection, online materials, and digitally enhanced learning product for language learning. Students mainly used printed materials such as books and dictionary as well as relied on their teachers to learn. Such practice turned students into passive learner who only

follow along in teacher-dominated class. As Liton (2015) mentioned that "technology-regulated pedagogy affects the teachers' role from a dominator of knowledge to a facilitator. It replaces teacher-dominated lesson practices to learner-centric class activities." With successful technology integration, it is expected that students' role will change from passive followers to active participants.

Majority of students showed positive perception on the use of technology for language learning. The students identified technology as an effective educational tool that motivates them to learn new language and maximizes their language learning acquisition. Moreover, students also agreed that technology benefits them by providing more materials and connects them with more diverse people. Although the students are proficient in utilizing technology in their daily life, it is found that students have yet to maximize their understanding and proficiency in using available language learning mediated software and applications. From the many available choices of language learning applications, majority of students claimed to use website (31) and social media (17). Unfortunately, many students have yet familiarized themselves with other learning applications/ software.

5. Conclusion

Finally, based on the findings, this paper suggests that *pesantren* allows for more access to technology devices and diverse resources of ESL as well as availability of librarian or more expert person that will help students to use technology for learning efficiently.

Technology is a powerful media that is capable of guiding learner. Technology can offer much more than just a mere-entertainment tool. Several studies have indicated that with appropriate and scaffold use of digital technology, student's cognitive and social skill can be effectively improved. In English Language Learning (ELL) scheme, specifically, successful integration of technology will lead to collaborative, autonomous, and active student-centered learning cycle (Linto, 2015;). Students become active participants; they will be able to maximize their learning experience and ultimately, they will be able to acquire high English language proficiency.

For successful bilingual program, maximum English language acquisition and comprehensive digital literacy skills, students need help with their learning. "Learning happens through a cyclical process of engaged low of experience, interspersed with opportunities for reflective understanding and knowledge sharing (Sharples and Pea, 2014)." Thus, learning can only be effective when there is an advanced, more knowledgeable partner that can collaborate with students (Reiser and Tabak, 2014). For the proper and successful use of technology to create effective and engaging learning experience, all *pesantren* stakeholders (including parents) need to realize that they are pivotal partners that the

students need. Therefore, it is imperative that adults (teachers, *ustaz/ah*, and parents) are able to provide the much needed guidance and scaffolding on effective technology use and comprehensive language learning.

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Challenges in EFL Speaking Classes in Turkish Context

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Abstract

This article presents the results of a research study conducted to reveal the reasons of problems Turkish EFL learners face while speaking in L2. In Turkey, there is a perception that although the learners can reach high levels of proficiency in reading, listening, and writing skills, they cannot speak in English like their peers do in other parts of the world. This is substantially concerning as these students have compulsory and selective English courses throughout their ten years of compulsory school education. The problem has formerly been addressed by language learning anxiety, learners' autonomy, deficiencies in teacher education and teachers' development, and lack of material or/and technology in EFL classes (Aydın&Zengin, 2008; Büyükyavuz&İnal, 2008; Haznedar, 2010; Solak& Bayar, 2015). This paper directly seeks answers from the students themselves. The study was conducted with 66 students who have to enroll one year of intensive preparatory English class before being accepted to their own departments. A mixed method research design was used to triangulate the findings for higher validity. Quantitative data was analyzed using SPSS 22.0 software package and qualitative data was analyzed using descriptive analysis. The findings showed that students have difficulty in speaking English mainly because of educational and social reasons, while personal reasons are not as influential as the others are.

Keywords: Speaking skill failure, educational reasons, social reasons, personal reasons

Introduction

In a rapidly globalizing world, one must accept how important and vital international communication is. Today, communication is conducted orally and in written form, and also, it is in English as it is the *Lingua Franca* of our times. Like in many non-English speaking countries, there is a growing need for English in both private and public sectors in Turkey. The private companies look for employees having relevant professional expertise in English and besides, in public areas they get a rise in their salaries when they demonstrate their competence in one of the nationwide foreign language proficiency examinations (Alptekin and Tatar, 2009). In such an atmosphere, learning English becomes inevitable and compulsory for any person who either seeks work or just desires to follow the new developments, innovations and events to keep up with the age in social, economic, scientific and technological aspects (Tosun, 2006). However, it is commonly known that learning a second language (L2) is not a simple and short process. Many problems can prevent learners from beginning that journey. In this case, main difficulties can be handled at personal, educational, and social levels.

Personal Reasons

In terms of the problems resulted from the learners, the first thing to be noted is anxiety. Anxiety can be the most challenging factor while learning an L2 because most of the learners are not alone in this process; they are in a classroom most of the time. As indicated by Alptekin and Tatar (2009), majority of the EFL learners feel extremely concerned about their oral production when they reach the tertiary level, which causes an anxiety-provoking state when conversing in the L2.

Conducting a qualitative study, Öztürk and Çeçen (2007) relates foreign language learning anxiety to the learners' lack of self-confidence, which is connected with what they deem to be the insufficient level of English proficiency. On the other hand, as Sevingil (2008) and Zerey (2008), using a standardized L2 speaking anxiety scale, demonstrate, speaking anxiety is not a trait; but it occurs in the presence of the teacher and one's classmates. The most frequent source of anxiety for the participants is speaking in class (Alptekin and Tatar, 2009). In addition, findings of a qualitative study categorizes various types of anxiety as follows according to the answers obtained from the students in high school; *i. speaking activities, ii. listening activities, iii. teaching techniques and methods, iv. fear of making mistake, v. learning atmosphere, vi. attitudes of the teacher and vii. tests* (Baş, 2014, 111).

As significant as anxiety, motivation of the learners of L2 is another aspect to be discussed. Motivation is described as "the combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language plus favourable attitudes toward learning the language" by Gardner (1985, p. 10). Motivation is highly related to the proficiency and achievement of the foreign language learners' in the target language. The study conducted by Zabardast (2014) shows that the university students, most of whom are not highly motivated to learn a foreign language, put some effort to do it only because of personal interest in foreign language and culture or to have a good career in the future. However, as indicated by Demir and Erten (2005) who studied with 4th-grade (age 9–10) and 8th-grade (age 13–14) students, "younger learners have higher motivation, both extrinsic and intrinsic, to learn English than older learners" (Alptekin and Tatar, 2009). Thus, the intention of determining the reasons why the university students lack motivation to learn L2 and seeking answers of the students themselves may help to find solutions to this problem.

In addition to the problems resulting from excessive anxiety or lack of motivation of the learners, different perceptions of teachers and learners could be problematic. Although most instructors and students highlight the significance of students' participation in, especially, listening and speaking lessons, the students' responses reveal that most of the courses are teacher-centred (Akyel and Özek, 2010). They state that while university instructors consider reading and listening skills as the most significant ones for achievement, students reported speaking and listening skills as more important for their academic achievement. Another issue that must be noted is that the students do not have voice on the curriculum development process. Kırıkgoz (2009) states that most EAP (English for Academic Purposes) curriculum designers are not informed about the academic needs of students. Therefore, it can be easily said that to evaluate how effective an EAP curriculum is in meeting the academic needs of students and in providing valuable data for the curriculum development process, it is so important to know the needs analysis of the students' academic context (West, 1994).

In an experimental study, Inal, Evin & Saracalolu (2005) demonstrated that learners' academic achievement in English is highly related to their positive attitudes towards the language and its culture as well. The more positive attitudes one has towards the target language culture, the more progress they make. Therefore, the role of culture in shaping the personality cannot be denied. Tosun (2006) states that "your personality, attitudes and behaviours arising from the assimilation of your mother tongue, your culture, and the education you have received so far, your viewpoint of world and events will always rebel against this foreign language imposed on you and will always be in conflict with it" (p.33). In EFL classes, students are exposed to many cultural subjects, which means they are supposed to think and talk about the subjects that are not familiar to them. It is obvious that this makes them feel hesitant to speak in the classroom (Inal et al. 2005).

Educational and Social Reasons

Among the numerous challenges of improving oral production skills of the EFL learners, the problems related with language teachers cannot be ignored. Since Turkish EFL learners do not have much direct contact with the L2 community, their only chance to practice speaking is the classroom environment. However, teacher-centered language teaching tradition, which is dependent on rote memorization and form-focused instruction are the biggest obstacles to the improvement of that skill in Turkish educational context (Çetintaş, 2010; Haznedar, 2010). In the research study conducted by Haznedar (2010) on 530 primary and secondary state school teachers in a metropolitan city of Turkey, it was revealed that %70 of language teachers still use rote-memorization and repetition drills which date back to 1960s. Also, around %75 of them still prefer grammar-translation method which does not provide any chance of practicing L2 speaking skill at all. Aktaş (2005), on the other hand, suggests language teachers to encourage the learners to speak the language freely without any fear of making mistakes and being criticized by themselves.

According to Haznedar (2010), another problem with language teachers is the lack of information about their language proficiency levels since more than half of the teachers in her study have not taken any language proficiency test; very few

teachers took IELTS or TOEFL; and around %30 percent of the teachers took only KPDS (Foreign Language Proficiency Examination for State Employees) which does not test speaking skill and also does not have any international validity. Therefore, it is suggested for the teachers to take an internationally accepted language test and certify their level periodically for their own improvement. Besides, training the language teachers for more recent and effective instructional designs and activities through in-service training programs are among the recommendations of researchers (Işık, 2008; Kızıldağ, 2009) to have more qualified language teachers in Turkey.

Although Ministry of National Education (MoNE) decided on a shift from the traditional form-focused language instruction to meaning and communication-focused one in 2006 (Haznedar, 2010), it is not possible to assert that the new regulations are adopted by each and every teacher. Haznedar (2010) presented that although the teachers know about the new approach to language education, they still continue using the old-fashioned ones such as grammar-translation and memorization. Thus, she suggests training the teachers to encourage them to use contemporary teaching methods. On the other hand, Uysal (2012) advocates that although most language teachers are aware of the communicative methods of language teaching, they cannot make use of them because of practical or institutional reasons such as crowded classes, lack of time to prepare communicative materials, loaded curriculums, technology and equipment deficiencies, and so on. However, it is crucial for language teachers to adopt the new approach as soon as possible to prepare their learners as world-citizens who can freely speak the language to communicate.

Teacher self-efficacy, which can be defined as “teachers’ individual beliefs in their capabilities to perform specific teaching tasks at a specified level of quality in a specific situation” (Dellinger, Bobbett, Olivier, & Ellett, 2008, p.752), is also highly effective on the oral production skills of the EFL learners. According to Demir, Yurtsever, and Çimenli (2015), there is a positive correlation between teacher self-efficacy and their willingness to use communicative activities in language classes. Thus, self-efficacy levels of the teachers are crucial as it is obvious that use of communicative activities by teachers will lead to progress in speaking skills of the learners. Finally, communicative activities can help the teachers expand their own oral production abilities as well (Uysal, 2012).

Among the challenges teachers face, the most important ones are material selection and physical environment for language learning. In Turkey, there are many publishers/publishing houses importing text books for schools, though, teachers at public schools do not have the freedom of selecting their own course books. MoNE provides books for all students, and English text books are prepared by group of professionals, which may be seen to cause problems in EFL classes. According to Hutchinson (1987) a good material should have one or more interesting texts, enjoyable activities and opportunities for learners by providing their potential knowledge and skills. It is known that good materials help both teachers and learners to maximize the chances of learning, as they are the source of the nature of language and learning process (Kızıldağ, 2009). However, she emphasizes with the findings of her study that the course books are poorly developed and supplementary materials lack in meeting the need for communication. Likewise, Yılmaz (2008) underlines the fact that EFL textbooks used in Turkish schools are mainly grammar and reading based, and lack in supplying environment for verbal communication. As Buyukyavuz & İnal (2008) state, English language teaching in Turkey has problems stemming from shortage of English language teachers, crowded classrooms and lack of instructional materials.

Starting from 2005, MoNE has made radical changes in teaching programs as a reflection of the globalization process. Globalization is a highly complex process that has made a considerable impact on the multidimensional aspects of societies at various levels, including language policies of many countries. These policy changes emphasized the need for speaking ability in students. Textbooks were designed accordingly. Then, it was followed by DynEd®, which is a learner centered communicative computer module, assisting students for self-study. The module was designed by professionals in language teaching, companies like DynED International Inc., Oxford University Press, Longman, Prentice Hall, BBC, Stanford University, Apple, IBM, SONY, and NEC (Kızıldağ, 2009). In spite of the efforts and good intentions in mind, DynEd module is no longer used in classes as for the facts that all schools do not have a computer laboratory, or Internet access.

Finally, it is an undeniable fact that society in which a person grows up shapes the attitudes of learners towards learning a foreign language as well as their traits and educational environment. Learning cannot be thought separately; it occurs when learners participate in the learning process and interact with their environment (Yurtsever-Bodur, 2015). The success in learning a foreign language correlates with the structure of the society that must be taken into account (Işık, 2008). That is why, it can be easily understood when learners claim that they can not learn a language when there are no people speaking English around them or when their parents do not know English (Yurtsever-Bodur, 2015). Besides, most learners need some other kind of motivations to struggle for learning a language. In a society they live in, if they need English

for their professional career, it becomes something more beneficial and worth learning. Therefore, learners need to adopt the idea that English is going to be necessary and contribute to their life (Yurtsever-Bodur, 2015).

Aim and the Research Questions

1. What are the participants' perceptions on the social reasons for their failure in learning speaking in English?
2. What are the participants' perceptions on the personal reasons for their failure in learning speaking in English?
3. What are the participants' perceptions on the educational reasons for their failure in learning speaking in English?
4. Is there any meaningful relationship among the participants' social, personal, and educational reasons and their individual characteristics such as (a) family income and (b) parental knowledge of English?

Methodology

Setting and Participants

The first part of the scale in this study was designed to attain demographic information of the participants. A close investigation of that part showed that 21 participants were males (32.3%) while 44 of them were females (67.7%); one participant did not provide sex information. Most of the participants, who were 53 (82.8%) in number, were young adults between the ages of 18 and 21; 7 of them (10.9%) were between 22 and 25; and only 4 participants (6.3%) were 26 and above. Regarding the educational background of their mothers, participants reported that 23 of them (34.8%) were primary school graduates while only 13 (19.7%) were university graduates. The findings for the fathers' educational background were also similar, 21 (31.8%) being primary school graduates and only 9 (13.6) fathers being university graduates. The numbers of uneducated parents were also noteworthy (9 mothers, 4 fathers). 51 students (77.3%) stated owning a house while 15 of them (22.7%) rented their house. With respect to their monthly income, majority of the participants (61.5%) stated that they had an income between 1001-3000 Turkish Liras per month while 12 of them (18.5%) had a monthly income under 1000 Turkish Liras (almost half of the minimum wage).

This research study was conducted in Black Sea Region and therefore, the participants who mostly lived in Black Sea Region (27%) until the age of 13 outnumbered the others. 11 participants (17.5%) reported spending this time in the cities in Marmara Region while only 1 participant (1.6%) had lived in Eastern Anatolia from birth to the age of 13. There were also 3 participants (4.8%) who were abroad during that period. Finally, the analysis of the parents' knowledge of English revealed that only 5 of the mothers (7.6%) and 7 of the fathers (10.6%) knew English, which was a predictable but sad result. These findings can be viewed in detail in Table 1 above.

Data Collection

The data was collected from 66 preparatory school students at Giresun University, in 2016-17 academic years. All of the students enrolled in the program were included in the sampling; none stated an excuse to be excluded. A 54 item questionnaire, developed by Yurtsever-Bodur and Arikan (2015) was used as data collection tool. The questionnaire has three sub-categories as social, personal and educational reasons for failing to learn a new language. In order to validate the findings, a follow up interview was designed for the problematic areas specified during the analysis of the data. First, the problem areas were addressed and five semi-structured interview questions were written. Second, the questions were checked by four experts in the field of educational sciences and language teaching. As a third step, the questions were piloted with a group of ten students. Last, the interviews were planned and made with 8 students from the faculty of administration. The findings of the both tools were compared and presented in the following section.

Data Analysis & Findings

In this section, findings of the study will be presented starting with an overall descriptive analysis of social, personal, and educational reasons. Then, the results for each research question will be clarified in detail.

Table 2: Overall descriptive analysis of social, personal, and educational reasons

	N	Mean	SD
Social reasons	66	3.03	.739
Personal reasons	66	2.65	.902
Educational reasons	66	3.28	.910

Descriptive statistics showed that the participants mostly believed in the negative effects of educational reasons (mean = 3.28, $SD = .910$) on their failure in speaking English. Then, they attributed their problems in oral production to social reasons with a mean value of 3.03 ($SD = .739$). As might be expected, personal reasons were the last to be perceived as the sources of their problems in learning speaking English (mean = 2.65, $SD = .902$). The results can be viewed in Table 2.

Research Question 1: What are the participants' perceptions on the social reasons for their failure in learning speaking in English?

To investigate the social reasons behind the participants' failure in speaking English, they were asked to respond to 10 items below. They were required to rate their agreement and disagreement on the items from 5 (strongly agree) to 1 (strongly disagree), and then descriptive analysis were conducted to see the results. To present a clearer picture of their agreement and disagreement positions, the researchers preferred interpreting "strongly agree" and "agree" scores under one title and "strongly disagree" and "disagree" collected together under another. As of now, *agreement* refers to both "strongly agree" and "agree", and *disagreement* refers to "strongly disagree" and "disagree" in the scale.

According the results of the descriptive analysis, the participants agreed on item 2 stating that "If my mother or my father had known English, I would have learnt speaking English better, "with the highest positive agreement percentage of 74.2 (mean = 4.19, $SD = 1.098$). It was followed by the first item stating that "If there had been English programs on TV and radio (original or with English subtitles), I would have learnt speaking English better." (72.8%), with a mean score of 4.03, ($SD = .999$); and "if there had been English speakers around me, I would have learnt speaking English better." also scored quite high in terms of the percentage of agreement on it (72.7%, mean = 4.14, $SD = 1.180$). It can be interpreted from these results that the participants regarded the low amount of input that come from their parents, significant others around them, and TV or other information tools as the main social reasons for their failure in speaking English.

On the other hand, they showed strongest disagreements with the items "I couldnot learn speaking English because my mother or my father motivated me to go to other courses (football, guitar etc.) instead of English courses." (74.2%, mean = 1.96, $SD = 1.323$) and "I could not learn speaking English because I think that we would be dominated by another country if we learnt English. " (74.2%, mean = 1.84, $SD = 1.301$). These findings suggest that they were not encouraged to sacrifice speaking English for an interest in another area, or they do not have any nationalistic perspective on learning English.

Research Question 2: What are the participants' perceptions on the personal reasons for their failure in learning speaking in English?

In this research study, the items from 11 to 28 sought to see the participants' perceptions on the effects of personal reasons on their speaking achievement. A close investigation of the percentages and mean scores revealed a 90.9 percent agreement on the item stating that "If I had had the chance to go abroad, I would have learnt speaking English better." (mean = 4.59, $SD = .803$). It clearly shows that the chance of going abroad is a significant motivator for them to speak English. The participants also showed positive agreement on the fourteenth item admitting that "I could not learn speaking English because I did not spend enough time to learn English." with a percentage of 53.1 (mean = 3.55, $SD = 1.294$).

High percentages of disagreements were observed subsequently (from high to low percentages) for the items of "I could not learn speaking English because I think speaking English will not contribute anything to my life." (80.3%, mean = 1.78, $SD = 1.271$), "I did not learn speaking English because I have always wanted to speak another language." (78.8%, mean = 1.90, $SD = 1.261$), and "I did not think speaking English would provide job opportunities for me. That's why I did not learn it." (66.6%, mean = 2.00, $SD = 1.322$). It can be inferred from the results that the participants do not ignore the contributions

of English to their life and future career. They also do not show a preference for another foreign language than English since they are potentially aware of the advantages of speaking it.

To provide an overall impression of the analysis of personal reasons, it can be advocated that the learners mostly reported disagreement with the items, which signifies that they do not tend to blame themselves for their failure in speaking English.

Research Question 3: What are the participants' perceptions on the educational reasons for their failure in learning speaking in English?

In order to explore the learners' perceptions on the educational reasons of their failures in speaking English, 26 items were asked to them. They showed highest positive agreements on the 50th, 49th, and 48th items stating "If much importance had been given on four basic skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) in English lessons, I would speak English better." (69.7%, mean = 4.07, SD = 1.113), "If speaking had been practiced with the teacher rather than teaching rules, I would speak English better." (69.7%, mean = 3.93, SD = 1.238), and "If I had had a greater vocabulary, I would speak English better." (68.2%, mean = 4.00, SD = 1.286). As the results indicate, students prefer their English classes to be more focused on four skills than bare rule teaching, and they see the lack speaking practice and vocabulary learning as substantial educational reasons of their failure in improving their oral production skills. Besides these methodological problems, the learners are also not content with the teaching materials which are boring and unappealing to their interests. These can be obviously seen in the high percentages of agreement on the items "If English had been taught with games and enjoyable activities (songs, films etc.), I would speak English better." (65.2%, mean = 3.78, SD = 1.375) and "If reading texts that appeal to everyone (magazines, cartoons, short stories etc.) had been used in lessons instead of boring ones, I would have learnt speaking English better." (62.1%, mean = 3.75, SD = 1.311). Finally, they see the scarcity of class hours as a significant reason of their failure, and they agree 62.1% on the statement "If I had had more hours of English lessons, I would have learnt speaking English better." (mean = 3.54, SD = 1.510).

Highest percentages of disagreements were observed for the items of "I lost my desire to learn speaking English as I always got low grades. That's why I could not learn speaking English." (65.2%, mean = 2.26, SD = 1.523) and "If my teacher had not always corrected my mistakes, I would have learnt speaking English better." (62.1%, mean = 2.37, SD = 1.333). These results suggest that the learners do not have a problem with their desire in learning English and they also do not see error correction as a discouragement for improving their speaking skill.

Research Question 4: Is there any meaningful relationship among the participants' social, personal, and educational reasons and their individual characteristics such as a) parental knowledge of English and b) family income?

In order to see the relationship between the participants' basic demographic information and reasons for failure in speaking English, cross tabulation analysis were conducted.

First of all, the interplay between mother's knowledge of English and item 8 which states that "If there had been English speakers around me, I would have learnt speaking English better." was analyzed. 93.9 % of the participants whose mother cannot speak English strongly agreed on the statement while only 6.1 % of the ones whose mother can speak English strongly agreed on it. It can be inferred that students whose mother cannot speak English believe that their mother's lack of knowledge of English is quite effective on their failure in speaking that language.

Father's knowledge of English, which is another significant variable in this study, was also analyzed to reveal its connections with the 8th item. 90.9 % of the participants whose father cannot speak English reported that they strongly agreed on the statement. However, only 9.1 % of them whose father can speak English strongly agreed on that item. The results suggest that the learners whose father cannot speak English considered their father's lack of that ability as a significant factor influencing their speaking skill negatively.

Finally, the relationship between monthly income of the family and item 15 which states that "To learn speaking English I need to go to language courses but our financial situation was not good. Therefore, I could not learn speaking English." were analyzed through cross tabulation.

45.5 % of the participants who strongly agreed on the item had a monthly income between 1001 and 3000 TL, 36.4% of them had less than 1000 TL of income per month, and 18.2% had an income more than 6000 TL. The findings indicate that majority of the participants who agree on that item are from low income families (with less than 1000 TL or between 1001

and 3000 TL income) and they perceive the low amount of their family income as a factor negatively influencing their language education and consequently speaking skill.

Semi structured question forms revealed more information regarding personal, social and educational backgrounds of the participants. Half of the participants (n=4) stated that their speaking skills are not enough to continue a conversation. The other half stated that even if they feel that they study a lot, and pass their classes, they are far behind from the point they need to be. Analyzing the data, the researchers find out that the participants do not see themselves as the reason for their failure in speaking English. One of the participants stated that *"I cannot speak well because my teachers didn't give enough importance for my English (P2)"*. Another participant underlines an educational point; emphasis on grammar rather than speaking skills. *"I would say: no, I cannot speak English, because it is grammar what is important in schools not speaking (P3)"*. The perception that if teachers emphasize the importance of speaking and give more chance to students to practice, students will feel more secure when they attempt to speak is found out to be one of the main reasons for failure in speaking English. Another finding of the quantitative analysis was also supported by qualitative analysis in terms of students' blaming other factors for their failure in speaking English. Almost all of the participants stated that they follow the classes, learn new words, try to be disciplined language learners, however, they think the problem is somewhere outside than themselves.

From the social perspective, the participants think that English is quite important for their future career, but the teaching environment does not cover the expectations of the society or private sector. *"In Turkey, English is taught just to save the day like other things in our country. I learn something one year, forget and start over in the coming year. There is no continuity of the classes (P1)"*, which was backed up with the opinions of P3 *"There is no problem in giving importance. The problem is the wrong education system. We learn English not to speak, but pass the tests"*. Even if 72.8% of the participants think that they could speak better if there were English speakers around them, it was found that they do not like the idea of teachers' speaking only English in classes. One of the participants stated *"Language becomes more complicated when the teacher always speaks English (P2)"*.

The participants were asked Q4: *Describe your ideal English teacher. Were your teachers like you described?* All of the participants (n=8) stated the most important requirement of an English teacher is motivating students. They put communication competences and mastery in the field in number two and three. It is clearly seen that loving a language comes before learning it.

Discussion

This research study aimed to explore social, personal, and educational reasons for the failures of Turkish EFL learners in speaking skill. Findings indicated that students consider educational and social reasons as more effective than personal reasons on their inabilities in oral production.

According to the results, the most influential social reasons on the learners' speaking skill were the lack of L2 input from their families, other significant people around them, and the media. It is verified by Işık (2008) and Yurtsever-Bodur (2015) stating that language cannot be learnt without interacting with the social environment; therefore, presence of people who can speak the language and amount of input coming from TV or other information tools are quite substantial in that process. It is also suggested by the results that the participants do not have any nationalistic perspectives on learning L2, which can be attributed to their awareness of the significance of English language in their lives (Yurtsever-Bodur, 2015).

As the findings regarding personal reasons of their failure showed, the students do not tend to blame themselves much about the problem. However, according to Gökdemir (2005), they have highly important roles during the language learning process since it is not possible to do it without their personal effort and investment. Some contradictory results are also available about personal reasons. While quantitative data revealed that half of the participants agree on not spending enough time and effort to learn English, qualitative data showed that all of the participants think they make great effort to learn it and the reasons of failure are not about themselves. It can be speculated based on their contradictory statements that during interviews the participants did not want to lose face and answered in bias, which is a drawback of interviews.

