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Perceptions on Standard and Non-standard Varieties as They Relate to Ethnic Identity in a Bidialectal Setting

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Abstract

The existence of a relationship between language and identity has been extensively discussed. However, the nature of the relationship between language attitudes and identity has been claimed to take several forms: a) identity influences people's attitudes towards a language (Lambert et al. 1960), b) attitudes already held about a linguistic code serve as a determining factor in the formation, maintenance or gradual loss of an identity (Lambert et al. 1975) and, c) identity is not related to language attitudes (Ryan & Carranza 1975).

The long history of Cyprus and the resulting complex linguistic situation within the Greek Cypriot community have contributed to the struggle between Cypriots' sense of Greekness and Cypriotness. Some studies have shown that ethnic identity leads to certain linguistic preferences (Karyolemou 2002, Papapavlou & Pavlou 2007), while Ioannidou (2004) argued that a linguistic variety may be (un)favoured, regardless of the ethnic identity that may be linked to it.

The purpose of the current study is threefold; to investigate (a) Greek Cypriots' attitudes and stances towards Standard Modern Greek (SMG) and the Greek Cypriot Dialect (GCD), (b) whether Greek Cypriots' ethnic identity tends to lean more toward their Cypriot or Greek distinctiveness and, (c) whether attitudes held towards the two linguistic codes are reflected in Cypriots' ethnic identity. The study follows a direct approach to attitudes and MEIM (Phinney 1992) for the measurement of ethnic identity. Results indicate stronger Cypriot than Greek identity, and more positive attitudes towards GCD than SMG. The low correlation found between language attitudes and ethnic identity encourages the continuation of research in this area.

Key words

ethnic identity, language attitudes, standard and non-standard language varieties, language maintenance.

1 Introduction

The issue of attitudes has challenged linguists and other social scientists for many years. The issue becomes even more interesting when it is investigated in

relation to identity. As Trudgill (2000) argues, language attitudes are “the result of learned behaviour [that people acquire by] those they live in close contact with” (p. 43). Thus, if we claim that identity is mainly determined by language, then identity and attitudes are linked by common social forces. The interconnection between language attitudes and identity is rather obvious, however, the nature of this relationship has been claimed to be challenging; either identity influences people’s attitudes towards a language (Lambert et al., 1960), or attitudes already held about a linguistic code serve as a determining factor in the formation, maintenance or gradual loss of an identity (Lambert et al., 1975). Nevertheless, there are scientists who claim that there is no interaction between the two (Bond, 1985).

The present study deals with the Greek-Cypriot setting where identity and language issues appear to be inextricably intertwined. Several historical events on the island have led to the creation of a struggle between Cypriots’ Greek identity and Cypriot identity triggering a conflict of attitudes towards the two prevailing codes of the community: Standard Modern Greek (SMG) and the Greek Cypriot Dialect (GCD). Regardless of the language attitudes held, the dialect is constantly used in oral communication, despite the fact that SMG is the official language of the community. Studies conducted so far conclude that ethnic identity leads to preference of the linguistic code associated with it (Karyolemou, 2002; Papapavlou & Pavlou, 2007). On the contrary, Ioannidou (2004) concludes that a linguistic variety may be (un)favoured, regardless of the ethnic identity that is associated with it.

The purpose of the present study is to investigate the strength and direction of young Greek Cypriots’ ethnic identity (Greek vs. Cypriot), as well as their attitudes towards the two linguistic varieties that are employed within this community (GCD vs. SMG). An effort is made to test whether an individual’s ethnic identity is in consonance with their (un)favourability towards a linguistic code, or whether these two issues are completely unrelated.

2 Language attitudes

2.1 Definition

Attitude is an abstract notion of social psychology that has raised doubts over relevant research on it either in the field of linguistics or in any other field. Such problematic considerations of the issue of attitudes lie in the difficulty of its identification and consequently its measurement. However, despite all the disagreement on what attitude is and how it can be captured by experimenters, some conclusions have received support. Oppenheim (1992) admits that “most researchers seem to agree that an attitude is a state of readiness, a tendency to

respond in a certain manner confronted with certain stimuli” (p. 174). Similarly, Garrett, Coupland & Williams (2006) argue that: “We take it as axiomatic, then, that an attitude is an evaluative orientation to a social object of some sort, but that, being a ‘disposition’, an attitude is at least potentially an evaluative stance that is sufficiently stable to allow it to be identified and in some sense measured” (p. 3).