The study explored that the most important reasons for students' failure in speaking English are educational. Unfortunately, language classes in Turkey are mostly based on grammar teaching. However, the participants want to learn how to speak the language rather than only the rules of the language and they wish for more practice in using the language. These findings are supported by many other studies in the literature. Çetintaş (2010) and Haznedar (2010) explain that form-focused instruction which lack any kind of oral production practice is the biggest problem in Turkish EFL classes. Thus, as

suggested by Aktaş (2005), teachers should encourage the learners for more practice rather than focusing on the structure all the time. In addition, the participants ask for more enjoyable and attractive materials for their interests. The influences of well-designed and appealing course materials on speaking skill are also emphasized and supported by many by research studies in the area (Buyukyavuz and İnal, 2008; Hutchinson, 1987; Kizildag, 2009; Yılmaz, 2008). Therefore, it is certain that the materials that are used in EFL classes in Turkey should be revised and updated to be more attractive for the learners and provide more opportunities for speaking practice (Kizildag, 2009; Yılmaz, 2008).

Finally, it was revealed in the study that the students with low-income families see their families' financial situation as an obstacle to their speaking ability because they state that they cannot go to private language courses. That finding is supported by the students' highly strong belief that if they could go abroad, they would learn speaking English much better; but they cannot do that as well due to the same problem. Encouraging the learners to attend projects and activities that are funded by European Council could be a starting point to solve that problem.

Conclusion and Recommendations

The obstacles of speaking a foreign language may be rooted in many factors; yet this paper deals with personal, social and educational reasons. Though personal reasons are not perceived as significant for their failure in speaking by learners, they need to be studied in terms of motivation, anxiety and barriers for speaking in another language. As this study was conducted with preparatory class students, they may have forgot about the first times they attempted to speak in a foreign language. This makes a further research on students having English classes for the first time more valuable and long-felt need. Societal factors were also addressed as the reasons for failure in speaking English. Most students say that their environment, daily lives, schools or homes lack in providing enough input for them. This can be accepted to a point as for the fact that English is the most widely spoken foreign language in the world. It is easy to access English resources, news, music, magazines or even English speaking people in a very small town in Turkey, which makes practicing it quite flowing. However, students may find the resources expensive to get or they are not aware of accessing resources online. Therefore, teachers' using the IT or other media tools in the classrooms rather than banning them altogether may help for the solution. Third and the most complained title was educational factors; mostly because all of the learners went through the same process, they have common memories about learning a new language. Also, if they attended state schools in Turkey, they were taught the same curriculum with more or less the same methods or teaching techniques. It is an undeniable fact that Turkish education system has some deficits in practice, even though it may seem perfect in its written documents. English teachers mainly focus on grammar, because of central exams students have to take and because of their own failure in speaking English. In order to overcome this difficulty, both students and teachers should participate in projects, and central exams should cover these projects or other tasks requiring speaking skill.

The results show that teacher training needs noting to be improved. Graduating from universities, teachers -who used to be students just two months ago- pass a test and become teachers, which make their jobs harder as they have to cope with classroom management, school's paper work, supervision, parents, work load and their private lives at the same time. A suggestion for the MoNE can be a 'practicum year' between university and work life, during when the novice teachers can be exchanged and learn about the practices in schools in an English speaking country before representing the language with its culture in class. Accordingly, a further study can be suggested with the teachers employed for the first time, asking their expectations and difficulties they have been through. This research study aimed to pave the way for the further studies for the failure of speaking English in Turkey.

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Imperative in English Proverbs

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Abstract

Apart from personal pronouns which are by far the most used referring expressions in English and Serbian, reference can be established and maintained using demonstratives. Their function is to refer to the location or distance of a person or an object. The aim of this paper is to examine reference realised by demonstratives with special regard to the restrictions written discourse imposes on their usage. The texts we used for analysis are narrative stories written in the two languages.

Keywords: demonstratives, reference, restrictions, English, Serbian.

Introduction

In modern English, only three different grammatical moods are commonly recognized: indicative, subjunctive, and imperative (Quirk et al. 1985: 149).

Although the basic speech act associated with imperative clauses is commonly held to be that of expressing a command, the imperative is used more frequently in English for less mandatory purposes (Downing, Locke 2006: 205) such as giving advice or warning, or making a plea for an action to be performed. In other words, the imperative is used to show the speaker's attitude toward an unrealised action that is to be performed, if it will be performed at all.

Nevertheless, a number of imperative expressions have undergone change processes which turned them into discourse marker (Bergs, Heine 2010:112). The imperative of verb *look* in the example below does not express command for the addressee to actually look, but functions as an attention getter in a discourse marker sense:

I mean, it may be that. Look, we're gonna have to stop.

The imperative in modern English is formed with the base or plain form of the verb, i.e. it does not show any inflection as such. Inflected verbs in unmarked indicative sentences usually follow the subject whereas the verb in the imperative occurs in initial position.

While the indicative mood and its characteristic verbal inflections are associated with factual assertion, the imperative on the other hand is used to inflect the verb when making requests or demands. It is usually labelled as the marked mood which is used to express commands and other directive speech acts like order *Close the door!*, request *Save some for me!*, offer *Have a drink!*, warning *Mind your own business!*, instructions *Shake before use*, and disbelief: *Don't tell me you've done that!*

A special case of the imperative is the so-called prohibitive, i.e. the explicit command not to do something (van der Auwera & Lejeune 2005). In English, the prohibitive is very similar to the negated form of the indicative.

Some modals like *must* can be used performatively by the speaker imposing a directive. However, despite the strong compulsion expressed by *must* there is not the same degree of directness as would be conveyed by its imperative counterpart where the speaker requires immediate compliance (Collins 2009:35).

On imperative in proverbs

A lesser degree of directness is found in imperative used in idiomatic expression like proverbs and sayings. What tells it apart from the imperative used in everyday communication is the fact that in everyday communication there are two participants, the "commander"—the speaker and the "commandee" —the hearer(s). In proverbs the commander is unknown and he is more like an indirect adviser whereas the commandee, or the receiver of the message, may be anyone.

Because of its nature imperative is closely associated with deontic modals. In fact it is often thought to be the strongest of the directives, one that emanates from someone in authority, which, therefore, does not expect non-compliance (Palmer 2001: 80). Having that in mind one would think that modal *must* may be generally used to replace it which is the case in a few analysed examples only (1). However, a great number of imperatives in proverbs may be paraphrased by modal *should* as in (4) and (6):

- (1) *When in Rome, do as the Roman do.*
- (2) *When a man is in a new place, country or situation he must adapt himself to new customs.*
- (3) *Don't count your chicken before they are hatched.*
- (4) *You should not make plans that depend on something good happening before you know that it has actually happened.*
- (5) *Don't cry before you are hurt.*
- (6) *One shouldn't cry before one is hurt.*

Our intention here was to show some of the characteristics of the imperative used in proverbs. Almost all examples we analysed express the desire of the speaker to make someone, generally the listener, perform a certain action and they convey a wide range of imperative meanings such as caution (7), recommendation (8), request (9), advice (10) order (11), and so forth depending on the occasion, context or tone:

- (7) *Look before you leap.*
- (8) *What you have, hold.*
- (9) *Save us from our friends.*
- (10) *Drive gently over the stones.*
- (11) *Do as I say, not as I do.*

There are proverbs in our corpus in which two verbs in imperative are coordinated by *and* as in (12), and there are proverbs in which this combination is made much interesting since the imperatives rhyme as in (13):

- (12) *Divide and rule.*
- (13) *Change the name and not the letter, change for worse and not the better.*

On the other side, there are imperative clauses joined by *and* or *or* and followed by a clause that have a conditional implication (Quirk 1985: 832). The illocutionary force of the construction varies and it may express offer in the following proverb:

- (14) *Come live with me and you'll know me.*

The imperative sentence of this type may be paraphrased by *if-clause* (15) although the imperative occurring in a combination with *if*-sentences usually gives advice (16):

- (15) *If you come to live with me, you will know me.*
- (16) *If you can't beat them, join them.*

Despite the fact that the subject is not an obligatory constituent in imperatives in proverbs (17), it is intuitively clear that the meaning of a directive implies that the omitted subject is the 2nd person pronoun you (Quirk 1985: 828). However, there are proverbs in which the subject may occur as in (18):

(17) *Make hay while the sun shines.*

(18) *When you are in a hole, stop digging.*

In English, there are structures with the verb *let* that are considered a type of imperative sentences. The verb *let* is used for the proposals and orders if they are not addressed to the listener (or not only to one listener). Quirk et al. (1985: 148) point out that the “Let x be y” construction signals imperative or optative mood:

(19) *Let sleeping dogs lie.*

(20) *Live and let die.*

A great number of examples from our corpus show that negative imperative sentences are widely used in proverbs. It becomes clear that the imperative does not only urge the hearer to do something, but it can also urge the hearer not to do something. It is achieved by negative form of the imperative *do not/don't* + base form. The prohibiton of this type is common in English proverbs and may convey different meanings like prudence (21), and advice (22):

(21) *Don't put all your eggs in one basket.*

(22) *Don't teach your grandmother to suck eggs.*

But, the imperative in proverbs is not always negated by *do not*. It may also be negated in other ways including negative adverb *never* (23), determiner *no* (24) and negative pronoun *nothing* (25):

(23) *Never speak ill of the dead.*

(24) *See no evil, hear no evil, speak no evil.*

(25) Believe nothing of what you hear, and only half of what you see,

However, so-called postverbal negation occurs in proverbs. Unlike all the other ways of negation it expresses a greater degree of prohibition (26). In this pattern *not* is placed after the verb in imperative and it refers to the third person. The only possible paraphrase of the negative imperative of this type is realised by *let not anyone* (27):

(26) *Speak not of my debts unless you mean to pay them.*

(27) *Let not anyone speak of my debts unless he means to pay them.*

Conclusion

One of the characteristics of the imperative used in proverbs is that it expresses a lesser degree of directness and could mostly be replaced by modal *should*. The illocutinary force of positive imperative is advice in a good number of cases, and in a fewer number warning. The negative imperative shares the same characteristics. It does not usually convey the meaning of prohibition but frequently expresses the meaning of advice, and less frequently the meaning of warning.

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Globalization and Language Use on Social Media in Pakistan

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Abstract

This article examines the written comments of Pakistani students on the official Facebook sites of the public and private sector universities in order to study their English language skills and social networking systems of students and its implications for language policy in education. The study focused on the quantitative and statistical analysis and investigated the differences of Facebook users from the public and private sector in the light of educational background, regional variation, and gender. Results of the study displayed the dominant use of English and a significant difference between public and private sector students in their preference to use English. Results also showed that there is considerable differences in men and women representation on Social Networking Sites (Facebook) in some provinces of Pakistan. Findings of the study raise the issue of language discrimination between students of public and private sector universities, in terms of access and equity of the current language policy in Pakistan to meet language demands of globalization.

Keywords: Globalization and Language Use on Social Media in Pakistan

Introduction

This article presents a critical analysis of a corpus of Facebook comments by university students in context on official Facebook sites of both public and private universities in Pakistan. The aim of the study was to understand how this popular social networking site reflects the Pakistani graduate competency in English required for internet technology for local and global communication. The critical quantitative analysis of Facebook comments was used to investigate linguistic discrimination, if any, between students from public and private sector universities, various regions of Pakistan, and gender in terms of access and equity. The aim was to assess if the languages used by subjects reflected their ease in using the language and an assertion of their identity and culture; or conversely due to inadequacy to express themselves in written English.

This paper presents a pioneering study of computer-mediated communication (CMC) through comments of students posted on the fairly recent official social networking sites (Facebook) of a number of public and private HEC approved universities of Pakistan. The major aim of the study was to examine if the current language policy in education was preparing students to have adequate English language skills to meet the current and future demands of globalization for individual and national socio economic advancement.

Background: Language and Education in Pakistan

Pakistan is a multilingual and multicultural state with a population of around 182.1 million (World Bank, US Census Bureau 2013). The national official language Urdu though mother tongue of only 7.5 % of the population enjoys a high status as a symbol of national identity and integration. English as an international lingua franca, enjoys a high status. The 1973 Constitution of Pakistan (article 251) projected that Urdu would replace English as the official language within 15 years. However, due to a number of factors including lack of Urdu materials, English remains the 'defacto' official language and medium of higher education. Despite being the mother tongue of a small population; Urdu and English are regarded as 'majority' languages as they enjoy a high status and are used by the powerful institutions in Pakistan for official purposes and for education. The language policy has always encouraged these two languages at the cost of regional languages that are the mother tongue of the large majority of population in Pakistan.

Theoretical Framework

Facebook and Language Change: Internet, as the major influential means of communication in this globalized world, is constantly changing the way people communicate with each other. Social media has resulted in the increased usage of acronyms which are substituting long phrases on the internet. BRB (be right back), LOL (laugh out loud), ttyl (talk to you later) are few examples of how internet users tend to use acronyms instead of full sentences over the social media in order to save time. Mehmood.S & Taswir. T, (2013) explored the effects of social networking sites on undergraduate students at College of Applied Sciences in Oman and found out that around 58% of the student acknowledged the change in their language or style of discourse through social media. Media acts as a powerful driver that represents the bias in communication in such subtle ways that the reader and viewer imbibe the messages without even knowing it (Siddiqui.S 2014).

Language and Culture: Anthropologists around the world define culture in terms of day to day practices arising from normative attitudes of a group of people whose interactions are shaped by specific forms of social organizations. Social media has provided a platform where people from different cultures come together and interact with each other. Intercultural dialogue, and thus language especially English; is of great importance in our globalized world where different cultural backgrounds interact daily with each other through influential social media like Facebook, Instagram, Twitter, and Viber. Saleem. N (2015) explored the effects of Social Networking Sites on family interactions and their roles in undermining family bonds along with face to face conversations. This study found out that there is a strong correlation between isolation and the time spent on a social networking site. Sawyer. R (2011) found out that social media is primarily used as a tool to integrate people into their cultures while adapting the new cultures. Her paper examined the effect of social media on the intercultural adaptation process. According to her, interaction and communication are the main tools that affect intercultural adaptation through social media.

Language and Gender: Studies that have discourse as their primary concept are becoming immensely popular in the field of gender and language over the past two decades. Gendered discourse is the term linked to Jane Sunderland's (2004) approach that focuses on the identification of gendered discourses through traces in language use. This approach of Sunderland is related to the analysis called Feminist Critical Discourse Analysis (FCDA), which essentially links CDA and female linguistics. FCDA is primarily used where the critique is needed on the discourses containing patriarchal social order in them. This analysis looks into the unequal gender relations that are obvious in the language use, so as to emancipate and transform.

Keeping in view the scarce literature and paucity of research publications on the impact of globalization and social media from a linguistic point of view in Pakistan, this research study was designed to look into various features of the written discourse of university students through their comments on Facebook of their university website.

Public Universities	Private Universities
Punjab – 45 students' fb comments	Punjab – 30 students' fb comments
Sindh - 45 students' fb comments	Sindh - 30 students' fb comments
Balochistan – 5 students' fb comments	Balochistan – 5 students' fb comments
Khyber Pakhtunkhawa – 20 students' fb comments	Khyber Pakhtunkhawa – 10 students' fb comments
Islamabad – 20 students' fb comments	Islamabad – 10 students' fb comments

Method

The present study adopted a combined quantitative and qualitative approach. Both descriptive and statistical analysis were used to find out if the differences were significant or not between students comments in terms of public and private sector universities, regional variation, and gender. One way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and Chi Square tests were used to examine the statistical associations between these above mentioned factors.

The qualitative approach was adopted to understand the differences in students' comments on Facebook keeping in view the context in which they were made.

Sample

In Pakistan, there are currently 129 universities in both public and private sector recognized by Higher Education Commission. To find an appropriate and reliable sample of subjects, a two-stage cluster sampling was used for this study.

In the first stage, 18 Higher Education Commission (HEC) recognized universities as listed in HEC 2015 ranking list of a total of 129 universities, were selected through purposive sampling on the basis of ratio in number, of public (11) and private universities (7) in Pakistan along with regional variation. Another consideration was size of population of universities and HEC ranking. (See Table 1 below).

Public Universities	Private Universities
Punjab – 3 universities	Punjab – 2 universities
Sindh – 3 universities	Sindh – 2 universities
Balochistan – 1 university	Balochistan – 1 university
Kyber Pakhtunkhawa – 2 universities	Kyber Pakhtunkhawa – 1 university
Islamabad – 2 universities	Islamabad – 1 university

Table 1: Sample of public and private universities

In the second stage, the students' comments were selected randomly. As seen in Table 2, the study comprises around 220 students who posted on official Facebook university sites by the students in the provinces of Pakistan. Table 2: Sample of students FB comments.

The data was collected on an excel sheet developed by the researchers in collaboration with the statistical advisor. The data collectors were university students who volunteered to be involved with the study; were trained on how to fill in the excel sheet; and data was collected in the university computer center under the direct supervision of the researchers.

Quantitative analysis was used to determine the: (1) language(s) used in public & private university Facebook sites; (2) level of formality in language use in Public & Private universities; (3) area and topic of discussion; (4) percentage of FB comments by gender in public and private universities; (5) men & women as active Facebook users by region. The criteria for assessing the level of formality was taken from Pearce (2005) and a study by Perez Sabater et al. (2008). The corpus was analyzed using a 5 point scale, starting from 'very formal' to 'very informal' as seen below. An excel sheet was developed and used by data collectors through computers to analyze the data.

Results

Table 3: Language use in public & private university Facebook sites

Languages used on Facebook comments	Percentages of Languages users	
	Public	Private
English	44%	66%
Urdu	25%	13%
Regional	1.5%	2.4%
Mixed (Code switching)	28%	18%

Table 4: Level of formality in language use in public & Private universities %

	Formal %	Informal %	Neither formal nor informal %
Public	36	59	5
Private	47	33	20

Dominant Language Used: The findings of the present study displayed English to be the most dominant and frequently used language by the Facebook users in public and private universities, with private university students showing a significantly higher preference for use of English (see Table 3).

The languages used in Facebook comments by students from public and private universities, around 44% of the comments on public university Facebook sites and 66% on private university Facebook sites were in English. Though Urdu comments were used by 25% of public sector students and 13% private sector students, they were written in English Roman transliteration. The regional languages of the provinces of Pakistan were seldom used in any of the Facebook comments

by both public 1.5% and private sector 2.4% students. The comments in the regional language on Facebook were used by the students in KPK and Baluchistan, who used Pashto; and the use of Sindhi by a few students from Sindh. There were no comments in Punjabi by university students of Punjab. While posting comments on the university Facebook site, code mixing and language crossing was used by almost a quarter of all students. The students from public university (28%) and 18% of students from private university used code mixing in their comments of English and Urdu, or English and regional language, or all three languages.

Preference for English: As seen in Table 5, a significant difference between the public and private sector university students in terms of preference for English.

Level of Formality and Context: Another important finding of this study was the difference in level of formality shown in the comments in public and university Facebook sites. Table 4 exhibits the percentage of level of formality in public and private Facebook university sites. The students from public universities (59%) were more informal in the written discourse while posting comments than private university students (33%). Private sector students also made use of semi-formal comments (20%) on Facebook, as compared to very few students (5%) from public sector.

Topic of discussion: Another finding suggested that the social context and topic of Facebook comments in public university sites was largely university related (see Table 6). On the other hand, Facebook users on private university sites posted comments which were both personal and university related, with percentage of personal comments being higher than university related comments.

Table 6: Topic of FB comments in public & private university %

	University related	Personal
Public universities	62%	38%
Private universities	47%	53%

The language used in terms of formality or informality was also dependent on the topic: Informal language was used for personal context and formal language was used for university related issue.

Topics on complaints and religious matters usually were in informal discourse. The topics observed on both public and private university Facebook sites were mainly related to institutional loyalty, advertisements, alumni discussions, employment opportunities and humor and wit, and concern for admissions. Religious and political connotations were mainly seen on public university Facebook sites; especially from Baluchistan and Khyber Pukhtunkhwah.

Language Change: Students from both public and private sector universities were seen to use acronyms and slangs in their comments.

Table 5: Results based on Inferential Statistics		
Digital Divide in Public/Private Universities in use of Social Media Networking	ANOVA	No significance
Gender Norms of Social Media Networking	Nonparametric tests	Not significant
Types of University (public/private) & preference for English	ANOVA	Students/users of FB in private universities have statistically higher preference for English usage
Type of University (Public/Private) & Preference for formal/informal language	ANOVA	Not significant
Gender norms of level of formality	Chi Square	Level of formality statistically independent with the gender ratios in different universities
Preference for English & Preference for formal/informal language	Chi square	Preference of English found independent of the Preference for formal/informal language
Association between preference for formal/informal language & the feedback effect	Chi square	Statistically insignificant
Ratio of Feedback & preference for English	Chi square	Weak causality between Ration of Feedback & preference for English

Hopper (1998) views grammar as the product of interactive communication and not the cause.

Language & Identity: Comments posted on university Facebook site displayed that in KPK and Baluchistan some of the

Public universities %	Private universities %	Male %	Female %	Punjab %	Sindh %	KPK %	Balochistan %	Islamabad %
61	39	62	38	34	34	14	5	14

students used Pashto and only a few students used Sindhi in Sindh. Students from other provinces especially in Punjab preferred to comment in English or / and Urdu in Roman English transliteration. According to Cyber Atlas (2003), the advancements in the internet and technology have resulted in the emergence of English as the Lingua Franca in our globalized world. Thus, with technology and new social media, the impact of English on local languages has increased more than ever.

Language and Gender: Table 7 displays simple percentage of Facebook comments from public or private universities in terms of proportion of males and females posting the comments and regional variation.

Out of the total 220 student comments, 62% were male comments and 38% were female’.

Table 8 shows gender norms on university Facebook sites in all provinces in Pakistan.

	Punjab %	Sindh %	KPK %	Islamabad %	Balochistan %	Total %
Men	56	53	63	73	90	62
Women	44	47	37	27	10	38

Males are dominating the university Facebook sites with Punjab and Sindh showing relatively less difference in female and male university Facebook usage. On Baluchistan and KPK university Facebook sites, the difference between men and women as active Facebook users as observed in comments posted, is worth noting. In Baluchistan, with almost 90% of the male’s comments compared to 10% female comments, makes it evident that the females in higher education are invisible and silent. In KPK, the domination of males as active Facebook users is evident by their comments (63%) as compared to only 37% female comments. The comments show also how women make more use of emoticons and images to express their emotions as compared to men, who are generally expected to express less in our society.

Results and Discussion

Linguistic Discrimination: The study findings display that the importance of English has increased for university graduates in the modern world due to globalization and technology including Pakistani university students. It was also seen that the most frequent use of comments in English on the Facebook

on the official website of their universities by both private and public students in universities of Pakistan, is the result of spread of English due to its high status and prestige; as well as being the most widely used lingua franca globally. In addition, fluency to English, is linked with power; and seen as a tool for empowerment. This study shows that the private sector students use English more than public sector universities and display a significantly higher preference for use of English have studied in English medium schools; whereas the public sector students make use of English along with code mixing due to their lack of ease in using English.

Language Change: The use of acronyms in comments by university students on Facebook displayed a language change often referred to as the internet language being different from the language used by students for written language in classrooms. Code mixing was more frequently used by public sector students even in comments for formal use. The ever-evolving nature of the communication on social media is continuously altered and regenerated.

Language and Gender: The study displayed more male as active FB users in Baluchistan and KPK. It was seen that the comments posted by the females were mostly in emotional vocabulary and their comments were mainly related to nostalgia, fashion, women moving ahead, diet and party arrangements. Gender polarization is the process that makes it easier to restrict opportunities and exclude women and girls from education, military and public platforms (Bing and Bergvall, 1996). Education and language tend to play vital roles in the construction and perpetuation of certain stereotypes against women

and girls in public platforms Educational system helps in constructing and magnifying differences in class and boundaries in our country mainly through favoring dominant language, dominant culture, and pedagogical practices (Siddiqui.S, 2014).

Recommendations

Based on the democratic principle, Pakistan must ensure equal opportunities to all its citizens so as to develop themselves personally and professionally. The results of this study display linguistic discrimination between private and public sector students that must be diminished by improving English Language Teaching (ELT) programmes of public sector schools and university, keeping in view the current and future English language skills required by Pakistani graduates for intra and international communication through Social Networking Sites.

The lack of participation of females in Facebook, especially in backward areas like Baluchistan and KPK, is a major concern for women development in Pakistan. It is important for the socio-economic development in Pakistan that the female graduates participate fully as active FB users so that they can be socially integrated in the educational institutions.

In terms of ethno-linguistic vitality of regional languages, state must enhance the status and role of these local languages, especially Punjabi, and strengthen them by integrating them into the educational process of Pakistani students. This would help result in Pakistani graduates emerge as additive bilinguals and not subtractive bilinguals.

Social networking sites have been affecting the social as well as cultural fabric of our societies and have been revolutionizing the pattern of our communication, socialization and interaction. Findings of this study underscore the need to investigate the language needs of university students for English for social media and the learner difficulties.

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The Acquisition of Language: Evidence in Syntax

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Abstract

This paper aims to discuss the two main approaches to language acquisition and present the main ideas behind the nativist and the usage-based account. The concomitant argument between the two sides has been present in linguistics ever since the proposal of innateness was provided by the paradigm of mainstream generative grammar (Chomsky 1965). In order to contribute to the ongoing discussion, we will attempt to outline the main challenges that the both theoretical strands are faced with and provide an overview of syntactic evidence provided by linguists whose work was devoted to understanding the mechanisms of language acquisition. Our goal is to analyze the insights provided by the phenomena such as syntactic bootstrapping, poverty of the stimulus, multiple argument realizations and non-canonical syntactic constructions and argue that integrating these findings into a usage-based framework (Tomasello 2000, 2003 & 2009) or various instances of Construction Grammar (Goldberg 1995 & 1996, Fillmore Kay & Fillmore 1999, van Trijp 2016, Steels 2011, *inter alia*) provides a more plausible and comprehensive explanation of the processes responsible for language acquisition.

Keywords: Acquisition of Language: Evidence in Syntax

Introduction

Although the origins and the complexity of language were discussed long before Chomsky's entrance into the world of linguistics, it is only after his response to Skinner (Chomsky 1959) that the processes underlying the language acquisition have become the subject of intense linguistic debate. The mystery of the language acquisition that has puzzled psychologists, linguists and even philosophers (Skinner 1957, Chomsky 1959, Descartes 1984) was rooted in the fact that language appears to be reserved only for the human race. The diverging views on language acquisition between Chomsky and Skinner have retained a similar form until today and they stem from different accounts of mechanisms by which humans acquire language. The central problem in their disagreement was evident in the importance they ascribed to linguistic environment and the input to child speech. The analysis of evidence in syntax becomes interesting for our paper since it adequately reflects the relationship between input and speech. Naturally, the evidence put forward can sometimes be regarded as disputable or problematic, especially when approached from alternative theoretical paradigms. In the paper, we examine some of the familiar syntactic evidence (Goldberg 1995 & 2006, Pinker & Jackendoff 2005, Jackendoff 2007 & 2008, Tomasello 2009) and outline the main traits of two broad theoretical accounts of language acquisition: the usage based-account and the nativist account. One theoretical strain posits grammatical competence to be innate, capacity which is human-specific. The alternative approach to language acquisition puts emphasis on the children's general cognitive processes and regards the process of acquisition as incremental development. The main goal of our paper is to assess the viability of theoretical arguments provided by both sides, especially those concerning the evidence in grammar, and to rule out those contentions which do constitute a sensible framework for the analysis of language acquisition. Of course, the final verdict on the adequacy of the theoretical alternatives remains to be reached by the linguistic community, which is why this paper aims only to acknowledge their work and offer a humble estimation of it. In section 1, we provide a summary of the main features of nativism and the central issues related to this standpoint. Section 2 deals with its theoretical opposition,

the usage-based approach, advocated by Tomasello (among many others), in which the acquisition of syntax is seen as a piecemeal process enabled by the children's analogical and inductive skills. In section 3, we turn to the evidence in input. The so-called "Poverty of the Stimulus" argument is examined with the focus on acquisition of verbs. The acquisition of verbs in regards to their transitivity characteristics is scrutinized in section 4, where the alternative reasoning to the one of syntactic bootstrapping is provided. The link between meaning and syntax is inspected in section 5, especially in relation to children's concept understanding. Section 6 deals with the Construction Grammar and Parallel Architecture approaches to syntax-semantics mapping and provides challenges to the classical lexicon-syntax dichotomy. We also look at non-canonical syntactic constructions and their relevance for challenging the nativist assumptions. Section 7 contains the final discussion along with the conclusion.

1. The nativist approach to language acquisition

Noam Chomsky is undoubtedly one of the most renowned names in the field of linguistics in general and one of the pioneers of the nativist approach to language acquisition. The discussion on mechanisms behind language acquisition dates back to Chomsky's response to Skinner's idea about children's verbal behaviour being predictable because it is acquired via external reinforcing stimuli (Chomsky 1959). At the times, Chomsky's response might have been considered radical, and yet today, the argumentation that there is something innate about our capacity to acquire and process language is considered legitimate in linguistic circles. One of its basic assumptions is that human language is overly complex for such an effortless process of acquisition that the child demonstrates. Simple perception of the environment and exposure to language cannot account for such rapid acquisition. Hence, grammar as a complex set of rules that govern the language use must be innate. One of the ideas behind it was that all languages share the fundamental underlying similarities, such as the presence of grammatical categories like nouns and verbs in all languages, which would surely be explained by genetic predetermination. The only way that one can challenge this idea of innateness is to offer a "general learning strategy" which would account for acquisition, which, according to Chomsky, has not yet been offered (2006: 183). Universal Grammar emerges as a theory that accounts for these "linguistic universals" (Cook and Newson 2007).

However, the notion of UG is not universally accepted by the linguistic community, as was recently reflected by, among others, Evans and Levinson (2009), Everett (2005), Müller (2013). Evans and Levinson (2009) present several aspects in which languages differ fundamentally rather than superficially¹ and one of the dissimilarities between languages that comes they mention is word order. Some languages have SVO order, other SOV order and there are even significant changes within one language through time. English, for instance, "has changed from a free-word order, highly inflected, topic-prominent language, as its sister German remains to this day, to a fixed-word-order, poorly inflected, subject prominent language, all in less than a millennium." (Pinker 1995: 235).

As anticipated, languages differ at the level of phonology, morphology and semantics (Evans and Levinson 2009). Most of these differences are often characterized as superficial by the advocates of UG. Nevertheless, the grammatical variation across languages extends beyond different word-orders. Some of these apparent differences could hardly be classified as superficial. For instance, "many languages lack an open adverb class" (Evans and Levinson 2009: 434). Languages like Lao lack an adjective class. Word classes such as coverbs, classifiers, positionals or ideophones are not employed in English (or in the case of classifiers occur marginally). As Evans and Levinson further demonstrate, certain constraints that are found in English do not apply to languages such as Italian or Russian, which not only refutes the linguistic universals, but also points out the anglo-centric position from which Chomsky operated (Evans and Levinson 2009: 437). Most importantly, not all languages can be interpreted in terms of constituent structure. Evans and Levinson give an example of Latin sentence which would be represented better through a dependency module, since a tree diagram would appear

¹ The reader should bear in mind that the ideas put forth in Evans & Levinson (2009) are often regarded as controversial. For a critical assessment of their claims, see, *inter alia*, Nevins 2009, Keenan & Stabler 2010, Abels & Neelman 2010, Reuland & Everaert 2010; for a counter-reply to criticism, see Levinson & Evans 2010.

senseless (due to the arrangement of words it would have crossing lines). As they postulate, “There can be constituent structure without recursion, but there can also be hierarchical relations and recursion without constituency” (Evans and Levinson 2009: 440).

If the nativists' claims were taken to extreme, they could be taken to imply that children are linguistically competent from the earliest stages of their lives, but the lack of performance is obviously due to underdeveloped motor skills, practice, insufficient input and other performative aspects of language use. Needless to say, the assumption of complete linguistic competence from birth challenges the functional bearing that general cognition ought to have in the language acquisition. According to the nativist paradigm, the input is only relevant in a sense in which it provides the child with something to apply its inborn grammatical categories and rules to. The supposed innate mechanism was ultimately named LAD (language acquisition device).

Within the faculty of language, two major components were defined – *Faculty of language-broad sense* (FLB), which encompasses the “conceptual intentional” and “sensory motor” systems, and the *Faculty of language-narrow sense* (FLN), (Hauser et al. 2002). Both of these systems constitute certain parts of general cognition. Nevertheless, FLB includes FLN, which is undeniably the controversial element in the scheme. “FLN is the abstract linguistic computational system alone, independent of the other systems with which it interacts and interfaces” (Hauser et al. 2002: 1571). Nevertheless, the fact that the two internal systems are exclusively attributed to human race is what is most emphasized in their work. As they put it, “although homologous mechanisms may exist in other animals, the human versions have been modified by natural selection to the extent that they can be reasonably seen as constituting novel traits, perhaps exapted from other contexts (e.g. social intelligence, tool-making)” (Hauser et al. 2002: 1572). The latter part of the quote was afterwards the target of most criticism, as it effectively states that the supposed faculty of language is completely autonomous and has no links to general cognition or intelligence, although this has been the central issue in previous discussions as well. Again, FLB is not as rigorously separated from cognition, which makes the theory a bit contradictive, but doubtlessly more bulletproof to further criticism. Notwithstanding, the nativist theory is rather clear on these points today and the intelligence part is taken out of the acquisition equation. By drawing an analogy with animals and “imbeciles” which acquire language, Chomsky indeed argues intelligence to be a separate mechanism (2006: 9). The argumentation put forward is that of special “device”, which evolution has resulted in, and which equips us with language and grammar from the point of birth. Although FLB is less restrictive to mechanisms shared with the rest of the animal kingdom, Hauser et al. maintain FLN to be a human privilege.¹

The existence of FLN is often justified by what is argued to be the property of all languages – recursion or “a capacity for discrete infinity” (Hauser et al. 2002: 1573). This would mean that humans have the capability of producing the infinite number of grammatical sentences. Jackendoff delineated this further by stating that “a set of rules is called ‘recursive’ if the rules can apply to their own output an unbounded number of times and thereby can produce an unlimited number of expressions from a finite set of primitives” (2011: 591). It follows from the argumentation that any sentence has the possibility of being infinitely long regardless of its vocabulary limitation. Naturally, for this to be true, language’s syntactic properties must allow such possibilities. The usual example for infiniteness or recursivity are the embedded sentences. For example, the sentence: “He reckons that his brother told him that Sarah believed that...”, can potentially continue to infinity. Here, the possibility of infiniteness is induced only through one conjunction. The case for a biologically endowed language faculty is also weakened by claims in Everett (2003) that the Amazonian language Pirahã does not allow recursion as this was regarded as one of the fundamental features of language in Hauser et al. (2002)².

¹ For a more detailed discussion on this topic, see Jackendoff (2011), Mendivil-Giró (to appear).

² It should be mentioned that the question of recursion in Pirahã is far from being conclusively answered and we will treat the issue as open. For arguments denying the existence of recursion in Pirahã, see Nevins et al. 2009a & 2009b; for arguments defending Everett’s original claim, see Everett 2007, Futrell et al. 2016.

According to Hauser et al., “it seems relatively clear, after nearly a century of intensive research on animal communication, that no species other than humans has a comparable capacity to recombine meaningful units into an unlimited variety of larger structures, each differing systematically in meaning” (2002: 1576). Certainly, the communicative systems can be found among various animal species, but something as intricate as language has remained unobservable outside the human species. Therefore, highlighting the absence of recursion in the animals’ communicative systems is justified and yet redundant, just as it would be redundant to claim that 3D technology will not be available to the viewer via his colourless television. Moreover, it is not clear how the examination of such abstract concept like recursion and infiniteness among animals can be productive for our discussion. The comprehension of the term requires at least human cognitive capacities, which tells us that the application of the same would require similar capacities. In addition, the property of boundlessness expands beyond the realms of language. It is observed and discussed in most natural sciences: chemistry, physics, mathematics etc. Thus, even if the infiniteness is linguistically observable, there is no reason why it should be the separating factor between the so-called LAD and other general cognitive capacities. Pinker and Jackendoff have criticized most of the argumentation regarding the recursion provided by Hauser et al. (2002), especially it being exclusively tied to FLN and the evidence of its existence (Pinker and Jackendoff 2005). The recursion can be observed or interpreted in other human senses, such as human visual cognition. As they explain, the outside world is perceived as being made of discrete elements, which can be joined together to form larger constituents, and the sequences which are observed as pairs or clusters can be endless. It is always possible to generate larger constituents from various elements (ibid, 2005). Since the universe itself is infinite and humans tend to categorize, it can be expected that the so called “discrete infinity” is perceivable wherever. If we were to gracefully integrate the property of recursion into the nativist approach, we ought to attribute the property to FLB rather than the FLN.

2. The usage-based approach to language acquisition

The usage-based approach, as advocated by Tomasello, emphasizes nurture over nature (Tomasello 2000, 2003 & 2008). Within the approach, child’s general cognition is highlighted in the acquisition of language, rather than asserting the linguistic capacity as being innate. According to Tomasello, children do not reach the phase of language acquisition until the age of one. Until then, they will have developed skills such as intention-reading (functional dimension) and pattern finding (grammatical dimension), both of which are actually cognitive functions usually unrelated to language at all (2008: 69). Tomasello considers *intention-reading* to be species-specific, something the nativists render extremely important. However, one might say that intention-reading is unobservable in primates because it implies reading the intentions of others and it seems that intentional action is reserved only for species capable of intending something, which means it is cognitively advanced. Assuming that intentional action does exist among other primates or animals, it is hardly plausible that the rest of the animal kingdom meets the cognitive requirements for taking the goals of others into consideration or for understanding the fact that others are in fact doing something intentionally. The acquisition of any linguistic item depends on such understanding. The gap between the understanding part and the acquisition part, which is called the “chasm” by Chomsky, and the bridging of this gap is where the two theories differ fundamentally.

“For example, almost all infants communicate by pointing before they have acquired any productive language, and many also use some kind of iconic or conventionalized gestures as well... This suggests that human pointing and other gestures may already embody forms of social cognition and communicative motivation that are unique to the species, and that are necessary as a first step on the way to linguistic conventions both phylogenetically and ontogenetically” (Tomasello 2008: 70).

Similarly to Chomsky, Tomasello acknowledges the fact that certain mechanisms are unique to humans. Nevertheless, these mechanisms are rather the byproduct of the more evolved cognitive system in humans. Naturally, the cognition or intelligence could be regarded innate to a certain extent, but the term itself is best avoided because of its species-specific implications. While intention-reading is regarded uniquely human by Tomasello, this is rather a “side-effect” of a more advanced general cognition as noted previously. This account places importance on the pre-linguistic communication, upon

which the linguistic communication is then built (Tomasello 2008). The example of bridging the “chasm” can be a young child pointing to the television and, in a lack of a better or not yet acquired word, saying “Daddy” to express its desire for watching television. The linguistic symbols such as “TV” or “turn on” will only become available to the child afterwards as markers of his intention. The child’s mastering of the new words will require him/her to understand the fact that they lack the necessary vocabulary, the need to learn it and, at the same time, to have the ability of using only partially linguistic communication to reach their goals. A similar example is that of acquiring any other word for a particular object. For instance, in the acquisition of the word “table”, the bridging of the “chasm” is less obvious because the table is visually observable as a physical manifestation and the parent’s usage of the word is accompanied with the gaze towards it. In this case, the bridging requires less cognitive activity since perception rather than abstract thinking is what is required for the acquisition of the “new” notion. As Crain and Thornton explain it:

“Advocates of the usage-based account highlight the availability of relevant cues in the input to children. These cues serve as the basis for the generalizations that children form about language. These generalizations are formed using general purpose learning mechanisms including distributional analysis, analogy, cut and paste operations, and the like. The products of these learning algorithms are ‘shallow’ records, which children keep of their linguistic experience” (2012: 186).

Finally, by the time the child has learned to produce the whole utterance, to turn off or on the television, the child already understands the motive and the reference. This means that the child understands the reason for turning on the television and what the entire process (turning on of the television) which is being referred to means. This is precisely why Tomasello renders a complete utterance to be the smallest communicative unit, since one can express full intention only via such construction. Thus, in order to understand how language acquisition operates, one needs to understand the ways by which the grammar operates. It might seem that the first thing that the child learns in a language is a word, but according to this account it is quite the opposite. While the word may be what is first uttered, it surely is not what is first learned. The child first listens to the conversations, utterances and with the help of observation and deduction, the child tries to figure out the meaning of an individual word. It is the function of the word in a sentence, as well as the meaning of the surrounding elements, that will guide the child’s analytical attempt to uncover the word’s meaning (Tomasello 2008: 74). Clearly, one cannot extrapolate the meaning of a word just by analyzing one utterance. The child remembers the series of utterances in which the particular word was mentioned and, like in mathematics, the child uncovers the meaning of the constant (the word) with the help of several equations (utterances).

Lastly, the second cognitive skill of central importance to language acquisition, according to Tomasello, is pattern-finding. The first difference between pattern-finding and intention-reading is that pattern finding is spread among all primates (Tomasello 2008: 86). Pattern-finding, sometimes called the pattern-recognition, is the analytical process of finding regularities and extracting the relevant data from the input, which is language in this case. Recursion seems to be viewed as a by-product of the human’s cognitive constraints as well as the pragmatic limitations related to discourse. Before assuming the universality of grammar, one must first take into consideration the fact that cognitive skills and the same analytical thinking is universal as well, which makes it plausible to regard the universality of grammar as a by-product of the stated processes. As Pinker puts it when referring to the similar word-order across languages,

“The second counter explanation that one must rule out before attributing a universal of language to a universal language instinct is that languages might reflect universals of thought or of mental information processing that are not specific to language... Perhaps subjects precede objects because the subject of an action verb denotes the causal agent (as in Dog bites man); putting the subject first mirrors the cause coming before the effect” (1995: 235)

The analytical process is also accounted for in the proposal called *Conservative Learning* (Snyder 2007). At the earliest stage of acquisition, children are assumed to be reproducing the expressions that they encountered in their linguistic environment (Crain and Thornton 2012: 187). According to this view, innate language capacity is redundant in the process of learning. Mastering the new linguistic constructions relies completely on input and the learners’ experience. Conservative

learning seems to be in alignment with Tomasello's claims, which is why he remains theoretically defensive of such a learning model.

3. Poverty of the stimulus

One of the most discussed and perhaps the most challenging issue within the usage-based theory is question of verb acquisition. Naturally, not every word-class presents the same amount of difficulty upon its acquisition. Verbs seem to be conceptually more demanding than nouns, partially because the comprehension of them, as stated previously, requires more than simple perception and the understanding of the corresponding actions (Tomasello and Brandt 2009: 1994). Indeed, nouns may denote abstract concepts, but the nouns encountered or learned in the earliest stages of childhood are often those denoting nearest objects. In order to examine the acquisition of verbs, Tomasello and Brandt conducted a research relying on the diaries that were supposed to be led by children's parents in which they would keep track of the 10 instances where the targeted verbs were used, that is, 10 utterances that contained the verbs. Finally, the results showed that the average time for children's usage of the acquired verb in ten instances was around one month (2009: 116). In 75% of the cases children would use different agents or locations with the same verbs. At first glance, it may seem that the nativist account benefits from such findings, since one month's time is hardly a long period for such accomplishment if the child's average daily use of language is taken into consideration. According to this perspective, these results indicate that children are truly flexible in their language use or the use of verbs¹. Nevertheless, the issue remains on whether children come to know more than they could have learned from the input and whether this piece of evidence supports it.

The argument of children coming to know much more than they could have simply absorbed through input is often emphasized by the nativist paradigm. The logic behind the generative linguistic tradition states that the capacity to go beyond the input provided in the environment proves that people have grammatical categories and rules already inborn. Flexibility, however, is not necessarily a proof of innateness hypothesis. The real issue might be the one of productivity, which is very different from flexibility. Children's capacity of great flexibility can prove to be within the boundaries of what has been provided in the input, especially if we were to talk about the syntactic or morphological flexibility. Indeed, children seem to learn a new manner in which the verb can be used every time they hear it. However, productivity implies that something is used in a completely different or "new" way, whether morphologically or syntactically. As Tomasello and Brandt put it, "And so flexibility with particular verbs does not signal lexically general productivity across all verbs, unless one has evidence that the flexibility is due to a child's creative generalization and not simply to a reproduction of adult flexibility with each particular verb individually" (2009: 120). The main point that Tomasello and Brandt are aiming at is that it is impossible to know what the child has produced anew without having the records of the input the child encountered. Normally, such records ought to contain the input of the last several days the child has heard, rather than a single one. This leads us to the conclusion that any attempt of investigating productivity without the complete records of the input is futile.

In some cases, the acquisition of number words has also proven to be as troublesome for the child as the acquisition of verbs. In order for acquisition of a number word to occur, such as "four" for instance, the child must understand the meaning behind it, the meaning which is nothing less abstract than that of a verb. Of course, it is necessary that the child learns to understand the difference between regular nouns or words and those indicating numbers. In order for that to occur, the child's awareness of the fact that the "four" symbolizes "fourness" is mandatory and although seemingly trivial, how they attribute the meaning to the word remains a mystery. Syrett et al. (2012) provide an explanation closer to the nativist perspective. The argument is that children clearly need to have certain concepts, such as cardinality and ordinality, already innate (cardinality marking the number of things that are contained somewhere and ordinality marking a particular sequence the number is a part of which). Uncovering the meaning of a word becomes inaccessible through merely syntactic

¹ However, it needs to be noted that such characterizations or assessments of one's flexibility are always subjective or arbitrary, even when put forth by scholars such as Tomasello.

context (Syrett et al. 2012: 187). Such words are then learned in games that have the counting context, and children can easily understand what the number denotes. For example, someone pointing to dolls and saying: *Look at those three dolls*.

A particularly convincing argument going against the nativist line of thought regarding this argument comes from Bod (2009) and van Cranenburgh et al. (2016). One of the main claims of Bod (2009) is that the linguistic input is not as underdetermined as is usually assumed. The results of the application of the computer model in Bod (2009), known as the *Unsupervised Data-Oriented Parsing* (U-DOP), onto language learning indicate that the knowledge of grammatical constraints can be learned from the input without postulating any innate linguistic knowledge, i.e. that children could hypothetically derive their own generalizations about grammaticality of certain syntactic constructions relying solely on the input they receive. The results provided by these models represent a major argument in favour of the usage-based approaches (*inter alia*, Goldberg 1995 & 2006, Bybee 2006, Tomasello 2008)¹.

4. Syntactic bootstrapping

One of the reasons why the acquisition of verbs is often discussed is because a verb's lexical meaning is inseparable from the syntactic characteristics of a sentence. Moreover, the relationship between the verb's position within a sentence and its lexical meaning seems to work bilaterally. For instance, verbs are often labelled as either transitive or intransitive and the labelling stems from the relationship between the verb and a nearby object, or better to say – the way the verb's meaning is influenced by that object. One issue, easily verifiable, is the order by which children acquire the language and is generally agreed upon. Since the first thing that the baby produces is the string of sounds (babbling), phonological development is observed first and is then followed by lexical (one-word stage), morphological, syntactic (full sentence stage) and finally pragmatic development (O'Grady & Whan Cho 2016). Nevertheless, the debate is on whether the sequence is as clear-cut as argued. For instance, how is it possible that the lexical development precedes the syntactic if the verb's meaning becomes determined by the syntactic environment in the sentence? One explanation is provided by the nativists – the child must have been equipped with full syntax from birth, but the demonstration of the innate knowledge is postponed due to practical reasons – how is the child supposed to demonstrate innate grammar without being able to form a full sentence first. Another explanation is provided by those advocating the usage-based account – innate syntax is not necessary at all because the child is intelligent enough to infer the lexical meanings by using skills previously mentioned (cf. §2).

The proposal that children are equipped with innate knowledge of grammatical categories that helps them deduce meaning and acquire language effortlessly, is called syntactic bootstrapping (Brown: 1957). More accurately, the innate syntactic knowledge is applied to the received input. There are several different explanations for the origins of the syntactic bootstrapping, one of which is structure-mapping account and it states: "On this account, syntactic bootstrapping begins with an innate bias toward one-to-one mapping between NPs in sentences and semantic arguments of predicate terms. Given this bias, children gain some syntactic guidance for verb interpretation as soon as they can identify some nouns in sentences" (Messenger et al. 2015: 357). One-to-one mapping refers to the children's ability to recognize that a certain verb refers to the two nouns in its surroundings, that is – the child understands the possible roles of nouns as either "agents" or "patients". For example, parents may speak about the ski trip they took some time ago in front of a toddler, and since the trip is not occurring in the present in front of a toddler, he/she relies on whatever information of the event that can be extracted only from the linguistic input. In a sentence "Jack yelled at Tom", the toddler might notice the fact that there are two participants in question, while in "Tom left", the number of participants is reduced to one (the intransitive "leaving"). "Implicit learning of these linguistic-distributional facts could permit children to establish an initial lexical entry for a verb, including its syntactic properties and aspects of its semantic structure (two participant-roles vs. one), but leaving unspecified its semantic content.

¹ It is also worth mentioning that some aspects of U-DOP described in Bod (2009), namely the MPSD (*Most Probable tree generated by the Shortest Derivation*), feel reminiscent of the 'Good Enough' approach described in Ferreira et al. (2002) and Ferreira and Patson (2007).

If children create such entries, and retain them over time, then these linguistic observations could guide later inferences about each verb's event-derived semantic content" (Messenger et al. 2015: 357). The experiment was conducted on children that were 22 months old. The researchers invented the verb "blick" for the purposes of the two-phased experiment. In the first phase of the experiment, children were exposed to whether transitive or intransitive forms of the verb by watching two women discussing some event that was not related to the present. During the second phase children were supposed to pick one of the two actions presented upon hearing the isolated verb (find "blicking") – one woman was raising the leg of another (two-participant event), while in other, the two women did not mind each other in their actions (one-participant event) (Messenger et al. 2015: 359). In the end, the results showed that the children exposed to the dialogues using the transitive "blick" during the first phase ("Bill was blicking a duck"), stared longer at the two-participant event during the second phase, and for those that were hearing the intransitive "blick" ("Bill was blicking") looked longer at the one-participant event (Messenger et al. 2015: 364).

Similar effects in acquisition of verbs are reported in Goldberg et al. (2004) and Boyd and Goldberg (2009). The results based on a spoken corpus consisting of utterances produced by mothers and their children show that the acquisition of a particular syntactic construction (e.g. a ditransitive construction) typically involves a few verbs which instantiate the prototypical relationship between the verb and its arguments within that construction and these few verbs constitute the majority of the tokens in the corpus. This allows the learners to associate the meaning predicated by the verb with the meaning of the entire construction and, thus, make generalizations which allow for further creative uses of the construction using other verbs.

The results seem to suggest that the children are truly able to extract the information about the verbs by simply listening to language. Basically, children gather the linguistic clues that will aid them in uncovering the meaning of the verb in question. This type of learning is called distributional learning. It is a type of learning where the clues, that are taken in different instances from different syntactic and semantic contexts, are linked together to uncover the meaning of the verb in question. In other words, every time when the particular word is mentioned, the child memorizes the way of its usage and maps it together with the information from all the previous mentioning of the word. When it comes to acquisition of verbs, a study by Theakston et al. (2004) has shown that there is no significant difference in the acquisition between the semantically more complex verbs and those that are used on a general basis (phrasal verbs such as find, make, go etc.). Naturally, one would assume that these might appear more often, especially when it comes to speech in children. However, while general verbs did appear more frequently in children's speech, the ratio was still the same as it would have been in adult language (Theakston et al. 2004: 90). It seems that the children's language reflected the input. The studies covered by this paper indicate that children are indeed capable of drawing conclusions from language alone and that they rely heavily on the input. If we take into consideration children's usage of cognitive skills within the learning process, as well as the role of the input, it becomes unclear how the argument of "bootstrapping" becomes necessary for the explanation of acquisition. Innate knowledge would be a redundant addition to a child whose learning is distributional and thus it would also be redundant in the unlocking of the mystery of language acquisition.