2.2 Measurement

Researchers of different disciplines have already approached the issue of attitudes in numerous ways. Each of this has received credit and criticism as well. What is important to refer to is that attitude has given rise to two main movements: the mentalist and the behaviourist. According to the mentalist approach attitudes include three components: the cognitive, the affective and the behavioural (Edwards, 1982). On the contrary, behaviourists claim that attitude can be grasped only by observing human behaviour (Fasold, 1984). Although the cognitive and affective components have received universal acceptance, the behavioural brings forth the question of whether attitudes—which are first and foremost feelings/views/beliefs—lead humans to behave accordingly. In some cases, experimental studies have confirmed a match between what people believe and what they actually do (e.g. McGroarty, 1996), but, in some other cases there seems to be a mismatch (e.g. Choi, 2003).

Through time, the distinction of approaches to language attitudes that prevailed is the one proposed by Ryan, Giles & Hewstone (1988). According to it, approaches to language attitudes fall into three groups: direct measures, indirect measures and societal treatment. All of them have already been used by linguists all over the world, but, the indirect measurement which mostly refers to the so-called ‘matched-guise technique’ is the most popular one in investigating language attitudes. It was introduced in 1960 by Lambert, Hodgson, Gardner & Fillenbaum in an effort to examine attitudes of the community of Montreal towards English and French.

“The matched-guise technique is the use of recorded voices of people speaking first in one dialect or language and then in another; [...] The recordings are played to listeners who do not know that the two samples of speech are from the same person and who judge the two guises of the same speaker as though they were judging two separate speakers.” (Gaies & Beebe, 1991, p. 157)

The advantage of an indirect approach to language attitudes is that since the participants are not aware of the true purpose, they feel comfortable to express

themselves freely. On the other hand, evaluations of set-up events based on given attributes cannot stand as representative of attitudes towards real-life events.

Then, direct measures are those that ask people what they believe of a language variety in a straightforward way; questionnaires, interviews and polls (Huguët, 2006; Lasagabaster, 2008; Papapavlou, 2007). The advantages of obtrusiveness (direct answers, rather making inferences that may not represent reality), anonymity, uniformity of responses and time flexibility come to the surface. At the same time, with direct evaluations the experimenter runs the risk of getting accounts that do not match people's reality. Asking direct questions "respondents have an idea of which answers are socially desirable. Not wishing to appear deviant, they hide their true feelings" (Henerson et al., 1987, p. 135).

Last, societal treatment entails content analysis of how people treat a linguistic variety along with its associations within society. This can be achieved through observation, ethnographic methods, and analysis of public documents concerning language policy, advertisements, literary texts, public signs etc. (Rickford & Traugott, 1985; Vaish, 2008; Garrett et al., 2009). Although such a kind of approach is found to be quite rare in traditional research of language attitudes, it has started gaining support by new researchers since its engagement with discourse-analytic methods that "notice patternings of language in use and the circumstances (participants, situations, purposes, outcomes) with which these are typically associated" (Trappes-Lomax 2004, p. 133). The main benefit of the societal treatment approach lies in that it may offer a more complete and accurate picture of the status of the linguistic variety since data are gathered naturally. However, the fact that it occurs naturally raises problems concerning reliability and validity of the study.

3 Identity, language, and language attitudes

3.1 Identity and language

"Put as simply as possible, your identity is who you are", Joseph claims (2004, p. 1). Identity can be initially distinguished between personal identity (describing an individual's unique personality) and group identity (as that being shared by people belonging to the same nation, race, ethnicity, gender, religion or social class). "Personal identity is made up in part of the various group identities to which you stake a claim, though you no doubt believe there is still a part of you that transcends the sum of these parts" (ibid., p. 5). Hence, institutions that every human being claims to be part of leave their mark on people who bear the stamp of that identity. Any messages—norms, prejudices, beliefs, ideologies or attitudes—passed to members of a society, ethnic group, nation or religion are inevitably shared and embodied in one's self identity.