5. Syntax-semantic interface

We have so far analysed the connection between the meaning and syntax in the acquisition of verbs, or more precisely, how the verb's meaning is influenced by syntax. According to Chomsky, the grammar is unrelated to meaning: "Grammar is best formulated as self-contained study independent of semantics..." (2002: 102). This is somewhat expected because the nativist account separates the innate grammar from input, to which grammar is then applied (essentially the child's acquisition comes down to the acquisition of a particular lexicon). When grammar is treated separately from meaning, the proposal that any demonstration of language, is a language acquired, even when nonsensical, becomes valid. For instance, children with cognitive disabilities often speak nonsensically, probably because their interpretation and understanding of the world is different from usual. Moreover, there are other possible reasons for the nonsensical language. Certain linguists that oppose the nativist standpoint, have proposed that "English-speaking children lack what they call the (pragmatic)

Concept of Non-Shared Assumptions (CNSA), i.e., the notion that “speaker and hearer assumptions are always independent.” As long as children lack this concept, they will not consistently take their hearer’s assumptions to be different from their own, and thus they will sometimes fail to distinguish common ground contexts from speaker beliefs-only contexts, leading to incorrect article use” (Lillo-Martin & Muller de Quadros 2011: 634). Thus, the proper usage of language depends on the understanding of it. Ultimately, the issue whether something has been acquired or not, regardless of the proper usage and understanding, becomes a matter of perspective, something that should be avoided in science and which is why we examine the issue further in continuation. Certain evidence suggests that the “understanding” part does not accompany this “articulatory” part fully. For instance, 6-year-old children find the acquisition of telicity problematic, that is, they are incapable of discerning telic from atelic events – meaning that they reportedly fail to detect whether the event in question has ended or not (Yin & Kaiser 2013: 457). Hence the predicament of whether we can truly argue that something has been acquired regardless of the lack of comprehension.

6. Parallel Architecture and Construction Grammar

One of the most intriguing recent developments in the issue of architecture of language comes from Ray Jackendoff’s Parallel Architecture (PA) (Jackendoff 2007 & 2011, Jackendoff & Audring 2016). This approach represents a step away from the syntactocentric models of linguistic models in mainstream generative grammar by regarding language as being made up of three independent generative levels – phonological, syntactic and semantic, connected via interfaces and by rejecting the strict lexicon-grammar dichotomy (Jackendoff 2007).

While PA may not tackle the issue of language acquisition directly, the evidence that Jackendoff provides upon explaining language processing can surely be applied within the theory of acquisition. The fact that the language needs to be processed in order to be acquired is one of the implications of usage-based approach. The difference between the mainstream generative approach and PA is well observed in their approach to sentence building. In the generative tradition, sentence building is viewed as accumulative process, where grammar appears to be working step-by-step. For instance, one constituent combines with another to form a new one, which can be further combined with something else and the process, if needed, can supposedly continue indefinitely. The problematic implication of such perception on sentence building is that meaning is built step-by-step as well. If the mediator between sound production and the production of meaning is syntax, and grammar supposedly operates step-by-step, then the production of meaning must operate in the same way. Such approach to syntax and meaning is severely undermined by phenomena such as constructional idioms and the so-called ‘syntactic nuts’, like the N-P-N construction (Culicover & Jackendoff 2005, Jackendoff 2008). Building meaning step-by-step implies that syntactic structure is built first, after which the integration of lexemes (units equipped with meaning) follows with the goal of creating a meaningful sentence, the meaning of which is revealed at the end. As Jackendoff puts it, “The classical architecture, by contrast, implicitly claims that combinatorial thought is impossible without language, because structured semantics relies completely on syntactic combinatoriality. This leaves it a total mystery how other primates manage to do the complex things they do, both in the physical world and in their social environment” (2007: 7). The meaning, instead, is probably a by-product of a mutually combinatorial syntax-semantics relationship, rather than the simple “syntactic combinatoriality”. For illustration, Jackendoff provides an example where transitivity exposes this meaning influenced syntax. The verb “devour” is a transitive verb, which means that it requires at least two participants for the action – someone who is devouring and someone who is being devoured (2007: 10). The fact that the sentence requires a direct object proves that the semantic characteristics of the verb govern the rest of the sentence, direct object of which is an inevitable prospect. Object as such is the syntactic operator imposed by the meaning itself.

Similarly, Jackendoff uses the idiom “kick the bucket” to challenge the generative approach to grammar. This particular example is interesting as it reveals a non-correlative relationship between the meaning that would be deduced step-by-step and the actual meaning “to die”. Of course, this idiom is not an isolated case of such a relationship. In fact, all genuine idioms are characterized by “idiomaticity” (meaning cannot be deduced from the idiom’s constituents). Such idioms are found and identified across other cultures and languages. In the Russian linguistic tradition they are recognized as

phraseological fusions (Vinogradov 1986), while in the Anglo-Saxon tradition as idioms of decoding (Makkai 1972). Idioms such as “white elephant”, or “spill the beans”, are textbook examples of these semantically non-motivated structures. Again, the existence of partially lexically filled idioms, i.e. idioms with an open syntactic slot (such as *jog X's memory*, *send X to the cleaners*), poses a great challenge for the dictionary-and-grammar model prominent in the generative grammar. On one hand, these syntactic patterns should be stored within the lexicon/dictionary component of the language faculty as they are idiosyncratic and have non-compositional meaning, but on the other hand, they are completely productive and regular, which is why they should be a part of the grammar/syntax module. It would seem that the only plausible conclusion is to reject the division of language into syntax and lexicon and regard it as a continuum with various degrees of schematicity, which is problematic for the nativist accounts, but represents one of the foundations of PA and Construction Grammar (CxG)¹.

Research has also shown that children store plural nouns they use frequently as separate lexical items in their mental lexicons (Jackendoff 2011: 590), meaning that the redundancies are an integral part of the mental lexicon. Jackendoff is equally critical of the traditional approach to phonology-syntax relationship, the traditional approach being that there is no relationship. According to him, a sentence like “*Sesame Street is a production of the Children's Television Workshop*” (2007: 5), testifies that there is a correlation indeed, which is evident through the analysis on both phonological and syntactic level:

(1) Syntax: [Sesame Street] [is [a production [of [the Children's Television Workshop]]]]

Phonology: [Sesame Street is a production of] [the Children's Television Workshop] or

[Sesame Street] [is a production] [of the Children's Television Workshop]

The aim of this analysis is to expose the fact that the constraints exist on the phonological level. One cannot choose to pronounce a particular utterance in whichever manner they please. Certain linguistic conventions require certain level of abundance, for both pragmatic and comprehensive reasons. Besides, it is clear that these phonological constraints somewhat correspond to syntactic ones. Indeed, the two patterns obviously differ. However, even in such case, phonological manifestation of utterance is still guided both syntactically and semantically to a certain level. It would sound rather awkward if someone pronounced the utterance in the following way:

[Sesame] [Street is a] [production of the Children's] [Television Workshop]

Another important aspect of PA is the disapproving stance towards the idea of grammar as a separate linguistic component. Likewise, the acquisition of grammar cannot then occur separately. The theory of language acquisition where the child's acquisition of grammar occurs along with the semantic acquisition needs to be considered.

As already mentioned (§1.), the Chomskyan approach to grammar renders input as something that accommodates our innate codified grammar. If such contentions were interpreted as rigidly as they were posed, one could deduce that all utterances used regularly by us do not violate particular language's syntactic constraints. As anticipated, there are numerous examples in adult speech where this is not the case. The examples of such constructions are provided by Pinker and Jackendoff (2005: 220):

(2)

- a) *Off with his head! Into the trunk with you!* (only PP and NP)
- b) *How about a cup of coffee? How about we have a little talk?* (“How about” X?)
- c) *What, me worry? Him in an accident?* (Mad Magazine construction)
- d) *One more beer and I'm leaving.* (NP and a sentence)

¹ Although not explicitly working in this framework, a similar conclusion is provided by Giegerich (2005) for adjective-noun constructions with associative adjectives.

e) *The more I read, the less I understand.* (covariational-conditional)

Again, the existence and regularity of these constructions poses a great challenge for the generative framework for several reasons. Apart from the aforementioned issue of their location in the lexicon-syntax dichotomy, a major problem for the nativist approach would be to explain how these constructions emerged in language in the first place and how they are learned or stored (depending on the module of language to which they are assigned). Innate grammatical rules would have to be broken in order for these construction to be learned, while storing them in the lexicon would require a huge amount of memory being reserved for storing each possible instantiation. At the same time, the cases in (2) represent a major point of interest for and are easily integrated into various instantiations of Construction Grammar (*inter alia*, Goldberg 1995 & 2006, Kay & Fillmore 1999, van Trijp et al. 2012, van Trijp 2016). One of the main points of all Construction Grammars is that language consists of learned pairings of form and meaning with varying degrees of specificity and the number of these pairings is continuously extended through exposure to language and generalizations drawn from this exposure.

Tomasello (2000) provides similar examples that prove the human capacity for acquisition of “highly abstract” and yet productive constructions. Similar to the “Mad Magazine” construction is the incredulity construction posed in exclamatory fashion, with the non-finite verb and subject in the accusative case: *Him be a doctor! My mother ride a motorcycle!* (2000: 236). There are other syntactic idiosyncrasies listed by Tomasello (2000: 237) such as:

(3)

a) *It's amazing the people you see here. It's ridiculous how long it takes.* (nominal extraposition construction)

b) *I wouldn't live in Boston, let alone in New York. She won't ride the stationary bike, let alone lift weights.* ('let alone' construction (Fillmore et al. 1988))

The implication of these problematic constructions seems to be that learning occurs “from input”, and not “with input”. The distinction becomes important since it means that input is not something that merely adheres to the already innate grammatical rules. If anything, it is grammar that adheres to the input here. It is viable to assume that certain segment of language might be learned through “imitation”. Moreover, the assumption that children’s analogical skills are the main language learning method becomes justified with the existence of these idiosyncratic constructions, such as the “let alone” construction, which are claimed to be acquired in the same way as the canonical syntactic constructions, such as the transitive and the ditransitive construction. At first, the child learns the constructions as isolated cases, but later realizes their productive potential. As Tomasello puts it, “there is continuity not of structures [...] but there is continuity of process in the sense that the processes of learning and abstraction are the same wherever and whenever they are applicable...” (2000: 237).

Another piece of evidence comes from the children’s early speech. Innate grammar presumes that grammatical errors basically do not exist. It is as if children were equipped with a particular word order which they so obediently practice (not to mention the existence of various word orders across languages). For instance, research has shown that children tend to make inversion mistakes in formation of wh-questions. A question “*Why can't they go?*” is often substituted with “*Why they can't go?*” (Tomasello 2008: 81). Of course, the question is often formed without the mistakes in grammar. Nevertheless, the only thing inherent to child’s language is inconsistency and not the supposed grammatical rulebook. Undoubtedly, “obedience” of grammatical rules will eventually prevail, but through practice and habit, rather than innateness. The inversion errors in wh-question may be the consequence of lacking input in these matters (questions being less used than statements in adult speech). Naturally, the nativist account dismisses the fact that frequency of input or the “motherese” play any relevant role in the acquisition of language. Even if the interpretation takes a different direction, where the assumption is that passive constructions and wh-questions are heard just as much in the input as statements, the problem remains for the nativist account to explain the longer period of time that the acquisition of these constructions requires (Tomasello 2008: 84).

A research carried out by Keren-Portnoy and Keren on toddlers showed that “the rate of learning new verbs in a structure is a function of the stage of acquisition of that particular structure rather than of the stage of syntactic development in general or the cognitive system (or the brain) in general” (2011: 427). The important thing to note is that the syntax seems to be acquired gradually. It was evident from the word-order errors made by children in clause formation that the acquisition was gradual since the errors were reducing through time. Greater amount of structures already acquired accelerated the acquisition process of new structures. This should certainly not be interpreted as a confirmation of the children’s syntactic endowment, but as evidence for children’s analytical approach to language and grammar upon acquisition.

7. Conclusion

Two of the most renowned theories of language acquisition were outlined and discussed in the paper, with the focus on syntactic evidence. Nevertheless, the definition of language acquisition as such was not provided, although it is often central for the debate of the issue, as it often differs between the two accounts as well. For instance, we may argue that process of language acquisition has finished when the learner can truly understand the messages conveyed in various communicative situations. However, this line of reasoning leads us to conclude that process of acquisition is never-ending. Language itself is in the process of constant changes, with its lexicon being extended every day with new words, phrases and idioms. While the argument may appear as somewhat arbitrary and “unfair” in terms of our discussion, the legitimacy of it is difficult to refute, as it illustrates the complexity of language acquisition and its theoretical definition. From the discussion it becomes apparent that both theories have difficulty concurring on the matter of when the language acquisition truly ends. For an illustration of comprehensive problems, Jackendoff uses the example at Logan Airport in Boston where the sign said *Every airplane does not carry pets* (2011: 198). The adult person that encounters this sign can deduce two possible interpretations: one is that “none of the airplanes carries pets”, and the other that “not every airplane carries pets”. The adult person which is both syntactically and semantically competent by now is suddenly having problems with the extrapolation of meaning. The tree diagram of this sentence would not be helpful as well since it would not reveal more than one possibility. At this point, the only thing that the person can use to deduce the meaning is logic, and not their linguistic competence. This example may help us in understanding of the language acquisition process in children. If the child had encountered this sign it would have to rely on their analogical skillset rather than supposed “innate grammar”. The “acquisition” will then depend on the logical process of unlocking its elusive meaning. The polysemy of the airport sign is rooted in the sign’s defective logical construction. The fact that the adult will have trouble in unlocking the meaning of the sign only confirms that the nature of acquisition depends on extra-linguistic cues. This particular situation is identical to almost every situation in which a toddler encounters a new syntactic construction. The child will, just like an adult person, use previously acquired knowledge and analogical skills to deduce its meaning and in the case of failure – the child will figure out and memorize the next best thing – the new syntactic construction, particular word’s meaning etc. The second important debate related to language acquisition, besides the problematic definition of the process, is found in the question of language emergence. Something that had never existed suddenly appeared among the humanoid race. Nevertheless, the speculative part about the route of evolution can equally be applied to other cognitive capacities developed in humans. Moreover, it is not that language’s emergence was so sudden after all – highly developed communication systems are found across animal kingdom. The advocates of cognition-language interdependency claim that language originated from unified voicing, emotional intelligence and concept-understanding (Perlovsky 2009: 519). Vygotsky, on the other hand, argued that “language and cognition originate independently but become interdependent” (1934/1962, cited in Harley 2014: 89). Language as we define it today is often claimed to be far more intricate and complicated than communication systems found among animals. This overestimation of language’s complexity is often given by nativists. Provided that this characterization is a legitimate one, it is still quite possible, if not obvious, that this complexity may have emerged as a by-product of human intelligence and evolved cognition.

The estimation of language’s complexity might very well be the “apple of discord” between the two accounts discussed in the paper. Within the nativist tradition, language and grammar are seen as too complex to be learned with such ease –

which is why they must be innate. The advocates of the usage-based account perceive the acquisition of syntax as a piecemeal process, evidently such because of the countless errors made during the acquisition. Grammar is indeed complex, but mastered easily because of the advanced cognition children are equipped with - children's use of "...mentalistic cues – such as eye gaze and emotional expression (Bloom 2001: 1100)" and the "attainment of object permanence" (O'Grady & Dobrovolsky 1997: 81) being crucial mechanisms of language acquisition. Some of the evidence provided in the paper can be interpreted from both standpoints, mostly because the assessment of acquisition speed is arbitrary. The process of language acquisition is considered too rapid to be relying on cognition by nativists, and too slow to be regarded innate by advocates of the usage-based account. In this paper, we argued that cognition holds the key to language acquisition. Syntactic marking is mastered individually by making logical generalizations using the received input. The child is forced to learn the language of its environment and we can assume that the child's entire cognition is directed towards interpretation of the surrounding language. To us, nativism does not appear as a valid answer to the problem of acquisition, and it is partly so because of this adamant characterization of language as being separate from cognition.

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The Characteristics of a Successful EFL Teacher in the Learners' eyes

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Abstract

There are two major interrelated reasons behind examining the topic of this paper. In fact, even after many years of their learning English as a foreign language, a large number of secondary school students' level of proficiency in the language is so low that they cannot use it communicatively, and cannot major in it at university, either. Accounting for their underachievement, a large percentage of such students claim that many teachers still play traditional roles in the teaching-learning process, which has contributed to the problem. The main purpose of this paper, therefore, is to explore the extent to which such a claim is justifiable. In this frame of reference, a questionnaire was administered to a certain number of students on the extent to which the teacher is responsible for the issue, as well as what they personally think the key characteristics of a successful EFL teacher are. Along with this, the paper will equally look at other qualities that ought to be available in EFL teachers with the overall aim of helping them to do their job successfully, and hence attain the expected learning results.

Keywords: English; foreign language; EFL learners; EFL teacher; teacher roles, affective roles; academic roles, teacher development

Introduction

Achieving a good level of proficiency in English as a foreign language among a high percentage of secondary education students in many Tunisian schools is still a formidable challenge for both the teacher and the learner even after many years of formal instruction in the language. There must be diverse objective reasons behind the issue. In this setting, wondering about the various reasons behind the issue, many EFL teachers believe invincibly that the main reason is mainly related to an educational system which has proved unable to meet students' and their parents' expectations. Many others think that what lies at the root of the problem is lack of enough exposure to the language, in the sense that the classroom is often the sole environment where students are exposed to it. However, whenever asked about the causes of their low level of proficiency in English with the aim of prompting them to improve, a lot of secondary school EFL learners, as pointed out above, lay part of the blame on the teacher. This could be claimed to be justifiable in case the teacher adopts traditional ineffective roles in teaching the language and in dealing with the students both as learners and humans. By implication, in order for the EFL teacher to get round the problem of her or his students' underachievement in the language, it is recommended that s/he should assume particular affective and academic roles as one drastic measure that can contribute to effective teaching and successful learning.

What lies at the root of the problem?

A questionnaire was administered to 117 fourth-year Tunisian secondary school students from two different schools. They were asked to which extent they think the teacher is responsible for the learners' low proficiency level in English. The results of the questionnaire show that the smallest percentage of answers (23.93%) is the one that does not consider the teacher responsible for the learners' low level in English. About 50% of the questioned students think that s/he is to reproach to some extent, whereas 31 out of 117 students representing a remarkable percentage of 26.50% believe that s/he is to blame for the problem to a great extent. These results would prompt us to investigate what should be done on the part of an EFL instructor, so as to redress the state of affairs.

For the sake of delving a little deeper into the matter, the same number of students (117) and one class of second-secondary school students totaling 33 individuals from another school were requested to specify what they blame their EFL teachers for in regard to their low achievement in English. Their overall answers center around a number of undesirable aspects of behavior related to the teacher's affective and academic roles. Below are examples:

Examples of undesirable aspects of behavior related to the teacher's affective roles:

unfriendly; not understanding; does not call us by our names; often nervous; shouts at us; does not respect students; indifferent to students' problems; mocking students; punishing students; too severe; favors some students at the expense of others.

Examples of undesirable aspects of behavior related to the teacher's academic roles:

lazy; sitting most of the time; sometimes refuses to explain what students don't understand; can't control class; gives very low marks for oral tests; his tests are very difficult; assigning homework, but doesn't control or correct it; uses difficult words; getting absent.

It is undeniably true that a teacher behaving as described above causes her/his students to scorn her/him and direct their attention from the subject s/he teaches, which is likely to lead to low results.

The same questioned students were asked to list what they think the qualities of a good teacher are. What they listed also pertains to her/his affective and academic roles. Following are examples of such qualities:

Understanding; having a strong personality; can control class; lenient; helps students with tests; gives good marks; involves all students in lessons; friendly; cheerful; uses easy methods in his lessons; treats all students equally (i.e. does not favor certain students at the expense of others); discusses students' personal problems.

All this leads us to deduce that students are really aware that successful teaching can be achieved by the teacher's imperative combining of her/his affective and academic roles, which implies the necessity of adopting a humanistic approach in her/his teaching methodology.

Teacher roles

On the basis of the undesirable aspects of behavior on the part of the teacher mentioned by the questioned students, as well as what I personally noticed among colleagues, a number of teachers still maintain a traditional role. Such a role has two principal characteristics: being authoritarian and speaking most frequently in class. One major reason behind being authoritarian is to maintain discipline in class, as a number of teachers believe. Regarding being the one who speaks most of the time in class, it could be deduced that it may be the result of the teacher's severity, in the sense that a severe teacher may cause many students to be reluctant to participate in learning activities, by reason of their apprehension that they may make mistakes, which they think may provoke an undesirable reaction on the part of the teacher. Another reason is that being accustomed to her/his constant talk in class is very likely to make the students listen to her/him passively much more than playing an active role in lessons.

Accounted for by many teachers, their frequent talk in class is mainly the result of the low proficiency level of many students. Referring to the matter, one teacher once said, "I often feel I am teaching myself."

However, however serious and numerous the difficulties are, a successful teacher does not resort to assuming a traditional role that she herself or he himself may be aware that it cannot bring off the expected learning results.

Teacher affective roles

The affective roles of the teacher are intrinsically associated with her or his relationship with students as a person rather than a teacher in the mere traditional sense of the term. In this sense, Marks (2001: 82) points out that "the term 'affect' includes 'anything to do with the emotions, moods, dispositions and preferences'."

Taking affective factors into account is of considerable importance to the teaching-learning process. These include the learner's personal emotions and interests, and hence her or his positive or negative attitudes towards learning activities. The teacher ought to be aware of the importance of these factors and the necessity of her or his being able to deal with them properly, so as to contribute to the success of the learning process. In this respect, the teacher's affective roles are of crucial significance. Instances of the teacher's key affective roles are examined below.

Friend: Relying on a personal experience and on what the students mentioned in the above questionnaire, a good successful teacher is someone who establishes a good relationship with all students acting as a friend, and treating all of

them on equal terms avoiding to favor brilliant learners over weak ones, or sympathize with males at the expense of females, or vice versa.

Apart from the teacher-student relationship, it is recommended that the teacher establish a good student-student relationship based on mutual respect and cooperation, which can contribute to facilitating the teaching-learning process in an agreeable atmosphere. Richard-Amato (2003) refers to this point arguing that “in classrooms in which mutual respect is lacking, differing values can lead to conflicts between student and teacher, and between student and peer” (p. 66). Therefore, it is imperative – as Ebata (2008) advocates – that teachers “teach all the students the importance of having respect for one another in a classroom, so that each of the students can actively participate in lesson.”

Another factor relating to the teacher’s role as a friend is calling learners by their first names. Doing so is, on the one hand, one aspect of the good teacher-student relationship; it shows the teacher does not keep learners at a distance, but s/he is rather one of them. On the other hand, it motivates the learner and gives her or him some confidence, especially in situations in which s/he is addressed praising expressions followed by her or his first name when s/he answers questions correctly or performs tasks in the right way.

Hess (2001: 16) lists a number of benefits of learning students’ names that concern both the teacher and the learners. She argues that learning students’ names is essential, because

- . it promotes good basic human relationships;
- . it is helpful in monitoring students’ records (test results, attendance, assignments);
- . calling people by their names is basic recognition that they are individuals, and are being respected as such;
- . calling students by their names helps us to call them to order;
- . we begin to feel more comfortable with a class as soon as we know our students’ names;
- . students themselves feel better when they know the names of classmates.

Motivator: Motivation is of a vital role in language learning. In this framework, one of the qualities of a good teacher is someone who is aware of this fact and implements it in class via diverse ways bearing in mind that motivating students frequently can actually pave the way for successful learning, and hence facilitate effective teaching.

Model: Acting as a model is not solely one of the teacher’s academic roles, but it can be included in her or his affective roles. Putting it plainly, the teacher is not only a model for students to follow in teaching them the language, but also in guiding them directly to acquire some moral values and good aspects of behavior by, say, giving them pieces of advice in this respect, or indirectly through positive traits of her or his personality, which arouses their interest in learning. Where the teacher’s personality is concerned, it is irrefutable that it can affect the students’ perception of the teacher and their learning from her or him.

A few students among those questioned about the qualities of a successful teacher mentioned “*strong personality*”, and one female student cited “*elegant*”. In this setting, one ingredient of a person’s personality is the way they are dressed. By implication, one of the characteristics of a successful teacher is maintaining an admirable appearance. This would bring her or him respect and esteem on the part of students. The fact that many of them sometimes try to imitate their teacher in her or his good looks, and would like her or him to have a good opinion on them in this regard shows how important the teacher’s appearance is in their eyes.

In a nutshell, the teacher’s having a good-looking appearance is highly recommended, in view of the fact that students learn better from someone whom they respect and reckon as a model at more than one level.

Fun: One of the definitions of fun according to *Macmillan English Dictionary* (2002) is “someone who you enjoy spending time with, especially because you enjoy the same activities.” In this setting, students usually prefer teachers who are humorous to those who are very often serious and hardworking. A number of students among those to whom the aforementioned questionnaire was administered about the characteristics of a good teacher jotted down words and phrases connected to humor, such as *funny*, *makes pupils laugh*, and *tells jokes*. In the very context, Weiss (1993: 42) points out that “when students are queried about the characteristics of a teacher they most appreciate, they often reply ‘a sense of

humor' and 'the ability to communicate knowledge in an interesting way'." Therefore, an important characteristic of a successful teacher is being personally humorous and introducing humor in her or his lessons, so as to spare students being bored and anxious, and increase their attention span. Maurice (1988) stresses the role of humor in helping acquire or learn languages holding that "[...] much has been written in the field of TESL/TEFL in recent years about the place of affective factors in language acquisition. Humor, as one affective 'technique', can be of some help to us in our task of facilitating acquisition within the classroom." Gagné (1985), in turn, lists a number of instructional functions of humor. These are: (a) activating motivation, (b) informing the learner of the lesson objective, (c) directing attention, (d) stimulating recall, (e) providing learning guidance, (f) enhancing retention, (g) promoting transfer of learning, and (h) eliciting performance.

In a later section dealing with the teacher's academic roles, we will make suggestions for ways of introducing humor in various learning activities relating to the four language skills.

Social worker: Undertaking such a role in the right way requires the teacher to be au fait with the different social backgrounds of learners, their various interests and feelings, as well as their diverse attitudes towards learning.

As it is very likely to be difficult for the teacher to have enough information about all these issues relating to every individual student and recall it, s/he can resort to what is called a background questionnaire, which s/he can keep during the whole academic year, so as to refer to it whenever need be.

A duty of the teacher's as a social worker, and one of the highly-appreciated qualities of a good, successful teacher is helping students with their personal problems, or at least taking them into serious consideration in case of learner frequent absenteeism, misbehavior, unsatisfactory learning performance, or low exam results. Dealing with the teacher's role as a social worker, Wiriyachitra (1995) suggests that "s/he should create an atmosphere of friendliness and trust by listening to students, accepting their ideas/opinions, and if they have any problems finding ways to solve them." Acting as such will certainly cause students to change much for the better at the level of their affect, their conduct, their perception of the teacher, and their view about learning.

Concluding her above statement, Wiriyachitra (1995) affirms that "students will feel relaxed, confident, assured, and not embarrassed. This behavior can definitely lower the students' affective filter which, in turn, may enhance learning." Personally, it is my experience that the students who have got some help from the teacher with their personal problems, and generally enjoy a friendly relationship with her or him show considerable interest in her or his subject matter, and do their utmost to ameliorate their proficiency in it.

In sum, it could be held that by assuming particular affective roles in the right way as those examined above can facilitate the teacher's various academic roles a great deal. Roughly, the very claim is expressed by Arnold and Brown (1999) who point out that "by attending to the affective realm [...], teachers might well find that their whole task becomes easier."

Teacher academic roles

It is argued that in the course of foreign-language classes, teacher roles are sometimes undertaken spontaneously or without the teacher's being aware of what they are. One characteristic of a successful teacher is being knowledgeable about the different roles s/he ought to play and the learning activities that can be best performed through assuming one or more particular roles.

In this section, we will consider the main academic teacher roles that are deemed to be in marked contrast with traditional roles, and on the other hand can help engage students as much as possible in learner-centered activities, and are hence of real benefits to the achievement of successful learning.

It deserves mention that the principal teacher roles that will be examined include other secondary, but important roles as will be discussed.

Group leader: What may count more with respect to the two-term name of this role is its first part, *group*; not *leader*. The teacher acting as a group leader implies her or his being the head of the whole class as one group or divided into a number of small groups, and does – of course – not signify monopolizing the performance of the learning activities on her or his part, because they should rather be student-centered. Rogers (2002: 190) sums up the function of the teacher as head of the group briefly stating that "[i]t is to keep the group together, to keep things going."

The teacher's role as a group leader lies primarily in devising suitable activities compatible with the learning objectives intended to be fulfilled, clarifying the instructions for these activities – acting thus as a manager – so as to ensure everybody understands what to do, and sometimes initiating them, or asking a good student to do so, if need be, for the sake of a better performance by the whole class.

With reference to the above questionnaires, some students stated that one of the characteristics of a successful teacher is making the whole class participate in lessons, while some others expressed roughly the same opinion in different terms asserting that one of the teacher's qualities they disapprove of is caring only for a few good students.

In this frame of reference, the teacher's acting as a manager also involves assisting everybody in taking part in all classroom activities concentrating somewhat more on the shy and low-achieving learners; and in parallel with this, s/he ought not to allow good students to take the lion's share of participation and outpace slow or weak peers in pair or group-work activities. Rogers and Horrocks (2010: 206) refer to such students as *persistent talkers* who try to monopolize the discussion, and recommend that "it is important not to let them wreck the group."

Behaving with students of different levels of proficiency as suggested above requires the teacher to be of an outstanding pedagogical competence and to acquire sufficient knowledge about certain learners' psychological characteristics so as, say, not to embarrass weak learners by prompting them too much to be constantly active and present the desired performance, and on the other hand not to dampen brilliant learners' enthusiasm so frequently that they may feel frustrated and discouraged. Therefore, the teacher should not only be a pedagogue, but also somewhat a psychologist – as it were – in respect of taking into account her or his students' various feelings, emotions, and reactions to the various learning activities, as well as to the ways the teacher should behave with them as persons and her or his attitudes towards their learning performance.

Equally as a group leader, the teacher can function as a promoter of the target-language learning, mainly during group-work activities. Plainly speaking, for instance, as learners tend to use their mother tongue while working in groups, s/he should entice them through diverse ways to keep using the L2 as much as they can.

Group member: Acting as a group member denies the teacher's being considered as authority in the classroom, and opposes the traditional belief that s/he is the only source of knowledge and the sole person who teaches. In point of fact, such a role implies the teacher's performing activities alongside students learning from them while they are learning from her or him. Briefly, in other words, s/he is a teacher and a learner at the same time. Freire (1988: 67) strongly approves of such a role arguing that "the teacher is no longer merely the one – who – teaches, but one who is himself taught in dialogue with the students, who in turn, while being taught also teach." In this way, as Larsen-Freeman (2000: 28) points out, "the teacher and the students are more like partners in the teaching-learning process," which would help students – as Harmer (1998: 9) suggests – to be responsible for their own learning, which is one of the characteristics of good learners.

One practical way of encouraging students to be self-confident and making them realize that they are responsible for their own learning is to allow them sometimes to suggest homework assignments associated with a particular language-skill activity. The teacher together with all the students may agree upon a particular homework assignment for the whole class with the intention of giving all students some freedom to do the homework that suits their ability, thus taking into account the learners' different proficiency levels, so as to guarantee everybody does the assignment.

From the above-considered roles derives the teacher's part as a 'co-communicator' (Littlewood, 1981). This is mainly manifest in her or his participating in various forms of interaction with learners, such as dialogs, role-plays, simulations, and class discussions. The teacher-learner interactions have different aims. For instance, a particular form of interaction may take place between the teacher and a good student as an example for the whole class to follow with the object of facilitating a learning activity before they engage in performing it.

Further, as a mere 'co-communicator', the teacher can, of course, take part in class debates expressing her or his own views, listening to students' arguments, and agreeing or taking issue with them; and on the other hand, giving learners a chance either directly or indirectly to freely comment on her or his opinions and argue for or against them if the situation entails to so do. Behaving as such, the teacher makes it clear for students that s/he is not the domineering teacher who is the lone fountain of knowledge, whose voice is the most frequently resounding in the classroom, and whose standpoints are irrefutable truth. Therefore, since the teacher-learner relationship is horizontal, the teacher is regarded more as a friend – as noted above – and also as a 'co-learner' (by analogy with Littlewood's (1981) use of the term 'co-communicator'). In

this way, students become self-confident or more so, and feel psychologically at ease, and that they learn in a comfortable atmosphere, which spares them apprehension of errors, and thus assists them in expressing themselves freely. All this can be among the key factors that can help promote effective teaching and achieve successful learning.

It is worthy of note that in much ELT writing, considerable mention has been made of the teacher as a learner without actually exploring what s/he can learn from students. In order for the teacher to learn from students, s/he should primarily learn about them. A threefold query, in this regard, is to be raised: a) what should the teacher learn about students? b) What can s/he learn from them? c) What benefits does the teaching-learning process derive from both types of learning?

What the teacher ought to learn about her or his students are specific issues that are connected with their learning and have particular effects on it. It is recommended that the teacher deal with these issues in such a way as to make them affect learning positively. Principal instances of these are discussed below.

. **Language attitudes:** Students have different attitudes, either positive or negative towards the target-language learning depending mainly on their need for the language and their proficiency level in it. In this context, the teacher can assume the role of a psychological stimulator in boosting learners' positive attitudes and helping the students who have negative attitudes to rid them of such attitudes, and create in them positive attitudes, in that these can enhance learning.

. **Learning styles:** These are also referred to as learning strategies. Students of whatever proficiency in the language they are learning have a variety of learning styles on the basis of their command of the language as a whole, as well as their standard in the various language areas. By way of illustration, a student who is good at grammar and weak at mastering vocabulary may find no difficulty in the teacher's methods of teaching grammar, but may find it difficult to learn vocabulary if, for instance, the teacher does not often use the learners' native language. Such a student may prefer that the teacher use the learners' mother tongue, and when learning on her or his own, s/he may use bilingual dictionaries very often in order to comprehend unfamiliar lexis, which is a strategy that can be reckoned as ineffective, especially in case it is resorted to frequently. In this situation, the teacher can assume the role of mentor. S/He ought to encourage student effective learning strategies, but in respect of ineffective learning strategies, it is recommended that – as is the case for learner errors, the teacher should sometimes be tolerant of them. One justification for this argument is that the teacher's disapproval of ineffective learner strategies in one way or another may result in certain negative attitudes towards learning on the part of students. However, the teacher's tolerance of certain ineffective learning strategies can be taken as a temporary measure. In the course of time, as the teacher notices that students' performance is improving, s/he can recommend learners implicitly to get rid of those strategies and substitute them for effective ones.

. **Affective interests:** It is of considerable importance that the teacher be in the know of the students' overall affective interests that are in connection with the learning course. One of the factors through which the teacher can take up the responsibility of a motivator is satisfying those interests as possible as s/he can. What the teacher can take into account, in this regard, are comprehension materials (listening and reading passages), speaking and writing topics (oral and written production), and certain types of activities, such as games, role-plays, and songs. The teacher should often select what can comply with the students' interests, so that they can carry out the desired performance, and hence achieve the expected learning results. By implication, therefore, it is imperative that the teacher should not depend much on the contents of textbooks as one measure that can take part in fulfilling the above-mentioned objective.

. **Language needs:** The most significant learners' need for language is their ability to use it communicatively for diverse purposes, such as entertainment, traveling abroad, and jobs requiring fluency in the language. But, many learners are not aware of their current and future needs for English. In this setting, a further role assumed for the teacher is a counselor. S/He ought to advise students about the necessity of learning English and sensitize them to their needs for it as the most used language for communication worldwide.

Besides what the teacher personally knows about the above-considered issues, using questionnaires, diagnostic tests, and interviews is of considerable assistance in providing her or him with sufficient data about those issues.

Responding to the previously-raised query as concerns what the teacher can learn from students as a 'co-learner', one could hold the claim that s/he can:

. learn how to adjust her/his teaching methodology in accordance with the overall proficiency of the whole class. A teacher who does not know enough about all students' learning abilities and styles may not do so; it is likely that s/he keeps her/his teaching techniques always or often in conformity with brilliant students' level only.

. become more tolerant. Tolerance of learner errors and ineffective learning strategies helps build self-confidence in students, and consequently can aid effective learning. Tolerance also implies patience, which is one of the qualities of a successful teacher. If s/he does not deal patiently with certain challenges, such as students' underachievement and disruptive behavior, s/he is likely to risk feeling frustrated, which may make situations worse.

. easily find out the areas of weakness among students; and in the light of this matter, s/he can prepare a suitable remedial program.

. assume another valuable role: needs analyst. This requires the teacher to select the appropriate instructional materials and devise the learning activities suitable to the language needs of students. Such a role can pave the way for the teacher to get a more important job as a syllabus designer.

Additionally, the teacher as a 'co-learner' can equally learn directly from students, namely bright ones at both cognitive and pedagogical levels. For instance, they can remind her or him of or provide her or him with information s/he has forgotten or s/he does not know. Still, the teacher can learn from students how to approach certain tasks (e.g. problem-solving tasks and games) in a better way and perform them in a shorter time than s/he personally does.

It deserves mention that as a 'co-learner', the teacher should not feel ashamed of or embarrassed by learning from students. S/He ought rather to show them be it explicitly or implicitly that s/he is modest; s/he is not the only dispenser of information nor is s/he a know-it-all, and that s/he can learn from them as they do from her or him, as well as from one another. This is very likely to strengthen the good teacher-student relationship, motivate the whole class, and build or promote learner self-confidence.

In a word, the role assumed for the teacher as a group member can help her or him a great deal discover new key factors of success associated with the teaching-learning process, and can subsequently assist her or him in acquiring a more effective teaching methodology.

Facilitator: This teacher role is equally of paramount importance to the teaching-learning process for it facilitates both the teacher's and students' tasks. The role entails a set of factors in connection with the teacher, the types of learning activities, and the instructional materials.

Assuming the part of facilitator involves particular qualities of the teacher both as a person and an instructor. A couple of such qualities are – as noted above – being humorous and establishing a friendly relationship with students. So far, we have examined how the teacher can be fun as one good trait of her/his personality. We suggest, in the table below, examples of humorous learning activities as a procedure for facilitating learning.

Language skills	Examples of activities
Listening	Listening to songs; exchanging riddles in group-work activities; listening to music while doing another activity.
Speaking	Singing songs; telling jokes; chatting on the Net with English-speaking people; performing funny role-plays; describing a comedian comically; completing a short story funnily; telling riddles.
Reading	Cross-word puzzles; cartoons; reading comic selections; reading funny short stories.
Writing	Writing jokes; writing funny mini-sagas; writing about a trick you played on someone; writing about a trick someone played on you; shadowing the lyrics of a song in writing.

Fig. 1: Examples of humorous learning activities

Ur (2006) refers to the benefit of inserting amusing elements in English courses asserting that

if students are listening to something entertaining, they are likely to attend and get benefits from the listening experience. Moreover, the occasional introduction of components like songs and stories into English lessons can improve student

motivation and general morale, and show the language in a new light – not just as a subject of study, but as a source of enjoyment and recreation (p.63).

Another duty of the teacher as a facilitator is acting as an advisor. As was suggested above, it rests with her or him to increase the students' consciousness of the great value of English as a worldwide medium of communication, and raise their hope for being good or better at using the language communicatively. This can be done through pieces of advice, as well as via providing learners with instructional materials that can assist them in being able to do so, such as newspapers, magazines and short stories; and guide them how to reap profit from them during their autonomous learning.

Equally of potential benefit as a measure for facilitating learning for students and contributing to their becoming effective learners is the teacher's communicating with their families via various ways, and making them feel that they can really contribute to the success of their children's learning. This argument is supported by Kraft and Dougherty (2013). They conducted a study based on a randomized field experiment which found that the frequent teacher communication with students' families increased the learners' engagement and their motivation for learning.

Probably included in the role of the teacher as a facilitator is her or his responsibility as an evaluator, and hence as a promoter of effective learning. In this frame of reference, although tests are an inevitable part of the teaching-learning process as they are the usual means of evaluating the learners' performance, they ought not to be used as gauges to measure the rate of success and failure of students. They should rather be utilized as a mere means to see how much progress they have carried out, and as one stimulus for achieving the expected learning results. For the teacher's part, they also serve to help her or him verify the extent to which the teaching objectives have been attained.

It equally rests with the teacher assuming the part of facilitator to do her or his utmost, in collaboration with colleagues and the school administration, to provide learners with the necessary instructional materials that can ensure a better performance of purposefully-selected learning activities that conform to the students' affective interests and language needs. Further, facilitating the learning conditions for students on the part of the teacher also includes the setting where the teaching-learning process takes place. Plainly, the classroom ought to be a location where both the teacher and students work in a restful and comfortable atmosphere. One matter assuring such an atmosphere, namely in case of large classes, is that learners should be seated in a way that can allow them to work at ease in small or large groups, and make it easy for the teacher to move about, see and hear everybody in the classroom.

Teacher development

Another fundamental hallmark of a successful teacher is being aware of the necessity of professional development as a key factor that contributes a great deal to success.

Defining teacher development

As a process, teacher development refers to the operation of constantly improving one's teaching experience through a wide variety of ways and keeping up with innovative teaching methodologies, so as to do one's job as successfully as one should.

As an outcome of a process, teacher development as defined by Richards and Schmidt (2002: 542) is "the professional growth a teacher achieves as a result of gaining increased experience and knowledge and examining his or her teaching systematically."

Ways of developing as a teacher

It is affirmed that developing as a teacher need not cover only teaching methodology, but also other areas that can aid effective teaching performance, namely general knowledge (necessarily including educational psychology), scientific competence in one's specialty, collecting and developing instructional materials, gaining and bettering class management skills, and so forth. Within a similar framework, it is unwise to restrict teacher development to the in-service training sessions under the guidance of ELT inspectors and teacher trainers. These are not usually enough at all in terms of frequency, and are most often limited only to purely pedagogic matters. It is, therefore, strongly recommended that a teacher seek out ample opportunities and diverse ways of developing herself or himself on her or his own.

Listed below are ways the teacher can develop herself or himself on her or his own.

. Self-evaluating teaching performance on a regular basis. As suggested by Nolasco and Arthur (1995), this can be done by the use of observation sheets, or recording lessons on audio or video tape. The aim behind such a procedure is to overcome weaknesses and boost strengths;

. Observing colleagues' lessons and inviting colleagues to observe your lessons, and devoting enough time to discussion just after each observation;

. Asking students occasionally to jot down what they appreciate and what they do not about the teacher's lesson, as well as what they would suggest how certain activities can be better performed. The teacher should study what students have jotted down at a later time, and take into consideration the useful remarks. Since "teachers can never be quite sure what their students think of them," as Harmer (1998: 3) puts it, learners can also be asked to do the same at the end of the academic year as concerns the teacher's character and her or his teaching methodology during the whole year. This can be written in a sheet of paper without the students' writing their names, so that they can express themselves freely. As recommended above, students' voices in that regard should be taken into serious account, because they can contribute to improvement;

. Devoting time to reading a variety of printed and electronic publications on ELT topics, educational issues, and teacher development. In this setting, Prodromou (1991) suggests subscribing to ELT magazines and journals. This would make the teacher avidly interested in reading, and thereby enlarge her or his knowledge in the field of English language teaching;

. Trying to contribute articles on ELT subjects and/or educational concerns to journals and magazines. Publishing articles is very motivating; it enhances reading and searching on the mentioned areas, which subsequently assists teacher self-development;

. Taking part in setting up a specialized ELT room in educational institutions, where a variety of resources and teaching materials are to be collected in collaboration with the teaching and administrative staff.

Other ways contributing to teacher development proposed by Prodromou (1991) include (a) joining professional organizations, such as IATEFL and TESOL, and attending their conferences whenever possible, (b) forming local teacher's groups and holding regular meetings to discuss common problems, (c) inviting fellow teachers/teacher trainers and guest speakers to contribute lectures and workshops, (d) publishing an ELT newsletter on a local or national scale, and (e) arranging ELT book exhibition with the help of ELT publishers, organizations, such as the British Council, or relevant ministry.

Conclusion

The teacher's assuming the affective and academic roles discussed above can be considerably beneficial to the teaching-learning process. Notwithstanding, it is worthy of note that one may argue that in situations where EFL classes include a sizeable percentage of low-achievers, the teacher playing such roles, especially that of a group member, in accordance of which s/he learns from students while s/he teaches them, with the aim of fulfilling the objective of making students responsible for their own learning may be reckoned as too idealistic. Therefore, EFL teachers, students, and their parents having such a pessimistic view should bear in mind that success cannot be achieved in just one day. No wonder, attaining the desired results is a gradual process. On the other hand, achieving one hundred percent success is beyond even the most successful and most experienced teacher, but achieving some or even the least success is, of course, much better than yielding to disagreeable situations and being hopeless of improving them or changing them for the better.

Aside from the various affective and academic roles a teacher ought to assume with the object of contributing to effective teaching and successful learning, teacher development is a requisite for the same aim. Following from all this, it should also be borne in mind that our real success as teachers does not lie solely in helping good students to be better, but in large measure in assisting low-achievers in being successful learners.

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The Efficacy of Corrective Feedback on L2 Writings of EFL Students

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Abstract

Errors have been perceived as problems within the process of teaching and learning a language. However, especially in writing, learners are able to benefit from their errors with the help of corrective feedback. The purpose of this study is to investigate the effectiveness of explicit corrective feedback in Turkish EFL learners' writing. The participants of the study were 43 intermediate level Turkish EFL students at a private university in Turkey. There were one experimental, 21 students, and one control group, 22 students. As the data collection both groups were administered a pre-test, a post-test and a delayed post-test as a paper and pencil tests. The experimental group received explicit corrective feedback with extended comments on their errors, and the control group received no feedback. Their errors were only underlined without providing correction. The number of errors that each group made in the writings was compared to each other. In order to ensure the reliability and validity, the participants were administered a 5 Likert scale questionnaire after the writing sessions. The results revealed that the experimental group who received explicit corrective feedback made fewer errors than the control group who did not receive feedback on their L2 writings. Besides that, the experimental group made fewer mistakes in their tests compared to the previous ones. Thus, the findings of the questionnaire revealed that students had a positive view about corrective feedback their L2 writings especially if it has extended comments.

Keywords: *L2 writing, corrective feedback, explicit feedback, error correction, feedback, EFL, error, correction*

Introduction

Throughout the history of teaching writing skill in second language (L2) several debates have come up in terms of the effectiveness of error correction. However, both teachers and L2 students are able to benefit from written errors with the help of corrective feedback (CF). Feedback is the explanation provided by the teacher about the performance of the student in an aim to improve student's learning (Voerman, Meijer, Korthagen & Simons, 2012). The aim of feedback is to teach skills to students so that they can improve their language proficiency to an extent which they are aware of what is expected from them as learners, and can produce language with minimal errors. Russel and Spada (2006) stated that it means any type of feedback provided to a learner from any source that includes evidence of learner error of language form. Learners need to be provided with constant feedback and correction in their writings in order to facilitate their writing skills and minimize their errors to the least. Therefore, written corrective feedback is very significant within this process. Moreover, the kind of feedback that learners need when they make errors in writing is significant as well. When checking students' writings, teachers often see that the process of L2 writing requires more effort. At that point the type of feedback that needs to be provided becomes essential. Different learning styles, language levels, ages and purpose of learning are determining factors when providing feedback to language learners.

Literature Review

To date, several studies have been conducted on corrective feedback in order to determine which types of corrective feedback are effective in English as a foreign language (EFL) classrooms. However, the issue of which is the most effective one(s) is still debatable. Truscott (1996; 1999; 2007) claimed that there is no rational evidence that proves the usefulness of error correction in students' writing. He stated that corrective feedback is unable to observe to what extent learners have acquired language and also it is harmful for learners to acquire the language. On the other hand, several scholars have done studies against the claim of Truscott and found out many evidences that prove the ultimate benefit of CF. They stated that learners need to be provided with corrections after making errors so that they can acquire language in a more useful

way. Moreover, with the help of explicit corrective feedback learners get the opportunity to focus on their errors and come to understand what kind of errors they need to correct. It allows learners to self-repair (Lyster, 1997) and it becomes easier for learners to interpret the feedback that they have received.

The efficacy of corrective feedback has been tested in several ways. Carroll and Swain (1993) conducted a study including 100 Spanish adult ESL learners whose level was low elementary. The aim was to teach the structure of dative verbs. They had five different groups —A, B, C, D and E— which were divided into groups according to the type of feedback they received once they made an error. The participants were provided with two feedback sessions following the practice of recall that included production tasks after each feedback's session. Group B-C and D received implicit feedback such as pointing out their errors by stating that they made mistake or recasting. Group A received explicit metalinguistic feedback when they made errors and group E with no feedback as the control group. The results of the study indicated that all group A, B, C and D outperformed group E, the control group. Moreover, group A, which were provided with direct explicit feedback was concluded to have the best output among the others. Later on Carroll conducted a study in 2001, without Swain this time, on the efficacy of explicit feedback in writing. The participants included adult low-intermediate ESL students and the aim was to form nouns from verbs. The participants were divided into groups as they were previously did in the previous study of Carroll and Swain (1993). Learners were given elicited verb and noun constructions within a sentence format. They were provided with different types of corrective feedback to their writings. Eventually, Carroll resulted that all types of feedback helped them to learn the target knowledge, yet only the students who were provided with explicit metalinguistic corrective feedback — group A— were able to generalize the form whereas the others which were provided with implicit feedback did not work in generalization. Therefore, Carroll concluded that among the others, explicit feedback enabled learners to improve L2 knowledge.

Pérez, Fuentealba, Barra, Rojas and Cisternas (2012) conducted a research to examine the impact of feedback on content and structure in writing tasks of EFL students. Participants included three students and a female teacher in the first study. In the second study there were three students and a male teacher. They used structured interview which consisted of six questions in learners' target language, a writing task and a document analysis methodology. The purpose of the interview was to examine learners' opinions and preferences about receiving feedback rather than testing their English knowledge. The document analysis was carried out by examining a collection of students' writing tasks which was done both before and during the examination. The study revealed that students felt motivated to write the task for the second time once they were provided with explicit feedback in terms of content and organization. In the interviews, most of the participants preferred receiving written feedback so that they could be able to comprehend their errors better. Additionally, students' writings seemed to be more improved when they received comments in target language. In 2013 Ulgu, Sari & Griffiths investigated teachers' perceptions of corrective feedback in Turkey. They interviewed 51 non-native Turkish teachers of English with different experiences in several state and private universities in Turkey in an EFL context asking them about when and how corrective feedback is required in both oral and written skills. The results indicated that teachers want to correct learners' errors, and that they are in favor of immediate written and oral correction. As another example of study about teachers' perceptions on corrective feedback Kirgoz and Agcam (2015) interviewed with 36 teachers from various grades in state primary schools. They asked teachers their opinions about the efficacy of corrective feedback and its varieties, about their attitude toward learners' errors and how and when errors should be corrected or whether these errors should be corrected. They resulted that elicitation is the most effective way in correcting errors, following the repetition CF as another effective type. It was concluded from the interviews that explicit correction is an effective CF type used by EFL teachers. In 2016 Chen, Nassaji and Liu conducted a study to examine learners' perceptions and preferences on written corrective feedback in an EFL setting. They interviewed 64 intermediate, advanced-intermediate and advanced English learners in a university. The results showed that most of the students were in favor of error correction despite the fact that they were objective about the role of explicit grammar instruction. Moreover, they strongly preferred detailed comments on both content and grammar of their writings.

As another example of studies which resulted with the positive effect of CF on learners' language competence was conducted by Varnosfadrani and Basturkmen in 2009. They especially focused on explicit and implicit correction and their efficacy in the acquisition of grammatical features on 56 intermediate level Iranian learners of English. The participants were asked to read a text and retell it during an interview. During the interview they were corrected implicitly with recasts or explicitly once they made grammatical errors. The participants had tailor-made tests which were constructed according to the errors that they had made. Their test results were statistically analyzed and they indicated that the learners who

received explicit feedback outperformed those who were corrected implicitly once they made errors. Therefore, the study pointed out the significance of explicit CF in the improvement of learners' metalinguistic knowledge in language learning.

There was a little or no difference between implicit and explicit feedback within some research (Kim & Mathes, 2001; Bitchener & Knoch, 2009; Gholami & Talebi, 2012). In 2001 Kim and Mathes examined the efficacy of implicit and explicit feedback on 20 Korean speakers' use of dative alternation in English. They aimed to find out which one is more useful for the learners. The learners were divided into groups according to the CF type that they received and were trained in dative alternation in the form of one structural change. One group was provided with explicit metalinguistic feedback when they made errors while the other one with implicit error correction in the form of a sentence recast in the correct form. Posttests showed no difference between the groups. Similarly, Bitchener and Knoch investigated the effectiveness of different types of CF over a 10-month period, found out that each of the groups which received one of the feedback performed better than the control group; however, there was no difference in effectiveness between the treatment groups. Gholami and Talebi (2012) conducted a case study which included 45 elementary female learners of English in Iran. The aim was to find out the effect of implicit and explicit feedback on EFL learners' grammatical accuracy especially on regular past tense. These participants were assigned into one control and two experimental groups. The experimental groups were provided recast and explicit feedback with picture description tasks and the control group did not receive any feedback. Learners' acquisition of regular past tense *-ed* was measured with their metalinguistic knowledge and verbal imitation tests. As the analysis of data they used ANOVA and resulted that experimental groups who were provided with explicit feedback did slightly better than the control group. The results also indicated that there were no much differences between the two types of feedback, implicit and explicit, in terms of learners' achievement in an EFL context.