Language plays a crucial role in the construction of identity and the connection between the two has already been the topic of much linguistic research. Language enables a person to get integrated into a group and others to trace his/her identity. At the same time, it serves as the means through which people describe a person's identity. Tabouret-Keller (1997) mainly attributes this highly connected relationship between language and identity to the fact that language has so many features that someone can easily adopt in an effort to be identified as a member of a group.

3.2 Ethnic identity and language

Language becomes an even more central ingredient of identity when it comes to ethnic identity. "Ethnicity is rightly understood as an aspect of a collectivity's self-recognition as well as an aspect of its recognition in the eyes of outsiders" (Fishman, 1977, p. 16). It is "an individual's membership in a social group that shares a common ancestral heritage" - biological, social, psychological, cultural, religious, geographical and linguistic (Padilla, 1999, p. 115). Especially, as far as the latter constituent of ethnic identity is concerned, Phinney (1990) stated that "language is the most widely assessed cultural practice associated with ethnic identity" (p. 505). History encloses many cases where language proved to be crucial in being identified with a certain ethnic group. For example, the Greeks called 'barbarians' non-Greek people who did not speak Greek. The Nazis considered the German language an important characteristic of 'master race' that would bring linguistic and, consequently, ethnic purity (Tabouret-Keller, 1997; Trudgill, 2000). However, this does not mean that people talking alike are part of the same ethnic group, nor that people that share the same ethnic identity must speak the same language. In a study on ethnic identity and language in Taiwan, Chiung (2001) observed that Hakka people's language started fading away, whereas their ethnic identity is still maintained. But, at the same time, language maintenance is regarded as a contributing variable in the maintenance of ethnic identity.

3.3 Ethnic identity and language attitudes

From all mentioned so far, it is inferred that language plays a role in the formation, maintenance or change of an ethnic identity. Taking for granted that language and ethnicity are somehow interlinked, we may rightly surmise that their relationship is reinforced by the role of language attitudes. Language attitudes can be used by a group to strengthen an ethnic identity or a person's ethnic identity can lead him/her to hold certain attitudes towards a linguistic variety. Ethnic identity can serve as the driving force behind people's preference

or non-preference of a language, the reason for learning it, using it or letting it die. A striking example is that of the German state's effort to awaken people's nationalism and strengthen the ethnic identity in the beginning of the 19th century, through spreading negative attitudes towards French within the masses (Kraemer & Birenbaum, 1993).

What is more, empirical studies showed that in cases that language attitudes and ethnic identity are shown to be interrelated there are two possible directions that the relationship can take. The one is when people's ethnic identity influences their attitudes towards a language or any of its associations. The other direction is when attitudes already held about a linguistic code serve as a determining variable in the formation, maintenance or death of an ethnic identity.

The first attempt to show that ethnic identity drives language attitudes is given by Lambert and his colleagues (Lambert et al., 1960; Lambert, 1967). In matched-guise experiments, they investigated language attitudes towards French-speaking and English-speaking Canadians in Montreal and showed that people for whom ethnic identity is considered more important are more in favour of their linguistic variety, in spite of national standards. Furthermore, Kraemer & Birenbaum (1993) conducted an experiment to test the effect of ethnicity on Jewish and Arab high school students' attitudes towards studying Hebrew, Arabic and English. The study provided evidence for ethnicity playing a role in people's language attitudes, since students' willingness to learn a language was associated with a sense of strengthening ethnic identity and an expression of hostility towards the 'other'. Finally, Ó Laoire (2007), in studying language attitudes in Wales, observed that people hold favourable attitudes towards Welsh—although it is not a language in use—because it has a “symbolic role [...] in ethnic identification” (p. 181).

An opposite direction between language attitudes and ethnic identity has also been claimed. Experts came to support that attitudes play a significant role on ethnic identity. Cody (2003) claimed that “attitudes speakers have about the variety of language they speak may be an indicator of the likelihood of the detachment of that variety from the speaker's construction of identity” (p. 24). As Phinney (1990) expressed, negative attitudes or absence of positive attitudes is a sign of “denial of one's ethnic identity” (p. 505). Tajfel (1978) also referred to the impact of outsiders' attitudes on someone's identity. On her discussion on minority groups, Tajfel claimed that such communities suffer discrimination. Thus, if negative attitudes are expressed towards them or any aspect of them (e.g. language), then, members acquire negative feelings too and wish for their integration into a dominant ethnic community.