As it is presented within the previous studies, most of students seemed to benefit from corrective feedback on their L2 works. Yet, the type of feedback that would be the best for language learners is not perceived as a single one. In fact, every language learner may prefer different type of corrective feedback related to their age, level, purpose, etc. To the best of my knowledge, there are a few studies conducted in Turkey on the efficacy of corrective feedback on L2 writings of EFL students. With respect to this need, present study aims to examine the efficacy of corrective feedback on Turkish EFL learners' use of indefinite and definite articles in L2 writing.

Research Questions

1. To what extent is corrective feedback effective in Turkish EFL learners' L2 writings?
2. What are Turkish EFL learners' perceptions on corrective feedback that they receive in their L2 writings?

Methodology

Setting and Participants

The present study was conducted at an English preparatory school of a selected private university in Istanbul, Turkey. The study was carried in the researcher's own teaching environment. In this university, the students are supposed to take a proficiency exam before they start studying their departments. All students start studying their departments when they successfully complete A2, B1, B1+ and B2 levels. They are administered an achievement test at the end of each level which lasts 8 weeks. There is no such a thing as failing the level, yet when they finish all levels, their total score out of 4 levels must be 70 or higher grade in total in order to start their departments.

In this preparatory school, there are 34 classes and 764 students. The present study involves two B1 level classes, which consists of 43 students (19 females and 24 males) aged between 18-22.

At the time of the study students had just finished A2 level and started B1 level. Each student has different background English knowledge; some of the students just started learning English as a foreign language in this preparatory program, and some of them had a little previous knowledge of English.

The participants of this study had taken A2 level writing classes, and had been taught the target structures before the treatment. There are two classes which will be called in the study as the experimental group, consisting 22 students (10 females, 12 males) receiving explicit corrective feedback and the control group consisting 21 students (9 females and 12 males) with no feedback on their L2 writing. These participants were randomly assigned to groups to receive different treatments within the study. The reason why B1 level students were chosen as the participants is that they had just

completed A2 level and they were expected to make more errors since they were new to learn English as a foreign language, and also because they do not have enough exposure to the target language and have difficulty in producing what they have learned.

Data Collection Instruments

In order to obtain data about the efficacy of corrective feedback on EFL learners' L2 writings, two types of instruments were used as data source. The first data type was a paper and pencil test type consisting of a pre-test, a post-test, and a delayed post-test. Students were asked to write three different writings in different weeks. Both experimental and control group were administered to the same tasks within same weeks. For the each writing they were asked to write one paragraph with the length of 120 words in 30 minutes. The second data collection instrument was a questionnaire with close-ended questions for the students. This quantitative data was used in order to collect data about EFL learners' perceptions of corrective feedback on their L2 writings.

Questionnaire

The present study administered a close-ended questionnaire in which there are multiple choices and 5 Likert scale ranging from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*. This quantitative data was used in order to examine the general views and perceptions of the students for corrective feedback on their L2 writings. The questionnaire was posed to both experimental and control group after the treatment. The design of the questionnaire (Amrhein & Nassaji, 2010) was adapted to the study with some changes. It started with demographic questions followed by their English level question. The questionnaire was extensively revised to promote its readability and transparency. The teacher translated the questions into students' first language, Turkish, when needed with the back-translation method. Therefore, the teacher translated the questions into English back to ensure that it is equivalent enough to compare the results of the data.

Writing Assignments

Students were expected to write all tests in single 120 words length-paragraph using simple past tense which they had been taught previously in their writing classes. In the first writing assignment, which was considered as the pre-test, they were expected to write about their holiday experience. They were also supplied with content ideas in their writings.

For the post-test, students were assigned to write a letter to their friend explaining their last weekend. They were again supplied with content ideas. Finally, in the delayed post-test students were asked to write a short narrative story with the information provided.

Procedure

The participants were informed that they would be a part of the study. While giving feedback on the writings, the focus was on the target structure as they had just learned them in their writing classes. The writing sessions were held in classrooms and lasted 25-30 minutes. The pre-test was given a week prior to starting the treatment in order to ensure the homogeneity and students' proficiency in L2 writing using the target structure. As stated above, students were assigned to write a paragraph about one of their holiday experiences. They wrote a 120 words length-paragraph using target structure 25-30 minutes. Between the process of pre and post-test the experimental group was given explicit corrective feedback treatments in their writings within the classroom. The post-test was given after both experimental and control group completed their first assignment. The procedure was the same with the pre-test. Yet, this time the experimental group was provided with explicit corrective feedback in their writings. Their errors were identified, corrected and given detailed explanations by the teacher. Students were provided with constant explicit corrective feedback on their L2 writings during writing sessions. The control group received no feedback on their writings; their errors were only underlined by the teacher with no correction. Therefore, they needed to understand and correct their errors by themselves after being informed by the teacher that they had made errors.

After the experimental group received explicit corrective feedback and the control group received no feedback, one week later the students were given a delayed post-test to write a short narrative story in 25-30 minutes. The purpose of giving the same structure was to investigate if students made the same errors and if they could benefit from the type of feedback that they had received when they made errors.

After students completed pre-test, post-test and delayed post-test, the participants were administered the questionnaire the week following. It aimed to find out students' perceptions on the corrective feedback that they had received on their writings. When the whole procedure ended, students' number of errors in their writings in each three sessions and answers on the questionnaire were counted.

Data Analysis

For the analysis of writing assignments, the numbers of errors for both experimental and control group were counted in order to analyze if there occurred and changes after the treatments. The primary purpose of the questionnaire was to elicit students' perceptions of written corrective feedback. Therefore, close-ended questions with multiple choice or Likert scale formats were used to elicit main tendencies of students. In order to analyze the data, the numbers of students to questionnaire responses were counted. Both descriptive and inferential statistics were conducted to examine statistically significant differences among three proficiency levels. In the following chapter, both experimental and control group's ratio of errors after receiving different types of feedback on their writings and findings of the quantitative questionnaire will be presented.

Results

Finding of Writing Assignments

Both experimental and control group were assigned to complete writing tasks which consists pre, post and delayed post-tests. The feedback was given to the experimental group's writing assignments as illustrated below;

S: "*I goed to Antalya with my family.*"

T: "*I went to Antalya with my family, 'go' is an irregular verb.*"

For the control group the errors were only pointed to be reformed by the learner as given below:

S: "*We swimmed in the sea.*"

T: "*We swimmed in the sea.*"

Table 1 shows the number of errors that two groups made in the use of target structure, simple past tense. The number of errors were presented as total for each three assignments.

Table 1. Number of Errors That Students Made in Writing Assignments

	Pre-Test	Post-Test	Delayed Post-Test
Control Group	139	133	137
Experimental Group	144	113	97

As showed above, there were no significant differences in control group's number of errors, in fact, there was an increase in the number of errors. Only underlying the error did not work for them to correct their errors. They kept making the same errors in the target structure. Most of them could not understand what their mistakes were, and couldn't correct them. This could be because they were ineffective in self-correction due to their English level.

However, as illustrated above, after the treatments that experimental group received explicit corrective feedback, students benefited from the corrected errors and explanations. There were significant changes in the number of errors that the experimental group made in their writings. As the target structure was the same for each assignment, they benefited from the previous feedback that the teacher provided, and as a result there was a spectacular decrease in the number of errors.

Findings of Questionnaire

Both experimental and control group were administered the quantitative questionnaire after completing the writing assignments. The results of the questionnaire were divided into 10 categories; participants' perceptions of grammar instruction, error correction in English, their preferences of error correction types, their opinions on teachers' error correction priority, preferences of error correction techniques, their responses to extended comments on writing assignments, preferences of comment types, responses to corrected errors, preferences on the timing of grammatical error correction, and finally participants' preferences on the timing of content and organizational error correction.

The first question was asked students in order to find out their general perceptions of grammar instruction in writing classes. The participants' responses are presented as percentages in Table 2. Table 2 indicates that most students were in favor of the necessity of grammar instruction in their writing classes and believed that learning grammar would improve their writing skills in English. However, they expressed less positive opinions on explicit grammar instruction, as illustrated in the results of statements d, e and f. Moreover, the statement "I like studying English grammar" received the lowest ratings. On the other hand, the statement "I think that language practice in real contexts is more important than grammar instruction in the classroom." was the one that received very positive ratings.

Table 2. Students' perceptions of grammar instruction in writing classes

Questionnaire Item	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Grammar instruction is essential for mastering the writing of English.	7%	9%	7%	42%	35%
Study of grammar improves my writing skill of English.	6%	12%	12%	42%	27%
I believe that my English writing will improve quickly if I study and practice English grammar	4%	19%	21%	33%	23%
I like studying English grammar	11%	14%	16%	28%	31%

Table2 Continued

I need more grammar instruction in my English writing classes.	7%	13%	10%	36%	34%
I keep the grammar rules in mind when I am writing in English.	5%	16%	12%	37%	30%
I think that language practice in real contexts is more important than grammar instruction in the classroom.	4%	7%	19%	34%	36%

Strongly disagree=1; disagree=2; neutral=3; agree=4; strongly agree=5

The second item was administered in order to elicit students' perceptions on written corrective feedback. As indicated in Table 3, students had a very positive view towards written corrective feedback in L2 writing. Table 3 indicates students' perceptions of error correction in writing classes.

Table 3. Students' perceptions of error correction in writing classes

Questionnaire Item	Not important at all	Not important	Neutral	Important	Very Important
What is your opinion about correcting your errors in your English writings by your instructor(s)?	0%	2%	5%	60%	33%

Not important at all=1; not important=2; neutral=3; important=4; very important=5

In the third item, students were asked to state their perceptions of types of written corrective feedback. As Table 4 shows students' most preferred error types for correction. The responses were consistent with grammar errors (N=26) as the most popular response followed by vocabulary errors (14), and spelling errors (N=3). Overall, the students considered grammar as the most important element in their L2 writing.

Table 4. Students' preferences of error correction types

Questionnaire Item	Grammar Errors	Vocabulary Errors	Spelling Errors	Organization Errors	Punctuation Errors
The most preferred error correction type	60%	33%	7%	0%	0%

Item 4 was asked in order to examine students' opinions about teachers' error correction priority. Most of the students (N=18) preferred their teachers to correct all of their errors. The second popular response (N=16) was teachers' correcting major errors but not the minor ones. Minority of the students (N=9) preferred not to be corrected when they make grammatical errors, and preferred teachers to focus on the content only. Table 5 shows students' preferences on teachers' error correction.

Table 5. Students' opinions on teachers' error correction

Questionnaire Item	My instructor should correct all errors.	My instructor should correct major errors but not the minor ones.	My instructor should only correct errors that interfere with communicating ideas.	My instructor should not correct grammatical errors, and should focus on the content only.

If there are many errors in your writing, what do you prefer your instructor to do?	42%	37%	0%	21%
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Item 5 examined the students' preferences of error correction techniques. As Table 6 indicates the most preferred technique was "correcting the error and then providing an explanation for the correction". 39 students out of 43 considered this technique as very useful. The reason of students' preference of this technique most probably stems from their English proficiency level since they need constant explanation as in form of correction when they make errors in their L2 writings. B1 level EFL learners are tend to make more errors since they have just started learning English, as a result they are required to be provided explicit corrective feedback on their L2 writings. The second error correction type that was preferred by students was "underlining the error and then correcting it". It also shows that students need to be pointed out their errors and need to understand their error.

Table 6. Students' preferences of error correction techniques

Written Corrective Feedback Techniques	Very useless	Useless	Neither useful or useless	Useful	Very useful
Table6 Continued					
Underlining the error without correcting it	88%	8%	0%	4%	0%
Underlining the error and then directing you to a source for information	60%	19%	6%	10%	5%
Indicating the type of error without locating or correcting it	6%	54%	2%	30%	8%
Locating the error (e.g., by underlying it) and also indicating the type of error	6%	27%	12%	32%	23%
Underlining the error and then correcting it	2%	3%	4%	9%	82%
Correcting the error and then providing an explanation for the correction	0%	0%	5%	5%	90%

Simply indicating that you have an error in the sentence by putting a cross next to it without locating or correcting the error	82%	9%	9%	0%	0%
Asking my classmate(s) to correct the errors	45%	35%	15%	2%	3%

Very useless=1; useless=2; neither useful or useless=3; useful=4; very useful=5

As stated above, students need detailed explanations for their errors. Only showing the error or giving the type of error without correcting it is not enough for them. They also did not prefer their friends to correct their errors. This might be because they are aware of each other's' language proficiency and they need correction from their teachers as they see their teachers as more reliable error correction source. The next item was asked to students in order to investigate their opinions of extended comments by teachers on their written assignments. The results showed that students considered extended comments as a very important element of their language learning process (%90). Their most popular comment type was "comments on grammar" (%85). On the other hand, "comments on the writing's overall quality" was the least preferred comment type among students (%82). This is most probably because students at this level usually prefer grammar corrections since they haven't exposed to grammar too much and want to improve their L2 competence. Table 7 indicates students' responses to teachers' extended comments on their L2 writing assignments, and Table 8 indicates their preferences for the type of comment by teachers.

Table 7. Students' responses to teachers' extended comments on their L2 writings

Questionnaire Item	Not important at all	Not important	Neutral	Important	Very important
What do you think when your teacher(s) writes extended comments on your L2 assignments?	0%	0%	5%	5%	90%

Not important at all=1; not important =2; neutral=3; important=4; very important=5

Table 8. Students' preferences of type of comment

Type of Comment	Very unimportant	Unimportant	Neutral	Important	Very Important
Comments on the content	20%	15%	45%	10%	10%
Comments on the grammar	0%	0%	5%	10%	85%
Comments on the organization	20%	25%	22%	16%	17%
Comments on the overall quality of the L2 writing	82%	12%	6%	0%	0%

The next item was asked to students in order to find out how carefully they would review their teachers' feedback. Most students (33 out of 43) stated that they would read teachers' feedback carefully and correct all errors (Table 9). As claimed above, they need detailed explanations on their errors so that they can see and correct errors in their writings.

Table 9. Students' responses about corrected errors.

How carefully do you review teachers' correction of errors?	Frequency of Responses
I will not read them.	5%
I will read them, but I won't correct the errors.	7%
I will read them, and correct the major errors.	12%
I will read them carefully, and then correct all the errors.	76%

As illustrated above, B1 level EFL learners preferred receiving explicit explanations by their teachers on their errors in L2 writings. They also preferred to receive feedback on all of their errors, mostly on their grammatical errors rather than spelling, punctuation, organization and vocabulary. Since they are new to learn English, they mostly focus on grammar rules to improve their language competence at this level. Most of them also stated that they would care about the extended comments given by teachers and correct their errors after receiving ones.

Discussion and Conclusion

This study examined the role of corrective feedback in EFL writing classes in a private university's English preparatory school in Istanbul, Turkey. The findings are not so much different from the previous studies in terms of the type of corrective feedback. The findings of the questionnaire showed that students had positive view on written corrective feedback, especially on grammar corrections. They need constant grammar instructions for mastering the writing of English. This derives from their lack of grammar knowledge since they have just started learning L2. They also believed that error correction by teachers is very important, moreover most of them even responded that they would read the comments on their errors carefully and correct all of them. This finding showed that most of these participants really cared about error corrections by their teachers especially on grammar. However, they did not prefer receiving feedback from their peers. This is most probably because their low level of English, and they did not think that they would benefit from peer correction.

The findings of the writing assignment reveal that there is a spectacular difference between the experimental group who received explicit corrective feedback and the control group who received no feedback. In the control group's writing assignments, the number of errors in post and delayed post-test did not change much, while in the experimental group students gradually made less errors compared to the pre-test. They benefited from teacher's comments and error corrections when they completed their writing assignments.

In order to achieve an effective error correction method, teachers should have a clear understanding of the nature of errors. Corder (1967) defines errors as learners' way of testing their understanding about the nature of target language; also they should be perceived with openness and acceptance especially if they are new in learning language. Students' responses to error corrections need to be taken into consideration. Error correction involves both cognitive skills and effective views of language learning, which includes feelings and attitudes.

Both teachers and learners should be open to transform language proficiency from negative productions of learners to positive results. Teachers need to provide necessary facilitations for learners so that learners can benefit from their errors after receiving corrective feedback.

The study has some limitations, for example, the findings were based on data from a small group of students. Also, the generalizability of the findings needed to be endorsed by further research. Further research needs other kinds of instructional contexts in Turkey to empirically test the generalizability of the present findings. Thus, students' background English knowledge should be taken into consideration when investigating their perceptions of corrective feedback. Finally, the present study investigated EFL learners' ratio of errors and perceptions of written corrective feedback in Turkey. Similar studies can also be conducted by language teachers, instructors or researchers in this context.

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Using Movies in Efl Classrooms

Ramazan Goctu

Abstract

This research examines the attitudes and awareness of foreign language (EFL) learners to the integration of English movies in their classes in terms of improving their foreign language skills. 25 intermediate level students studying English in Faculty of Education and Humanities in Philology Department at International Black Sea University, Tbilisi, Georgia, participated in this study. Students watched the movies at home and films were analyzed at the lectures. After analyzing the films, 7 various questions were asked to students in order to obtain their awareness towards the using films in ELT classrooms. The findings of the study indicated that students have positive attitudes towards the use of movies in their classes in terms of improving their language skills. Until quite recently, it was difficult to find pedagogically sound film material to help students improve their language through watching film, and teachers had to spend many hours creating their own materials. However, with the advent of the internet there is now a wealth of online resources for both language teachers and their students. This study is remarkable for teachers who are willing to use movies in their classes as a tool to improve their learners' foreign language level.

Key Words: Movies, EFL, awareness, implication, motivation.

Introduction

Movies are an invaluable way for students to practice and listen authentic conversations and be exposed to different accents. EFL teachers can use countless movies to introduce discussions about a certain topic, a historical event, a time period or the culture of a foreign country. Bringing popular movies into EFL lessons, shows students how they can learn and practice English when watching movies in their own time. Films in video format should not be regarded as only a secondary in a listening class; on the contrary, they can function as the main content and become an integral part of the curriculum (Sommer, 2001). In listening classes, having traditional listening excerpts is not as effective and beneficial as authentic materials like movies, TV serials, short film trailers and some other authentic videos. Course books and CDs offered in English classes turn out to be artificial and not very pleasing for students. One way of bringing variety into the classroom is the use of movies in EFL teaching. This paper analyzes the effects of using movies in the EFL classroom. It reveals its effects on developing students listening and communication skill.

Literature Review

Movies attract students' attention, present language in a more natural way that found in course-books. Movies also offer a visual context aid which helps students understanding and in order to improve their learning skills. Nowadays teaching English has become more challenging than ever. In order to help the learners' mastery (enhance the proficiency) of language skills, language teachers have to provide quality teaching materials that will be engaging, interesting, up-to-date while simultaneously being a tool that will ensure that the students learn. There are numerous studies on the use of videos in developing particular language skills, especially listening comprehension (Gruba, 2006 ; Suvorov, 2008).

According to (Ismaili, 2013) movies are an enjoyable source of entertainment and language acquisition. For this reason, many researchers and EFL practitioners prefer to watch the movie adaptations of famous and current novels as a supplementary source to the reading. Practice has shown that reading an entire book can be tiresome and boring while an audio-visual experience can be more entertaining and engaging to students.

As King (2002) indicates in his work, movies are such invaluable and rich resources for teaching because they present colloquial English in real life contexts rather than artificial situations; a chance of being exposed to different native speaker voices, stress, accents, and dialects.

Listening is the predominant skill among other integrated skills in presenting movies in EFL classes whether the movies chosen are presented with subtitles or not. Hence movies can provide an opportunity for extensive listening, "listening for

general pleasure or interest, usually to longer stretches of discourse" (Flowerdew, J. Miller, L., 2005). However, to make the practice of listening tasks more useful, the movies may be presented without subtitles depending on the learners' language proficiency level.

Findings from previous studies provide support for students wanting to have more video materials (i.e., video clips) embedded in their classroom (B. Goldstein, P. Driver, 2014).

Different types of video material are easily accessible with mobile devices or smart phones via internet and teachers can pick up from a rather varied set of materials depending on the learner's age and language proficiency.

Movies are being used for pedagogical purposes in order to motivate language learners and they are easily available and popular entertainment form of teaching tool in English teaching as a foreign language, for students particularly in recent years. Based on this idea, the present paper attempts to explore some learning activities designed to improve EFL learners' active listening skill as well as other integrated skills. It is assumed that the language spoken in the movies, but also presented in the proper cultural context can be a valuable by means of increasing more appropriate use of language (Chapple, L. & Curtis, A., 2000).

Methodology

In this study, 5-point Likert Scale questionnaire was implemented in order to find out what extent the students believed watching movies could help them to improve their language skills and their awareness the integration of movies in their classrooms.

Participants

The participants in the study were 25 upper-intermediate level students studying English in International Black Sea University, Faculty of Educations and Humanities, Philology Department. The participants' ages between 19 and 21 years old. Students were from different nationalities; Georgian, Turkish, Azerbaijani.

Procedure

Students in the present study sacrificed thirty minutes of their four-hour English class to do the movie activity over a period of six weeks. They watched four movies during that period. Movies were chosen by the researcher. Names of the films are: Cast Away (Zemeckis, 2000), The Pursuit of Happiness (Muccino, 2006) Akeelah and the Bee (Atchison, 2006), Paper Planes (Connolly, 2014). Students watched the films at home, however, the watched movies were analyzed at the classroom. In order to reach the optimum implications, films were analyzed in terms of three various aspects, literary aspects, cultural aspects and language aspects. Following steps were implemented during the course:

1. Literary Aspects

- Who are the characters in the film?
- What is the film's setting?
- What are the main plot elements?
- What is the theme of the film?

2. Cultural Aspects

- Cultural quotations and conversations
- The socio-historical background of the film
- The ideology, the trends and characteristics of the society at the time of the production

3. Language Aspects

- Language of the film (how the forms of communication are used in the film)
- Memorable quotes in the film; metaphors, symbols, ellipsis, contrast etc.
- Use of the setting in communication

Questionnaire

After analyzing of 4 aforementioned films, 7 different questions were asked to students in order to obtain their awareness towards the using films in EFL classrooms.

Table 1. Survey Questions

No	Questions	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	Do you think watching movies in the classroom makes it easier for you to learn English?	36%	52%	12%	0	0
2	Are you interested in learning English and participating in classroom discussions if the teacher uses movies as teaching materials?	76%	24%	0	0	0
3	Do you think watching movies in English has a beneficial effect on improving your English language skills?	80%	20%	0	0	0
4	Do you agree that watching movies motivates you to learn English?	32%	28%	36%	4%	0
5	Do you agree that watching movies help you to comprehend listening activities better?	44%	56%			
6	The integration of movies in the EFL classroom decreases your anxiety in language learning?	12%	32%	32%	16%	8%
7	Do you agree that movies can help in improving your vocabulary acquisition?	48%	36%	12%	4%	

Results of the Survey

The responses given by the students displayed on an overall level that; students considered the integration of movies in the classroom as effective and beneficial in terms of learning foreign language. Thirty-six percent of the students strongly agreed and more than half of the participants agreed that movies in English could facilitate the learning of English language. Seventy-six percent of the participants strongly agreed that they are more motivated and interested in learning English if their teachers use movies in the classrooms. The majority of the participants found movies to be useful in developing their language skills as well as keep them engaged. Approximately fifty percent of the students agreed to the statement that, the use of movies in their lessons reduce their anxiety in learning English. Eighty percent of them also agreed that movies can help improve their vocabulary acquisition. All participants either strongly agree or agree that, watching movies help them to comprehend listening activities better.

In general, students' responses indicated that the advantages of using movies to teach productive and receptive skills, increased learning interests and motivation. From the students' responses to the questions concerning the development of all skills in the questionnaires revealed that students have positive approach toward this method.

Conclusions

Using films in the classroom can provide opportunities for learners to evaluate the very medium that they use in their daily life. Films comprises authentic daily conversations also present parts of real life, and as such, they add fun and involvement to the language classroom. The results of the present study indicated that movies are important tools that can help in developing students' language skills. The participants in the study have positive attitudes towards the integration of movies in their classrooms in order to improve their English. The study also showed that using movies in EFL classroom could enhance the students' motivation to learn the language. They also considered that films are helpful for them to improve their vocabulary acquisition not only the words but also variety of vocabulary and colloquial expressions, phrasal verbs, verb phrases. It is worth to note that, selecting appropriate movies for learners is also one of the remarkable factors in terms of reaching the expected objectives. The research confirmed that using movies in English teaching with appropriately

designed activities and tasks were not only a valuable for the EFL learners, but also, they enhance students' self-motivation, and provided an enjoyable, educational experience for students.

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EFL Student Teachers' Reflections on Their Initial Teaching Practice

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Abstract

This paper aims to investigate student teachers' reflections on their pre-service teaching practice. The research question is: What are student teachers' perceptions of their cognitive, behavioural and affective involvement in initial teaching practice? The participants in this study were 53 student teachers of English language and literature at a Croatian university. A questionnaire was administered to the student teachers upon the accomplishment of their school-based teaching practice. The questionnaire consisted of 18 items accompanied by a five-point Likert scale. Six items in the questionnaire referred to the student teachers' perception of their cognitive involvement when observing their mentors teach, six items referred to the student teachers' perceptions of their verbal and non-verbal behaviour when teaching their own lessons, and six items addressed student teachers' attitude towards the assignments they had during their teaching practice. Findings indicate high cognitive involvement of the student teachers during their observations of mentors' lessons. The majority of the student teachers reported they had made an effort to understand the teaching process in terms of the principles and decisions that lay behind the procedures used by the teacher and the selection of a particular teaching strategy. The results show very high student teachers' involvement in some behavioural aspects of teaching, such as paying attention to learners' participation, and student teachers' most enjoyment in teaching their own lessons.

Keywords: pre-service teaching practice, student teachers of English language and literature, reflections

1 Introduction

Teaching practice or the practicum is an important part of initial teacher education (ITE) programmes (e. g. Farrell, 2008: 226; Gebhard, 2009: 250). Richards and Crookes (1988: 9) state that the practicum provides "the major opportunity for the student teacher to acquire practical skills and knowledge needed to function as an effective language teacher". The practicum usually involves "experience with systematic observation" (Gebhard, 2009:251) and "practical experience in classroom teaching" (Richards and Crookes; 1988:11).

Classroom observation may be defined as "nonjudgmental description of classroom events that can be analyzed and given interpretation" (Gebhard, 1999:35). One of the purposes of classroom observation in the practicum is to learn to teach (Gebhard, 1999:37). Thus, observation in ITE may be considered as "a learning tool" (Wajnryb, 1992: 1). Student teachers can learn a lot from observing experienced teachers (Gebhard, 1999:37). Observing experienced teachers helps student teachers understand what goes on in the foreign language classroom (Day, 1990: 54; Gebhard, 1999:36), it helps them interpret classroom interaction (Gebhard, 1999:36), and understand the role of the teacher (Day, 1990:54). An observation process usually includes a post-observation session where a student teacher explores with the observed experienced teacher the decisions that guided the teacher in his or her teaching (Richards, 1990:15). Thus, observing experienced teachers enables student teachers discover and interpret "the working rules that effective teachers use" (Richards; 1990: 15). Student teachers can also learn by observing fellow student teachers. When student teachers observe their peers teach they see their "own teaching differently" (Fanselow, 1990: 183) and "construct, reconstruct, and revise" (Fanselow, 1990: 184) their own teaching.

To be effective observation should be guided (Day, 1990:43), systematic (Day, 1990:43; Gebhard, 2009: 250), and focused (Day, 1990: 43; Watson Todd, 1997: 122). During the observation process student teachers collect, analyze and interpret data on classroom interaction. Data on classroom interaction can be collected in a number of ways. One way of collecting classroom data is to provide a written description of what was going on in the classroom. Such a description of classroom events should be objective, nonjudgmental and nonevaluative (Day, 1990:45). This technique is considered to help student teachers raise awareness of the complexity of foreign language classrooms (Day, 1990: 44). Another technique of collecting data is through observation tasks. An observation task is "a focussed activity to work on while observing a lesson in progress" (Wajnryb, 1992: 8). It provides a means of collecting data on one or two aspects of teaching, such as questioning, giving instructions, or attending to the learner. This technique provides student teachers with focus and clarity, with an increased skill in understanding and interpreting data, and with better understanding of the relationship between theory and practice (Wajnryb, 1992: 8).

Classroom teaching is an experiential practice in ITE (Ellis, 1990: 29). It involves student teachers in "real" teaching. This practice, also called "practice teaching" (Richards, 1990: 15), refers to "participating in a variety of practice teaching experiences that are closely supervised by a skilled teacher" (Ibid.). Classroom teaching is usually considered to be the most important learning experience in ITE. It enables "conscious understanding of the principles underlying second language teaching (Ellis, 1990: 27) and it provides student teachers with the opportunities to "use their accumulated knowledge to make instructional decisions" (Gebhard, Gaitan and Oprandy, 1990: 17). Gebhard (2009: 252) claims that classroom teaching is the most important classroom experience because it "not only provides direct experience of interacting with students, but it also provides the contexts and content for other activities, such as self-observation, peer observations and discussions".

This study attempts to contribute to research on initial teaching practice (ITP) by examining foreign language student teachers' reflections on their ITP.

2 The Context of the Study

The study investigates the perceptions of pre-service English language teachers' experiences at a Croatian university during their ITP. ITP was organised as the last part of ITE programme which included courses on second language acquisition, psychology of education, pedagogy, didactics of teaching foreign languages and an English as a foreign language (EFL) methodology course. The focus of the methodology course was on lesson planning, teaching strategies and the development of observation skills. Some students also attended an elective course on classroom discourse. At the time of the study the student teachers were enrolled in the last semester of Teacher Education Programme and had accomplished their school-based teaching practice. The duration of ITP was three months and it was organised in two blocks, first in an elementary school and then in a secondary school or a school of foreign languages. Each student was allocated to a mentor, an experienced EFL teacher, in each type of school.

The teaching practice consisted of the observations of school-based mentors, peer observations and teaching own lessons. Each student observed 20 mentor lessons, 10 in an elementary school and 10 in a secondary school or a school of foreign languages. During the observation process the student teachers collected data through descriptions and observation tasks (Wajnryb, 1992). The collected data were analysed and interpreted in post-observation sessions with school-based mentors. During the teaching practice each student teacher taught ten lessons, both in an elementary and a secondary school or a school of foreign languages. The student teachers wrote a formal lesson plan for each lesson. A lesson plan included the goals of the lesson, the objective of each stage of the lesson, procedures, timing, materials and aids, and an additional activity. Each lesson taught by the student teacher was observed by a mentor and followed by a post-observation session where the student teacher was provided with oral feedback. The student teachers were also provided with a mentor's written feedback. After each student teacher had taught three of four lessons, a peer observation activity was organised. Each student observed a peer and was observed by the same peer. An observed student decided what aspect(s)

of his/her teaching would be the focus of observation. Peer observation was preceded by a pre-observation session and followed by a discussion in the post-observation session.

3 Aim of the Study

The aim of this study is to investigate EFL student teachers' reflections on their ITP with respect to two main components: observation of the mentors' lessons and own teaching. It also attempts to identify student teachers' attitudes towards the different components of ITP. It addresses the following question:

What are the student teachers' perceptions of their cognitive, behavioural and affective involvement in initial teaching practice?

4 Method

4.1 Participants

Fifty-three student teachers of English language and literature at a Croatian university participated in this study. The study was carried out in the last semester of teacher education programme, upon the student teachers' accomplishment of school-based teaching practice.

4.2 Instrument

A questionnaire was administered to the student teachers upon the accomplishment of their school-based teaching practice. The questionnaire consisted of 18 items accompanied by a five-point Likert scale (5 - strongly agree, 4 - agree, 3 - neither agree nor disagree, 2 - disagree, 1 - strongly disagree). The items were in the form of I-statements. Six items in the questionnaire referred to the student teachers' perception of their cognitive involvement when observing their mentors teach, six items referred to the student teachers' perceptions of their verbal and non-verbal behaviour when teaching their own lessons, and six items addressed student teachers' attitude towards the practices and assignments they had during their teaching practice.

4.3 Data analysis

A quantitative analysis was performed on the data collected by the questionnaire. The analysis was carried out using SPSS for Windows 13.0.

5 Results and Discussion

The results of the questionnaire are presented in Table 1.

Table 1 Results of descriptive statistics of the questionnaire on student teachers' perceptions of their cognitive, behavioural and affective involvement in ITP

Item	N	M	Mo	SD	Frequency* (%)		
					D	N	A
1. While observing my mentor teach I tried to understand the aim of the communicative activities s/he organised.	53	4.00	4	0.73	/	26.4	73.6
2. While observing my mentor teach I tried to understand why s/he used a particular teaching strategy.	53	4.06	5	0.91	5.7	20.8	73.5
3. While observing my mentor teach I tried to understand the purposes of the procedures by which a particular activity was organised/performed.	53	4.17	5	0.78	/	22.6	77.3

4. While observing my mentor teach I was aware of the purposes of various teaching techniques.	53	3.72	3	0.99	11.3	32.1	56.6
5. While observing my mentor teach I considered the communicative purpose of his/her utterances	53	3.64	3**	0.81	5.7	39.6	54.7
6. While observing my mentor's lessons I considered the learning purpose of various types of interaction	53	3.75	4	0.90	5.7	32.1	62.3
7. When teaching my own lessons I paid attention to learners' participation.	53	4.74	5	0.49	/	1.9	98.1
8. When teaching my own lessons I paid attention to timing.	53	4.62	5	0.56	/	3.8	96.2
9. When teaching my own lessons I paid attention to my mentor's reactions.	53	2.94	3	0.60	39.6	30.2	30.2
10. When teaching my own lessons I monitored my language use.	53	4.17	4	0.75	3.8	9.4	87.6
11. When teaching my own lessons I monitored learners' verbal behaviour.	53	4.28	4	0.60	/	7.5	92.4
12. When teaching my own lessons I monitored my position in the classroom.	53	4.09	4	0.81	3.8	17.0	79.3
13. I enjoyed filling in observation sheets.	53	2.13	1	1.19	64.1	20.8	15.1
14. I enjoyed post-observation sessions after my mentor's lessons.	53	3.15	4	1.28	32.1	22.6	45.3
15. I enjoyed post-observation sessions after my own lessons.	53	3.72	4	1.23	15.1	18.9	66.0
16. I enjoyed observing my mentors teach.	53	3.57	4	0.97	15.1	32.1	52.9
17. I enjoyed observing peer students teach.	53	3.94	4	0.91	5.7	15.1	79.2
18. I enjoyed teaching lessons.	53	4.55	5	0.64	/	7.5	92.5

* Note: Values present percentages: D=collapsed scores for Strongly disagree and Disagree, N=Neither agree nor disagree, A= collapsed scores for Strongly agree or Agree

N - number of participants

M - mean value

Mo - mode (dominant value)

SD - standard deviation

** Multiple modes exist. The smallest value is shown.

The results of the questionnaire show that student teachers' perceptions of their cognitive, behavioural and affective involvement in ITP are positive (Table 1). The result of the whole questionnaire is 3.9.

The results of the items in the questionnaire that refer to the student teachers' perceptions of their cognitive involvement when they observed their mentors teach (items 1 to 6) is relatively high; the mean value of these items is 3.9. The mean value of items 1, 2 and 3 (4.1) and their modes (4, 5 and 5 respectively) indicate that the majority of the student teachers attempted to determine the decision making that guided the teacher in lesson planning. This finding is important because it shows the student teachers' high awareness of the importance of lesson planning in terms of the goals and objectives of the activities, the choice of teaching strategies and procedures in organising and delivering a lesson. A high awareness of the importance of these components of lesson planning may be attributed to previous course work but also to task-based observations.

Slightly lower agreement was obtained for the items that refer to the decision making that guided the teacher in managing classroom interaction (items 4, 5 and 6); the mean value of these items is 3.7. Most student teachers agreed that they tried to understand the teacher's decisions on student groupings (item 6). However, most student teachers were indecisive as to whether they were able to determine the functions of teacher utterances (item 5) and the teacher's decisions that underlay the employment of a particular teaching technique (item 4). Lower results of these items may be explained with the

complexity of factors that might influence the teacher's decisions on various aspects of classroom management, such as learner characteristics, learner language knowledge, and learner needs.

The result of the items in the questionnaire that refer to the student teachers' perceptions of their behaviour when they taught their own lessons (items 7 to 12) is very high; the mean value of these items is 4.1. Almost all student teachers in this study (98 %) claimed that when they had taught their own lessons they had paid attention to learners' participation. This finding indicates that in the initial stage of teaching practice the student teachers are highly aware of the importance of the amount of learners' participation. "The quantity of student participation and interaction that occurs" (Richards, 2010: 113) is one of the characteristics of the learner-centered teaching approach, which is one of the "core dimensions of skill and expertise in language teaching (Richards, 2010: 101).

The majority of the student teachers (96 %) report that they paid attention to timing when they taught their own lessons. This finding does not surprise because predicting the length of an activity in the planning phase and controlling the length of the activity while teaching are difficult for beginning teachers (Wajnryb, 1992: 116).

Monitoring learners' language use is one of the teaching skills that a student teacher needs to acquire (Richards, 2010: 107). Most participants in this study (92%) reported to have monitored learners' verbal behaviour when teaching own lessons.

Ability "to monitor his or her own speech and writing for accuracy" is one of the language-specific competencies that a language teacher needs in order to teach effectively (Richards, 1910: 103). A great majority of the student teachers (88 %) in this study reported to have monitored their language use when teaching own lessons.

Most student teachers (79 %) reported to have monitored their own position in the classroom when teaching own lessons whereas most student teachers (70 %) either "disagree" or "neither agree nor disagree" that they paid attention to the reactions of the mentor who observed their lesson.

The result of the items in the questionnaire that refer to the student teachers' perceptions of their affective involvement in the ITE (items 13 to 18) is 3.5. A great variability in the student teachers' attitudes towards the different practices and assignments in ITP may be noticed. The findings show that teaching own lessons was the most pleasant experience for the student teachers in this study. Ninety-two percent of the student teachers either strongly agreed (62%) or agreed (30%) that they had enjoyed teaching their own lessons. More than three-fourths of the student teachers reported to have enjoyed observing fellow student teachers teach. This finding does not surprise because previous studies have shown that student teachers have a very positive attitude towards the use of peer observation in ITP (e. g. Čurković Kalebić, 2017). Two-thirds of the participants in this study enjoyed post-observation sessions that followed the lessons they had taught. About one-half of the student teachers (53 %) reported to have enjoyed observing their mentors teach whereas less than one-half of the student teachers (45%) enjoyed a post-observation session that followed an observation of the mentor's lessons. Finally, almost two-thirds of the student teachers (64 %) reported that they had not enjoyed doing written assignments (filling-in observation sheets) while observing their mentors or peers.

6 Conclusion

In this study an attempt was made to shed more light on the role of teaching practice in ITE of EFL student teachers. By answering a research question the perceptions of cognitive, behavioural and affective engagement of student teachers in ITE were investigated. Based on the findings the following conclusions have been drawn:

Guided and focused classroom observation of experienced teachers enables student teachers to raise awareness of the importance of the decision making process that guides the teacher in teaching a lesson. The findings of this study lead to the conclusion that during the observations of experienced teachers student teachers not only notice "good practice" but also try to discover the decisions that underlie teaching practice.

When teaching their own lessons student teachers seem to pay great attention to learners' learning. The findings of the study lead to the conclusion that learner participation in classroom interaction and learner verbal production were in the center of the student teachers' attention.

The findings also indicate that student teachers have a more positive attitude to the activities that include their active involvement (teaching their own lessons, peer observations, and discussion sessions that follow student teachers' lessons) than to the activities in which their active engagement is lower (observing mentors and sessions that follow mentors' lessons).

A great variability in the student teachers' attitudes towards the sessions that followed their mentors' lessons as well as their own lessons has been found. This finding indicates the need for more research in the area of mentor support, mentor feedback and student teachers' reflections on own lessons in ITP.

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Learning Skills and Difficulties Encountered by Students During Acquisition of a Foreign Language for Specific Purpose

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Abstract

Through this research we are going to analyze the learning skills, thus competencies needed by students during the learning process and acquisition of a foreign language of specific purpose. The purpose of such a research is not only to identify difficulties they encounter during the learning process but also to introduce special techniques and strategies for a specific teaching process aiming at enhancement of communicative competence as primary goal of teaching/learning process. The applied method is that of survey (40 hours of study time). We have put in evidence and made remarks of the most common difficulties for students based on an assessment table. In the second part of the research, based on survey results, there are presented teaching suggestions and techniques which help students to overcome obstacles and guide them to acquire learning skills to the final end of acquisition of specialized communication competence. Besides the theoretical part there are presented practical aspects of didactic activities related to the analyzed skills.

Keywords: Skills, competence, teaching, learning, language for specific purposes, micro skills, macro skills.

Introduction

Foreign language for specific purposes is part of the University curricula in Albania. Although such teaching experience has been developed since many years, there are still complex issues as it is difficult to establish a separation line between study and acquisition of foreign general language and specific sector language.

Besides four basic language skills known as macro skills (*reading, listening, speaking and writing*) student who study a foreign language for specific purposes must acquire other skills which can be defined with the term micro skills such as: reading and understanding of a text of a language for specific purposes, use of vocabulary, acquisition of new specific lexis, work in library, preparation for examination, management of a studying method, systematic notes keeping, text briefing, improvement of memorizing capability, formulating of hypothesis on understanding a definition, provision of new techniques of research, preparation and presentation of a report, etc. These skills can be used for learning in general a foreign language but in the framework of the foreign language for specific purposes they are even more specific.

What are actually the difficulties encountered by students during acquisition of a foreign language for specific purposes?

To answer the above question, we are introducing results obtained through survey as explained below:

1. Survey of difficulties related to learning skills.

In order to have an insight and analyze the difficulties of students in acquiring skills to learn a foreign language for specific purposes we have implemented the method of survey.

The focus group are students of first year of the Medicine Faculty, University "Zoja e Këshillit të Mirë", in Tirana.

Their **language proficiency** is B1¹.

¹ Language Proficiency as per Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR)

Used text *'Italian for doctors'*.

Duration of survey: 40 study hours.

Number of students: 40 (20 for each group of the same level).

The goals of utilization of method: Obtain information on, and identify the difficulties of students in acquisition of foreign language of for specific purposes, in medical field. More precisely, the target of this survey is to define the difficulties met during the learning process.

Survey methodology:

We prepared a table with study skills which are required for the acquisition of the Italian medical language.

Table 1.

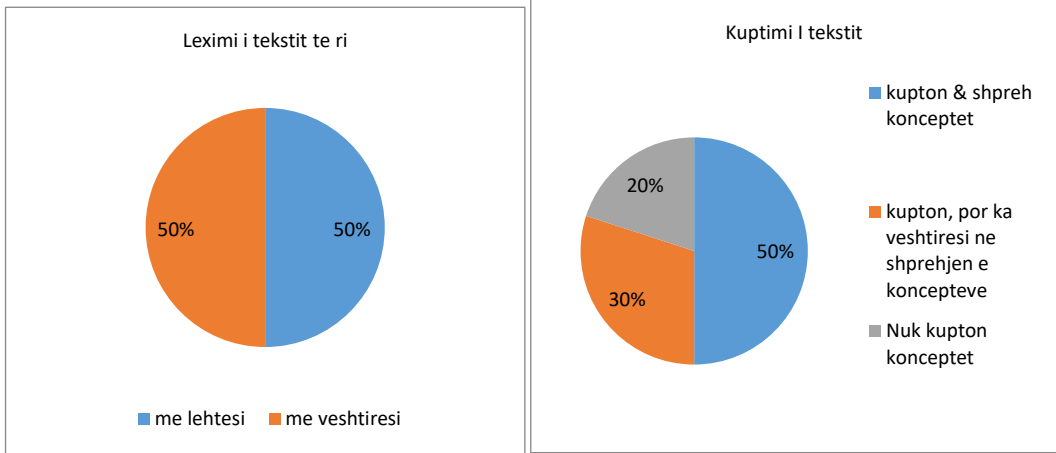
Survey Table to Put in Evidence Difficulties During the Learning Process

Reading and understanding the textt			
Fluent reading	<i>present</i>	<i>is not present</i>	
Understanding of text	<i>Understands and expresses concepts in Italian.</i>	<i>Understands but has difficulties in expression of concepts</i>	<i>Does not understand concepts</i>
Capability to perform text briefing			
Distinguish primary information from secondary one	<i>Capability to perform text briefing</i>		<i>Difficulty to perform text briefing</i>
Capability to prepare a written report			
Use of medical terms	<i>Not used at all</i>	<i>Used with difficulty</i>	<i>Used easily</i>
Providing arguments to support/contradict a given thesis	<i>Do not provide arguments at all</i>	<i>Difficulties in providing arguments</i>	<i>Provide easily arguments</i>
Orthography of the word	<i>Correct</i>	<i>Wrong</i>	
Structure	<i>Correct</i>	<i>Wrong</i>	
Form of active/passive verbs	<i>Correct</i>	<i>Wrong</i>	
Capability to present a report			
Types of presentation	<i>Qualitative & independent thinking</i>	<i>Simple/Mechanic/no independent thinking</i>	
Presentation methods	<i>With Power Point</i>	<i>Without Power Point</i>	

1.1. Reading and understanding the text.

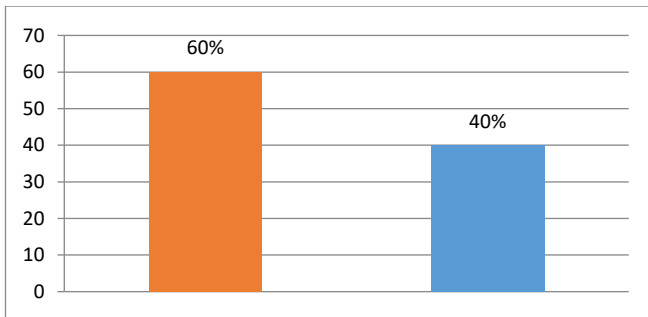
It resulted out of the survey that more than 50% of the students had difficulties in reading and understanding of a new text. 30% of them understood the concepts of the text but had difficulties in expressing them in Italian language; 20% of the students were not able to give the correct answer to questions related to understanding of the text.

¹ Forapani D., *L'italiano per i medici*, Alma Edizioni, Prill, 2004.



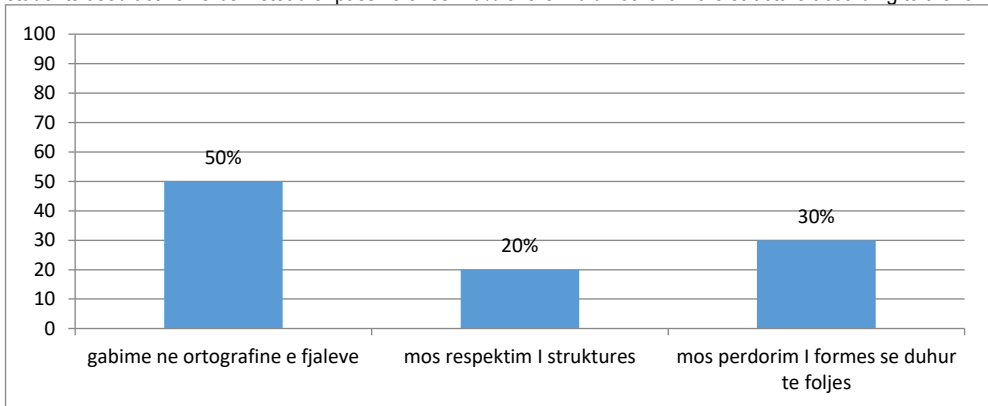
1.2. Capability to synthesize

It resulted out of the survey that only 40% of the students were in possession of good skills to synthesize a relatively long text. 60% of them had difficulties in determining the level of priorities of information.



1.3. Capability to prepare a written report

It resulted out of the survey that 50% of the students made mistakes in the orthography of words and terms. 30% of students used active verbs instead of passive ones. 20% of them did not follow the structure according to the form:



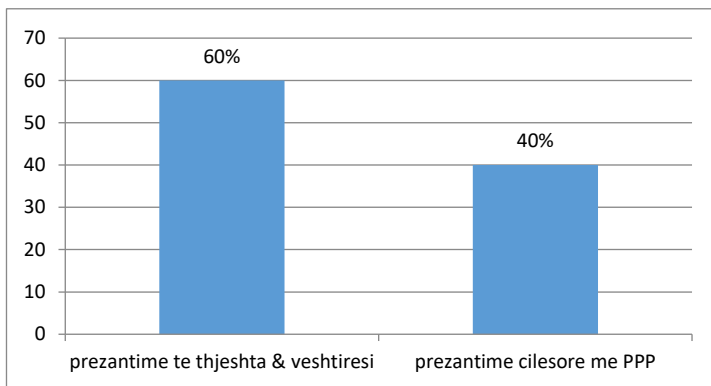
introduction-development of arguments-conclusions.

Capability to present a report

Communication in language for specific purposes is expression of opinion in a discipline related to the referring subject through the communication scheme of that discipline. Students must gain knowledge and able to manage the way of thinking of the experts of the discipline, subject to language studying

It resulted out of the survey that 60% of the students presented their work simply by reading it and had difficulties in giving an independent opinion, especially in the concluding part. Although they had acquired the medical terminology, they had difficulty namely in giving arguments to oppose or support a certain thesis.

Power Point Presentation resulted more qualitative and interesting (40%) against the simple presentations.



2. Teaching techniques and didactic activities related to learning skills.

Due to the results obtained through survey method which brought into light difficulties encountered by students during the learning and acquisition process of a foreign language for specific purposes we are going to analyze in a more detailed manner the learning skills by introducing theoretical suggestion and teaching techniques in function of acquiring not only linguistic skills but communicative ones as well.

2.1. Capability to read and understand a text in a foreign language for specific purposes

Didactics of foreign language for specific purposes emphasizes primarily the skill of reading or understanding the text, as reading means understanding as well. The task of a foreign language teacher is to introduce a text that is meant to *speak, be read and reread* guiding the student to fully ascertain it. By acquiring reading strategies, it becomes easier for the student the access to very difficult texts in various areas. This is no more in function of deciphering texts in linear way but to perceive their meaning based also on linguist indicators (*title, content*) or extra linguistic indicators (*images, signs, diagrams*), typical for languages for specific purposes.

Reading does not consist in a simple perception and understanding all words from a text as it is a reason guided activity through which the readers seeks answers. Differently from the past when reading process was considered a skill to distinguish letters and words where words were used to construct a sentence, sentences were used to make paragraphs to make long speeches, nowadays it is as a vivid organic intellectual and thinking process, always in action, where the reader achieves more the understanding of the text than reproducing its words. It is not about a thinking function but a result from many factors defined more appropriately as skills.¹

In order to study a text of foreign language of specific purpose it is required to use special techniques by which is made possible the determining of principal ideas organized in a critical and organic manner. Any new received information is not

¹ B.M. Brazon, *Il processo del leggere*. Liviana, Padova 1974. Fq 137

simply added to those we already possess but it offers new tools of understanding, thus creating a new asset in the individual knowledge.

The Chart below presents the consecutive line of actions to be followed during the reading-learning process:



2.2. Capability to summarize in a synthetic way a text of language for specific purposes

Making a synthesis of a text in a given language of specific purpose involves not only just skills of linguistic nature but also the logical nature. Such activity needs shortening of text in quantitative terms and keeping unchanged the communicative function. It also requires that the semantic content of the text is not lost.

The teacher of foreign language for specific purposes must guide students by giving suggestion the required techniques to summarize a text. Students needs practicing to acquire te following skills:

- ❖ Read the text by starting with the general elements and continuing with the more specific ones,
Or figuratively from macroscope to microscope;
- ❖ Understand different parts of the text;
- ❖ Understand the logic-pragmatic relationship between various parts;
- ❖ Understand its main target;
- ❖ Define priority levels between information provided by text by distinguishing the essential from secondary ones in function of the priority goal of thoroughly understanding the;
- ❖ Reformulate the text by defining relationship between different parts and by amending it time after time;

Below are provided some didactic activities which can be utilized to support reading and text summarizing skills in a language for specific purposes.

Activity 1:

Read the title and make remarks on the general understanding of the text.

Activity 2

After having read the text, put in two columns sentences which outline the logical reasoning part and those related to the explanatory part.

Activity 3

Read the text and underline the specific information found in it.

Activity 4

Define a level of priority for information given in the text by distinguishing the essential from secondary to support the priority goal previously identified.;

Activity 5

Read the part and underline the key words of each paragraph.

Activity 6

Underline logic/pragmatic relationship between various parts of the text.

Activity 7

Read the part in 2 minutes and summarize in the form of synthesis.

2.3. Capability to write a language for specific purposes

Among the various didactic teaching/learning activities to learn foreign language for specific purposes, reading activities are important. These activities are suggested to take place at the end of any didactic session as it is believed that linguistic competences (Morphosyntax, lexical, textual rules) and those related to the content are acquired.