A contradictory view has also been expressed, stating that ethnic identity and language attitudes are unrelated. For example, in a study on Mexican Americans' attitudes towards Standard English and Mexican American accented English, Ryan & Carranza (1975) observed that judges rated the Standard English speaker higher than the Mexican American speaker in all cases. Then, Bond's (1985) study revealed that ethnicity of the speaker did not affect the listeners' judgement. Hong Kong bilinguals were tested for their attitudes towards English and Cantonese as used by Chinese and British speakers. The results were that "a Cantonese speaker was specifically rated as more humble, honest, and friendly than an English speaker regardless of the speaker's ethnicity" (p. 58-59).

What is worth-mentioning at this point is that the issue of ethnic identity and language attitudes appears to be an even more interesting and powerful one in complex linguistic settings and especially in ones that minority groups are present. Settings that deal with two or more linguistic codes, such as bi-/multilingual, diglossic or bi-/multidialectal communities, or communities that constitute minorities within a state, usually struggle between multiple ethnicities. The appearance of multiple dialects or languages coexisting, being used in complementary distribution or with a different function, most of the times is accompanied by the presence of different (sub-)cultures leaving nations with perplexities regarding their identity. In such environments code-switching between varieties occurs in order to bring out different identities. Needless to say, that this is not always the case. For example, Spanish and Guarani in Paraguay do not correspond to two separate 'ethnocultural memberships', but, "both languages are required for full membership in the Paraguayan people" (Fishman, 1989, p. 191). On the contrary, in situations where the status of two linguistic varieties is not the same and support is not provided by authorities, people's attitudes towards each of the varieties differ and ethnic identity suffers along with them.

4 The Greek-Cypriot community: people's linguistic and ethnic identity

The linguistic character of the Greek-Cypriot community is composed by two varieties: SMG and GCD. For some researches (Pavlou, 1992), SMG corresponds to Ferguson's (1996) High variety since it constitutes the official language of the state and is used in formal contexts. Likewise, GCD, as the Low variety, is restricted to informal contexts. On the other hand, some other researchers support the existence of a linguistic continuum. That means Greek Cypriots' language ranges from a heavy dialectal variety, the 'peasantry', to a more SMG variety, the 'pen pusher talk', with two middle levels, the 'correct Cypriot' and 'polite Cypriot' (Tsiplakou et al., 2005).

The Greek-Cypriot community can be characterised as a bidialectal setting, it has a perplexed linguistic character that at times brought about struggles in their ethnic identity. GCD is widely used in people's everyday interactions and "it is undeniably the most visible marker of the respondents' identity as Cypriot" (Sciriha 1996: 99). On the other hand, SMG is the language of the Greek nation that appears in formal and written communication and it is given institutional support. In this way, Greek Cypriots have been trapped into an incessant struggle between their Greekness and Cypriotness, which has been further inflated by political rhetoric.

4.1 Greek Cypriots' attitudes towards GCD and SMG

Papapavlou (1998) is one of the first efforts made on investigating Greek-Cypriots' language attitudes. The study measured attitudes towards SMG and GCD through the use of the matched-guise technique. Results showed that people are more in favour of SMG rather than GCD. Speakers of GCD were considered uneducated, by contrast to the SMG speakers who were regarded as more educated, attractive, ambitious, intelligent, interesting, modern and pleasant.

Tsiplakou (2003) aimed at investigating attitudes towards SMG and GCD as expressed in questionnaires and interviews. The results showed that participants were not in favour of SMG and they found GCD slightly more superior attributing it higher degree of 'sincerity' and 'directness', and equal degree of 'richness of language' and 'attractiveness'. Similarly, Themistocleous (2007) studied attitudes towards an online written form of GCD. Internet users said that they prefer to use GCD in online communication rather than SMG since it "sounds more natural and because they can express themselves better" (p. 482).

Recently, another effort was made to investigate Greek-Cypriots' language attitudes towards SMG and GCD by Papapavlou & Sophocleous (2009). This study did not take the dialect as a unified code, but four different levels of it. People expressed negative feelings towards the heaviest level of GCD and tried to socially differentiate themselves from the speakers using it through the use of 'them' and 'us'. However, they did not seem to be in favour of using SMG, since they felt "like acting" (p. 13). The ideal for them is a combination of the two varieties that makes you feel comfortable on the one hand, and, on the other hand, you feel socially accepted since you do not use stigmatised features.