Teachers must guide students by giving them pertaining suggestions and standard, typical models for a given language for specific purposes and only after that students can be independent in performing a certain type of activity.

Therefore, after reflection and planning, students must keep notes on the arguments they plan to treat and ideas to present. They cannot write in a clear manner if their ideas are confused or if they have insufficient knowledge on the selected arguments. After this process, there are structured the kept notes and is prepared the work design. It starts with its composing and during the first review students must check if the coherence and cohesion with text is met. Also they must control the lexical choices by selecting the most appropriate terms and verify the orthography with help from vocabulary. It is suggested to use specific terms of the discipline subject to study. Students must pay equal attention to different parts of the text and may use expressions and linking elements which bring into light the pragmatic value of paragraphs by listing in a coherent manner and by avoiding repetition. Thus it is of essence that ideas are not only accurate and expressed through a correct linguistic manner but also to comply with a structure that can be considered conventional in a given discipline.

Besides suggestions, teachers can offer to students through didactic activities standard text models of the specific sector (reports, minutes, description of experiments etc) where are underlined those aspects related to the organization of text and utilization of formal elements that are typical for a given language for specific purposes.

Below we are providing some didactic activities examples which aim at acquisition of capabilities to compose and write a text in different languages for specific purposes..

• Suggestions on performing didactic activities

In order to have a higher level of independence students can be provided with sufficient information data on the content and goal of the text they have to write. There can be carried out didactic activities which involve the following comparative tasks: concept/definition, problem/solution, comparison/distinguish, cause/consequence, proposal/support with arguments, purpose/activity and at the end drawing conclusions.

Another technique would be the distribution of various texts of scientific-professional nature where linking elements are missing (interfix, expressions). It is asked from students to put together sentences by placing the missing words in proper position or after there are given different sentences which mean same concept, it is requested from students to put them together in composed sentences or paragraphs. This technique enables students to create and write text by following the coherence and cohesion criteria as two crucial features of a written text.

By fulfilling the suggestions and provided models students can gradually gain complete independence and are capable to compose and write a text professionally.

2.4. Capability of presenting a report

The presentation of a report or a given assigned task needs possession of specific skills which can be acquired through special didactic instructions.

The initial step for the students is to structure the argument. Questions are made such as: What do listeners have to or want to listen about the selected argument? How much new information they have to get?

Secondly, there is defined the purpose of the presentation: (*what is the most crucial and important point to be understood?*)

Thirdly, it is necessary to prepare a synthetic schedule which will include the essential topic and auxiliary ones. For this purpose it is needed to collect valid auxiliary information. (*What information supports better the main topic? What information can attract more the attention of listeners?...*).

Fourthly, there is needed to select a structure convenient for the presentation. For example in the case of describing experiments there can be followed this scheme: introduction, materials, procedures, results, discussions.

Fifthly, selection of convenient audiovisual supporting tools which have an impact in attracting of listeners' attention can reflect easily the presented arguments and facilitate their understanding.

Preparation of introductory part is very crucial as listeners have the possibility to get acquainted since the start with essential information to get an understanding of the argument. Taken the fact that languages for specific purposes are characterized by many definitions it is of most importance to explain them during the introductory part of presentation. For such purpose, there can be used techniques to get familiar with specific terminology through various modalities of utilization of linguistic acts.

The conclusion part must bring again in a summarized manner the essential elements to draw conclusions, by leaving the possibility of a treating an argument in another moment or figuratively said by closing a door but opening a window.

Conclusion

Learning and acquisition of a foreign language for specific purposes is difficult and is a challenge for both actors of the education process: the student and the pedagogue. On the other hand, such difficulties turn to be strong points resulting to a mutual interrelation between the teacher who is competent in foreign language and has general knowledge on the specialized discipline and the student who is competent in a given specialized discipline but lacks linguistic knowledge. This situation has an impact on enhancing the didactic communication teacher-student giving birth to what is called collaboration didactics.

The teacher of foreign language for specific purposes must create, through his educational and didactical activities, communicative situations and elaborate didactic strategies to facilitate reduction of difficulties encountered by students during the process of learning language for specific purposes. The final outcome is a type of teaching aiming at enhancement of communicative competence in different scientific-professional situations.

The used methodologies should be in compliance with the didactic goals which must ensure harmony between language, micro language objectives and communication in foreign language for specific purposes objectives.

During the teaching of foreign languages for specific purposes, the teacher must work by making use of didactic activities in function of integrated use of macro capabilities and micro capabilities. The language skills are generally of a transversal type as they are not specific for a given language for specific purposes, but after acquired in one of them, they can be transferred to other languages for specific purposes. Thus the acquisition of a of the foreign language becomes a tool of scientific and professional cohesion for the linguistic communities all over the world.

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The Influence of Psycho-Social Environment and Socio-Economic Status on Early Language Development Among Toddlers

Bardha Kika

Abstract

Learning to talk is one of the most visible and important achievements of early childhood (Rvachew, 2015). Language skills, in particular, are critical to children's adjustment in school and in later life (Benner, Nelson, Ron, Epstein, 2002). There is evidence to suggest that children with language problems may develop social, emotional, and behavioral problems (Schoon, Parsons, & Rush, 2010). In the literature, the environment with all its complexities is mentioned as one of the most influential factor for the language development (Johnston, 2010). However, most of the studies that treated this aspect have been conducted in developed countries and less is known whether the pattern of influence is the same among other underrepresented study population. This study is focused on identification of the role of the environment on the toddlers' language development in a low-income country, such as Kosovo. In total, 201 randomly selected parents (55% males) from three kindergartens in Kosovo were interviewed for this study. We used the Communication and Symbolic Behavior Scales Developmental Profile (CSBS DP; Wetherby & Prizant, 2002) to collect the data and a demographic questionnaire to identify the characteristics of the environment. The preliminary results show a positive correlation between parental education and toddlers' language development ($r = .19, p < .01$). Moreover, a positive correlation was found between socio-economic status and toddlers' language ($r = .21, p < .05$). Importantly, it was found that there are significant differences between toddlers' language that frequent kindergarten and the group of toddlers that do not frequent early education institution. The present finding goes into the same line with other studies that confirm environment as important factor on language acquisition. Not only parent's education, but also the economic status is shown to play a major role on language development. Most importantly, it is shown that along with family kindergarten influences the toddler language skills. These results that attend kindergarten have significantly higher language skills. This can serve to develop intervention programs in Kosovo, to raise awareness among general population for the importance of the early education attendance, which currently is less than 10%.

Keywords: language development, socio-economic status, the role of environment.

Solo Analysis of Efl Curricula in Turkey

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Abstract

Curriculum simply refers to the means and materials with which students will interact for the purpose of achieving identified educational outcomes (Ebert et al., 2013). In Turkey, the curricula for a variety of courses to be taught in primary and secondary state schools are designed by the Ministry of National Education (MoNE), and they are subject to change at uncertain periods. The current research aims to investigate curricula for English as a foreign language course for 5th, 6th and 7th grades that have been recently introduced by MoNE (2017). It exclusively compares them through an analysis of learning outcomes identified in each based on the Structure of the Observed Learning Outcome (SOLO) taxonomy developed by John Biggs and Kevin Collis (1982). Accordingly, document analysis method was used to analyze learning outcomes identified in the above-mentioned curricula into four levels of the SOLO taxonomy: (i) uni-structural, (ii) multi-structural, (iii) relational, and (iv) extended abstract. The study will report findings obtained from the analysis and practical implications on the curriculum design of EFL courses taught in various grades, and conclude with a few suggestions for further directions.

Keywords: EFL curriculum, SOLO taxonomy, learning outcome

Acting Real: Testimony of Rachel Corrie on Stage

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Abstract

In response to the chaotic atmosphere of the twentieth century, defined by an enormous scepticism about politics and media, theatre emerged out as a source of truth through plays compiled from spoken testimonies of real people, interviews, documents and recordings of real events and many other authentic materials. Named variably as theatre of the real, documentary theatre or verbatim theatre, those plays challenged their audiences into an inescapable confrontation with real events and serious issues around the world. Edited by the British actor and theatre director Alan Rickman and the *Guardian* journalist Katharine Viner, one of the key examples of verbatim theatre, *My Name is Rachel Corrie*, was premiered in April 2005 at Royal Court in London. Based on Israel-Palestine conflict, the play is constructed on the e-mails and diaries of an American peace-activist Rachel Corrie who was killed by an Israeli bulldozer in Gaza in 2003. After providing a history of documentary theatre, this paper discusses the controversial productions of *My Name is Rachel Corrie* as an example of testimony.

Keywords: *My Name is Rachel Corrie*, verbatim theatre, testimony, documentary theatre, Israeli-Palestinian Conflict

Introduction

A steadily increasing tendency for documented reality thanks to a strong desire to learn and to be informed have manifested itself in many forms in the contemporary world. Movie industry has adopted historical themes and more and more fiction writers have started to borrow from real life events while constructing their works. As aesthetician Arnold Hauser (2005) points out,

This tendency to the factual and the authentic—to the ‘document’—is evidence not only of the intensified hunger for reality characteristic of the present age, of its desire to be well informed about the world, with an activist ulterior motive, but also of that refusal to accept the artistic aims of the last century which is expressed in the flight from the story and from the individual, psychologically differentiated hero. (p.163)

In a world where the understanding of the real has been continually revised, reinvented and highly mediated, this “hunger for reality” in Hauser’s terms has led theatre practitioners to new paths for representing realities on the stage. Variably referred to as theatre of the real, verbatim theatre, factual theatre, docudrama, theatre of the witness, tribunal theatre, theatre of fact, nonfictional theatre and theatre as journalism, documentary theatre as an example of this tendency has come to the fore with the claim of representing the real objectively.

In her seminal essay “Bodies of Evidence” Carol Martin (2010) asserts that documentary theatre is ‘created from a specific body of archived material: interviews, documents, hearings, records, video, film, photographs, etc.’ (p. 18) and marshals six main functions of the documentary theatre as,

1. To reopen the trials in order to critique justice... 2. To create additional historical accounts... 3. To reconstruct an event... 4. To intermingle autobiography with history... 5. To critique the operations of both documentary and fiction... 6. To elaborate the oral culture of theatre and the theatricality of daily life... (p. 22)

Gaining prominence in the 60s and 70s due to social and political changes and *strong suspicions about the objectivity of the media, documentary plays have turned into an alternative source of information, and documents used in the plays, in Peter Weiss’ words, have become “segments of reality” which “are the only weapons against an untrustworthy news media” (Dawson, 1999, p. 15). Giving some thought to the contemporary issues in the world, they draw from real life people and*

events, specifically focusing on telling stories of marginalised and oppressed groups by virtue of their sexual orientation, race, class, gender, religion, and from significant incidents such as war trials, terrorist attacks, social and political upheavals as well as any kind of persecution in attempt to provide their audience with unadulterated facts and plain realities through authentic documents. Offering alternative perspectives other than mediated ones, those plays aim at bringing controversial subjects on the table and providing a public forum over them.

Although the label itself is relatively new, documentary tradition has persisted throughout the theatre history. Written in 472 B.C. by Aeschylus, the Greek play *The Persians* is recognised as the earliest documentary play in the Western culture. Portraying the Battle of Salamis, *The Persians* is a fact-driven play that celebrates Greece's victory over Persians. According to Attilio Favorini (1995), Aeschylus himself was possibly a war veteran and "had seen the Persians with his own eyes" (p. xiii). An older contemporary of Aeschylus, Phrynichus, first tragedian to introduce female masks, produced the tragedy *The Capture of Miletus* in 494 B.C. based on interviews with the soldiers in the Persian War by the same token. However, evoking a scandal, his play was banned and he was fined a thousand drachmas by the Athenians for reminding painful recollections of their friends' loss. (Rehm, 2017, p. 24)

Naming German playwright Georg Büchner's 1835 play *Danton's Death* (*Dantons Tod*) "a proto-documentary play in the modern sense" (Dawson, 1999, p. 1) as much of the dialogues of the play comes from primary sources and as it cites from key agents of the French Revolution, Gary Fisher Dawson places *Danton's Death* to the beginning of the inquiry in the field of modern documentary theatre. Following Büchner, in terms of the techniques used, and political concerns of the plays, documentary theatre owes a lot to the theatre of German theatre practitioners Erwin Piscator and Bertolt Brecht. When the term "documentary" first entered literature in 1926 with John Grierson's review about Robert Flaherty's documentary film *Moana* (1926) in *The New York Sun*, Brecht addressing Piscator's experiments also used the term 'documentary' and Piscator's mammoth revue, depicting Germany from the outbreak of First World War to the assassination of the German socialist and co-founder of the Spartacist League and the Communist Party of Germany, Karl Liebknecht, *In Spite of Everything! (Trotz Alledem!)* (1925) has been seen as the first real documentary attempt. Taking its name from a phrase used in Liebknecht's speech (Piscator, 1980, p. 70) the play constructed with montage of real news extracts, authentic recorded speeches, leaflets, slogans, photographs and film scenes from the First World War, henceforth hailed by Favorini (2008) as the "urtext of documentary theatre" (p. 74).

Another successful German representative of documentary theatre Heinard Kipphardt came to prominence with his 1964 play *Matter of J. Robert Oppenheimer* (*In der Sache J. Robert Oppenheimer*) which he formed out of 3000 pages' protocol of Cold War inquisition (Mason, 1977, p. 269). Reawakening a strong interest in documentary theatre, German playwright Rolf Hochhuth's *The Deputy* (*Der Stellvertreter*) was staged in 1963 and based on one of the major organisers of Holocaust, Nazi Lieutenant colonel Adolph Eichmann's trial. Believing in freedom of writer "which alone empowers him to give form to the matter" (Hochhuth, 1964, p. 288), Hochhuth refused to abide by the complete factual authenticity and freely invented scenes and characters for the play which still managed to remain loyal to actual history. Making use of court records, *Investigation* (*Die Ermittlung*) (1965) by the German playwright Peter Weiss was similarly based on documents of the 1964 Frankfurt War Crimes Trial on the murders in Auschwitz. Weiss proclaimed that in the play he aimed "to show the audience, in the greatest detail, exactly what happened [in Auschwitz]" (Gray, 1966, p. 108) which, among others, places the play in the heart of documentary theatre.

All of these German theatre practitioners have had a massive influence on British documentary tradition. Chronicling the First World War using the facts, statistics and documents of the time, in 1963 Joan Littlewood composed her *Oh! What a Lovely War*, one of the earliest English documentary plays. A harsh satirical attack on the war, the play is a combination of real documents, songs, dances and sketches. In a similar manner with *Oh! What a Lovely War*, *Falkland Sound* (1983) by Louise Page has set another early example of the British documentary tradition by dramatizing the Falklands War based heavily on Royal Navy supply officer David Tinker's letters. Following these landmarks, documentary theatre has flourished in British theatre.

Although the tendency to use authentic documents in the plays has generally been grouped under the umbrella term of documentary theatre, according to the type of documents they utilise, some plays may be subcategorised as verbatim theatre. Verbatim theatre, frequently used interchangeably with documentary theatre, has found its widest use in Britain, and as the name suggests, it is heavily predicated upon the exact words of real people collected from interviews, speeches, news, journals and testimonies with an aim, as Richard Norton Taylor suggests, "to uncover and establish the most accurate version of events" (Hammond & Steward, 2008, p. 114).

First coined by Derek Paget in his article titled "Verbatim Theatre: Oral History and Documentary Techniques", verbatim theatre is defined by Paget (1987) himself as:

A form of theatre firmly predicated upon the taping and subsequent transcription of interviews with 'ordinary' people, done in the context of research into a particular region, subject area, issue, event, or combination of these things. The primary source is then transformed into a text which is acted, usually by the performers who collected the material in the first place. (p. 317).

The plays Paget refers to in his article are earlier forms of verbatim theatre by theatre practitioners such as Rony Robinson, Ron Rose and David Thacker who were highly indebted to the plays and theories of Bertolt Brecht and Erwin Piscator. One of these early verbatim theatre practitioners, Peter Cheeseman highlighted local issues in his plays which were based on interviews with and recordings of local people in the mid-sixties at Victoria Theatre in Stoke-on-Trent.

In the new millennium, due to global unrest across the world, verbatim theatre has enjoyed public recognition and remarkable increase in Britain by the productions of Tricycle Theatre, Out of Joint, 7:84 Theatre Company, Liverpool Everyman and Royal Court Theatre. A "rebuke to the British theatre for its drift towards less and less important subject matter" (Hare, 2015, p.77) in David Hare's words, the Guardian reporter Richard Norton-Taylor's The Colour of Justice (1999) and others such as Nuremberg (1996), Justifying War (2003); Hare's own plays such as Via Dolorosa (1998), The Permanent Way (2003), and Stuff Happens (2004); Robin Soan's A State Affair (2000), Talking to Terrorists (2005), The Arab-Israeli Cookbook (2004), Alecky Blythe's Come Out Eli (2002) and Cruising (2003) mark some of the epitomes of verbatim theatre.

One of the most contentious and debated matters of both the 20th and the 21st centuries, the Israel-Palestine conflict has also been a popular subject on the British stage. This never-ending plight has been treated in some documentary plays such as Hare's Via Dolorosa and its sequel Wall (2009) as well as Robin Soan's Arab-Israeli Cookbook. Edited by the Guardian journalist Katherine Viner and the British actor and theatre director Alan Rickman, My Name is Rachel Corrie (2003) is another popular verbatim play predicated on this ongoing conflict. The play, constructed by diary entries and e-mails of an American peace activist Rachel Corrie, premiered at the Royal Court Theatre on 7 April 2005 and won the Theatregoers' Choice Award for the year's Best New Play, also receiving the Best Director and the Best Solo Performance awards.

Rachel Corrie in her own words, "was born on April 10th, 1979 in Olympia, Washington, to her mother and father, Craig and Cindy, a brother Chris, a sister Sarah, and a very old cat named Phoebe." (Alan & Viner, 2008, p. 5). She attended Capital High School, then The Evergreen State College where she became a member of a pro-Palestinian group called International Solidarity Movement (ISM) and then decided to go to Palestine. Just two months after she went to Palestine, Corrie was tragically crushed to death on 16 March 2003 by one of the Israeli bulldozers while trying to prevent it from demolishing Palestinians' houses. While other ISM members in the scene said the driver run over Corrie deliberately, Israeli Defence Forces claimed that it was "a regrettable accident" (BBC News, 28 Aug 2012). The Corrie family sued the Israeli Ministry of Defence for negligence, and following nearly a three-year trial, the court decided that it was an accident for which the state was not responsible. (Sherwood, 2012)

After its first production at the Royal Court, subsequent home runs in the West End and across the UK, My Name is Rachel Corrie was supposed to transfer to Broadway. Yet, New York Theatre Workshop withdrew its upcoming production of the play because of the 'political climate' of the time and due to their serious concerns about the reactions of the Jewish community. Cancellation of the play generated heated media debates mostly denouncing the act as censorship. Artistic director of the theatre, James Nicola, stated,

In our pre-production planning and our talking around and listening in our communities in New York, what we heard was that after Ariel Sharon's illness and the election of Hamas, we had a very edgy situation. We found that our plan to present a work of art would be seen as us taking a stand in a political conflict, that we didn't want to take. (Borger, 2006)

Rickman on the other hand declared "This is censorship born out of fear, and the New York Theatre Workshop, the Royal Court, New York audiences - all of us are the losers." (Borger, 2006). Following New York Theatre Workshop, a month later, Plantation's Mosaic Theater dropped the play from its line-up as "an impassioned, vocal minority strongly objected to the play" (Dolen, 2007). However, despite all the cancellations, the play was eventually staged Off-Broadway on October 15, 2006 at the Minetta Lane Theatre followed by its successful run at the Seattle Repertory Theatre in March-April 2007.

A decade after Corrie's death in 2013, the play was revived with a production in Hebrew by Jerusalem Khan Theatre. While some critics hailed the play as "a testimony to innocent lives lost in the crossfire of the Israel-Palestinian conflict" (Rubin, 2013), deputy mayor of Jerusalem David Hadari initiated a campaign to halt public funding to the theatre, and wrote a letter to the authorities in the municipality dubbing Rachel Corrie an "anti-Israel tourist" and stating that following her accidental death, they "as a state don't need to acknowledge or appreciate her" (Rubin, 2013). The campaign, however, was rejected by the mayor of Jerusalem Nir Barkat who stated as a representative of the government he was "prevented by law from interfering in the freedom of expression" (Rubin, 2013). Director Ari Remez, in response, invited those criticising the play to see it saying "It's a pity that the deputy mayor, just as MK Orit Strouk before him, is hurrying to judge the play as inciting without even seeing it. They are both most welcome to come and see the play first to see what it's all about" (Kaufman, 2013).

The play received exceptionally polarized reactions due to its touch upon delicate matters. Some critics praised it as "a remarkably moving 90-minute solo piece about human dignity and suffering," (Fischer, 2005) while newspapers reviewed it as "funny passionate, bristling with idealism and luminously intelligent" (Time Out), "Heartbreaking urgency" (The New York Times), "Deeply authentically human" (USA Today). The Guardian asserted "Theatre can't change the world. But what it can do, when it's as good as this, is to send us out enriched by other people's passionate concerns". Some others, however, commented on it as "a slight piece, worthy enough for a minor night of theatre if seen in terms of its considerable limitations, but profoundly unsatisfying, even retrograde, if regarded as a complex realization of either the art of monologue or the mission of 'progressive' theatre." (Davies, 2007, p. 27). Carol Martin (2009) also commented on the play as a "partial story" as it fails to include the Israeli side while giving voice to Palestinians. (p. 76)

Both Rachel Corrie's death and the play attracted a huge media attention. A week after Rachel's death, *The Guardian* journalist Sandra Jordan wrote the following lines, commenting on the amount of media and public interest in Rachel's death on the one hand, and hundreds of Palestinians whose death largely go unreported on the other:

On the night of Corrie's death, nine Palestinians were killed in the Gaza Strip, among them a four-year-old girl and a man aged 90. A total of 220 people have died in Rafah since the beginning of the intifada. Palestinians know the death of one American receives more attention than the killing of hundreds of Muslims. (23 March 2003)

Palestinians were not the only ones who knew that, *Rachel was also aware of the fact that going to Palestine to live there was never equal to a Palestinian's experience, as her life was not equal to theirs. Foreshadowing the grim reality Jordan points out, Rachel says,*

Nothing could have prepared me for the reality of the situation here. You can't just imagine it unless you see it. And even then your experience is not at all the reality: what with the difficulties the Israeli army would face if they shot an unarmed US citizen, the fact that I have the option of leaving. (Rickman & Viner, 2005, p. 29)

She knew that she was privileged and had options. However, she chose to stay, writing to her mother, "I want to write and I want to see. And what would I write about if I only stayed within the doll's house, the flower-world I grew in?" (Rickman & Viner, 14). The thought of leaving Palestine stirred feelings of unease in her as she states at the end of the play: "When I come back from Palestine I probably will have nightmares and constantly feel guilty for not being here, but I can channel that into more work. Coming here is one of the better things I've ever done" (Rickman & Viner, p. 50).

Although Rachel struggled even more and could never make it home, she has continued to talk about Palestine and its people after she died. As David Hare asserts verbatim theatre aims to give "voice to voiceless" (Heddon, 2008, p. 128) as well as standing out as a reaction to misinformation and the mass media. My Name is Rachel Corrie becomes this voice. It gives voice to Rachel which turns into the voice of hundreds of dead people and millions living under wretched conditions, whose death and continuing suffering don't get enough coverage all over the world. As a common feature of verbatim plays, the play uses Rachel Corrie's testimony through which she speaks for those voiceless people after bearing witness to their lives. She witnesses and chooses to speak for "the children with tank-shell holes in their wall... surrounded by towers, tanks and now a giant metal wall...¹ A city of 140.000 people, 60% of whom are refugees – many twice or three times refugees"

¹ Here, Corrie refers to Israeli West Bank wall, a highly controversial separation barrier between Israel and the West Bank, 85% of which running not along the official border Green Line but in the West Bank. While Israel claims it is a security barrier against terrorism Palestine calls it Apartheid Wall.

(Rickman & Viner, p. 29), and while witnessing Palestinian life under Israeli occupation with demolitions, checkpoints, armed warfare and economic destitution, she expresses her admiration to their resistance as "I am amazed at their strength in defending such a large degree of humanity against the incredible horror occurring in their lives and against the constant presence of death. I think the word is dignity" (Rickman & Viner, p. 35).

Although the play is criticised for falling short of giving the whole picture by excluding suicide bombings and tunnels dug from Egypt to Gaza to smuggle weapons and food for terrorist groups, Rachel, in fact, straightforwardly raises some questions taking a clear political stance,

So when someone says that any act of Palestinian violence justifies Israel's actions not only do I question that logic in light of international law and the right of people to legitimate armed struggle in defence of their land and families; not only do I question that logic in light of the fourth Geneva Convention which prohibits collective punishment, prohibits the transfer of an occupying country's population into an occupied area, prohibits the expropriation of water resources and the destruction of civilian infrastructure such as farms; not only do I question that logic in light of the notion that fifty-year old Russian guns and homemade explosives can have any impact on the activities of one of the world's largest militaries, backed by the world's only superpower, I also question that logic on the basis of common sense (Rickman & Viner, p. 48).

She also warns her mother against talking about "the cycle of violence, or 'eye for an eye'" as it would be "perpetuating the idea that the Israeli-Palestinian conflict is a balanced conflict, instead of the national liberation struggle of a largely unarmed people against the fourth most powerful military in the world" (Rickman & Viner, p.12).

"At their best [verbatim plays] enable their audiences to undertake a collective act of bearing witness. They replay political events or spoken testimony in order to retrieve a sense of the complexity of issues that have been too easily turned into digestible headlines" (p. 371). Chris Megson (2005) asserts that in *raising the problems of Palestinians into visibility* Rachel's testimony turns its audience into witnesses and compels "an ethical responsibility to testify" (Marcus, 1994, p. 213). Presenting first-hand real life experiences, it *prompts the audience to reconsider what is happening around the world, and intends to foster a new understanding of the Israeli-Palestine conflict by opening up new perspectives.*

Although she bears witness to such atrocities that make her question her "fundamental belief in the goodness of human nature" (Corrie, 27 Feb 2003) and those atrocities, wars, hunger are still going on, the video at the end of the play featuring ten-year-old Rachel Corrie giving a speech *calling for peace and ending hunger in the world* at Fifth Grade Press Conference on World Hunger, instils hope for constructing a meaningful future. Rachel may be gone but her enduring words give hope for the possibility of change and her testimony calls for action.

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