4.2 Interconnection between Greek Cypriots' language attitudes and ethnic identity

According to Karyolemou (2002), supporters of the Cypriot identity are more in favour of the dialect whereas those who defend Greek identity hold more

positive stances towards the standard variety. Karoulla-Vrikki (2007) offers an extensive review on language policy in education and ethnic identity from 1960 to 1997. In this paper, what appears is that at times Greek Cypriots aimed at promoting their Hellenization, language policy strove for the integration of SMG in education, but, at times they wanted to strengthen their Cypriot identity, they shifted to Cyriocentric attitudes supporting the dialect. While such studies revealed that language attitudes played an important role in the formation of an ethnic identity, another study showed that ethnic identity formation leads to certain language attitudes. In investigating Greek-Cypriot teachers' language attitudes, Papapavlou & Pavlou (2007) found that positive stances are held towards the dialect since it is perceived as promoting Cypriot identity.

4.3 Disconnection between Greek Cypriots' language attitudes and ethnic identity

Conversely to the above mentioned studies, Ioannidou (2004) studied Greek-Cypriot students' attitudes and found out that language attitudes and ethnic identity are distinct aspects of a human being. A linguistic variety may be favoured or unfavoured, regardless whether ethnic identity is associated with it. The investigator's conclusion is the following:

"Students' ethnic identities appeared multiple and complex and language seemed to play an important role in all these multiple layers of identity. Clearly the Dialect was a major feature of students' 'Cypriot' identity; it was the linguistic variety they felt more comfortable with, their mother tongue speech and their point of solidarity with the rest of the Greek Cypriots. However, it was devalued (while the identity was not) [...] Standard was clearly not a part of their identity, although they held positive values for it in matters of status and appropriateness. Nevertheless, students did not reject 'Greek' identity, and they adopted it as a complementary force in their sense of being 'Cypriots'." (p. 46)

Thus, findings arising from studies conducted so far on the issue of language attitudes and ethnic identity are not unanimous, and further research is essential in shedding light on the real situation.

4.4 Objectives of the present study

The objective of the current study is threefold. It attempts to investigate: (a) Greek Cypriots' attitudes and stances towards the two major codes (SMG and GCD) used daily, (b) whether Greek Cypriots' ethnic identity tends to lean more

toward their Cypriot or Greek distinctiveness and, (c) whether attitudes held towards the two linguistic codes are reflected in Cypriots' ethnic identity.

5 Method

5.1 Participants

In total 67 Greek-Cypriot students (11 male and 56 female) of the University of Cyprus participated in the study. The participants were from different majors attending language classes to fulfill the foreign language requirement. Students who declared that they are not Greek Cypriots were excluded from the study.

5.2 Instrument

Participants were required to fill a two-part questionnaire composed of closed-ended questions. Initially, participants were requested to state three demographic features (ethnicity, gender and place of residence). It is important to note that whereas the terms 'Gender' and 'Place of residence' were given on top of the choices, the term 'Ethnicity' was avoided in order to remove the possibility that it might cause misconceptions (usual confusion between the Greek terms of 'εθνικότητα', which refers to Greek nationality that Greek Cypriots share with mainland Greeks, and 'υπηκοότητα' and 'ιθαγένεια' which refer to Cypriot citizenship).

Then, Part A aimed at measuring people's ethnic identity, based on Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure (MEIM), developed by Phinney (1992). This measure includes questions on three aspects of ethnic identity: ethnic affirmation and belonging, ethnic identity achievement, and ethnic behaviours. Ethnic identity is "a feeling of belonging to one's group, a clear understanding of the meaning of one's [group] membership, positive attitudes towards the group, familiarity with its history and culture, and involvement in its practices" (Phinney et al., 1994, p. 169). Nonetheless, there has been a distinction between identity as a conceptual notion and identity as "behaviors such as speaking the language, eating the food, and associating with members of one's group" (Phinney & Ong, 2007, p. 272). In the present study, participants were asked to express degree of agreement (Likert scale 1-5) with statements revealing either Greekness or Cypriotness. Thus, an effort was made to test participants' direction and strength of this identity. Whereas some statements referred to *feelings* towards Greek/Cypriot identity, some other statements were concerned with the *actualization* of these feelings.

Part B followed a direct measurement of language attitudes which investigated people's attitudes towards GCD and SMG. Participants were given a number of statements expressing different views either in favour of or against

GCD or SMG. The statements were taken from online articles or blogs expressing views on language issues. The participants were asked to state whether they agreed or disagreed with those views, using the Likert scale 1-5. The questionnaire was piloted twice to check for clarity and redundancy of statements, before it was finalized and distributed. (For the actual questionnaire, see Appendix I for the Greek version and Appendix II for the English version.)

5.3 Procedure

The questionnaires were distributed to language students during class time. Prior to distributing the questionnaire, the experimenters informed the participants about the general purpose of the study. Participants were debriefed after handing in the completed questionnaire.

6 Results

After data tabulation, several statistical analyses were conducted. Descriptive statistics (mean values) of Part A and Part B appear in Figures 1 and 2.

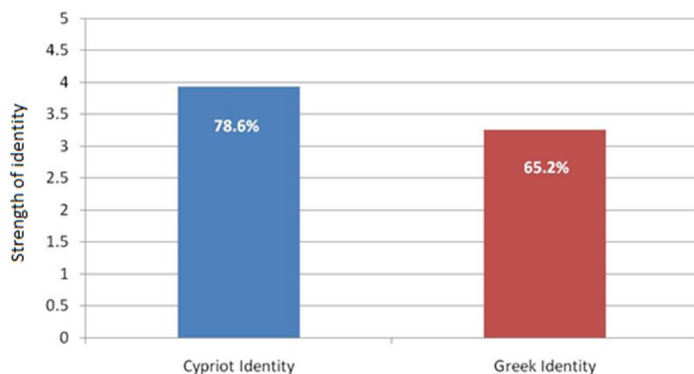


Figure 1 Ethnic identity (Part A)

From Figure 1, it is observed that statements revealing Cypriot identity obtained higher value towards agreement (78.6%) than disagreement (21.4%). As for statements supporting Greek identity, participants expressed agreement at the level of 65.2%. The difference between the Cypriot part rather than the Greek part of their identity is significantly higher, $\chi^2 (4, N = 670) = 44.28, p < 0.0001$. That is, the Cypriotness of the participants is more prevalent rather than their Greekness.

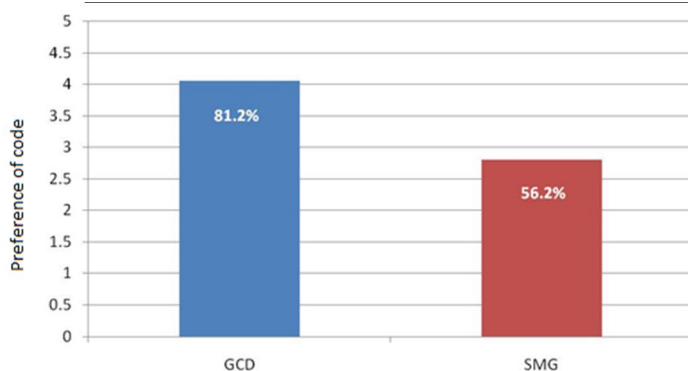


Figure 2 Language attitudes (Part B)

Regarding Greek Cypriots' attitudes towards GCD and SMG, from Figure 2, it can be seen that on average, participants favour the dialect at a level of 81.2%. The participants' favourability of SMG is at a level of 56.2%. The difference between positive attitudes towards GCD and positive attitudes towards SMG is highly significant, $\chi^2 (4, N = 670) = 148.47, p < 0.0001$. This surely reveals a clear preference of the dialect over the standard variety.

The mean value of each statement of both Part A and Part B was calculated and the results are presented in Figures 3 and 4.

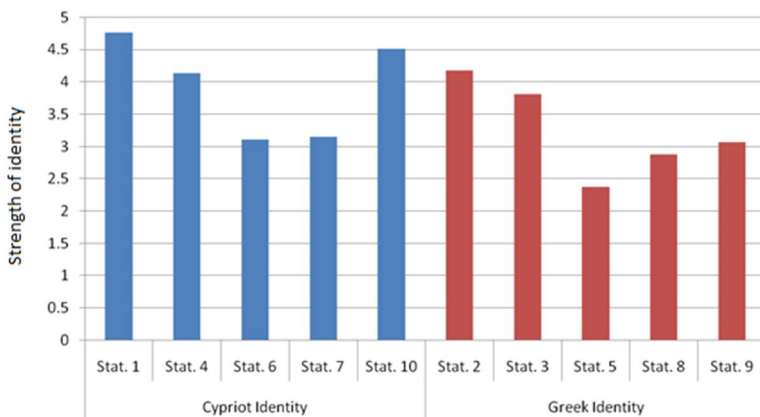


Figure 3 Mean values for Part A

From Figure 3, interesting observations come into surface. It is clear that statements 1, 4 and 10 received higher ratings of agreement with Cypriot identity, by contrast to statements 6 and 7 that received a rating around the middle point.

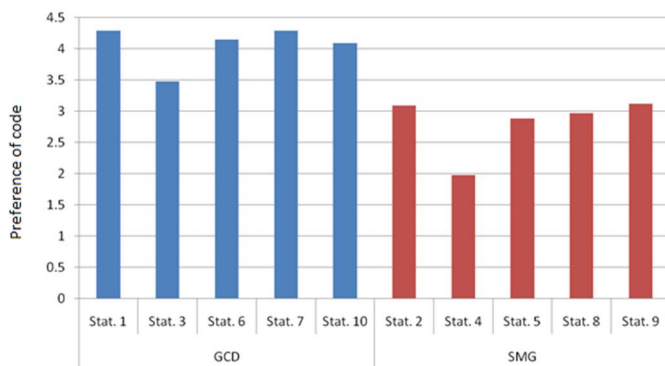


Figure 4 Mean values for Part B

Figure 4, which illustrates the results on language attitudes towards GCD and SMG, gives another interesting picture. As far as the dialect is concerned, participants expressed strong feelings and showed high favourability to the dialect. Statements 1, 6, 7 and 10 received almost full agreement.

To test whether Cypriot identity is linked with positive attitudes toward GCD and Greek identity is linked with favourability of SMG inferential statistics were used. The obtained Spearman correlation co-efficient (a non-parametric test) showed that the correlation between Cypriot identity and GCD is low ($r = 0.13$), as well as between Greek identity and SMG ($r = 0.10$). This finding is interpreted in the following section.

7 Discussion and conclusion

The purpose of the present paper was to investigate language attitudes and ethnic identity in the Greek-Cypriot setting. In adopting MEIM (Phinney, 1992), an effort was made to measure young people's sense of Greekness and Cypriotness. Also, a direct approach to language attitudes enabled the measurement of people's favourability of GCD and SMG. Inferential analysis revealed that participants' Cypriot identity is significantly stronger than their Greek identity. Also, more favourable attitudes are held towards GCD than SMG. While the correlation obtained between language attitudes and ethnic identity is low, it still shows that these two variables are somehow related. This may be

attributed to the participants' various interpretations of some statements that did not receive clear direction (agreement/disagreement). Therefore, a more careful selection of statements is essential, avoiding offensive remarks (like statement 4 which harshly describes GCD as 'χωρκάτικη'—village-like).

As stated earlier, identity is difficult to define and measure. Phinney & Ong (2007) argue that "behaviors are actions that can express an identity [...]. However, an ethnic identity is an internal structure that can exist without behavior" (p. 272). Having this in mind, the nature of the ten statements measuring identity was further examined. It was revealed that some capture the *conceptual* nature of identity and other denote *practical stances*. It appears that those statements that received high agreement (1, 4 and 10) are the ones which relate to the conceptual notion of Cypriot identity (that is feelings, emotions and attachment). On the other hand, statement 6 (which had the lowest score) refers to the manifestation and actualization of identity. As for the statements supporting Greek identity, a similar picture is sketched. Statements 2 and 3 received the highest scores and these similarly refer to a conceptual notion of identity and not to actions. On the contrary, statement 5 referring to the actualization of identity received the lowest score.

Karahan (2004) claimed that "although the original group language, as a marker of ethnicity, may not be taken as an essential component, many people continue to accept language as the central and indispensable support for ethnic group continuity" (p. 60). Language serves as a convenient means for putting forward an identity and enabling people to express it. Past research has shown that this relationship can be bidirectional. Some researchers found that ethnic identity leads people to form certain attitudes about a linguistic variety, whereas some others claim that language attitudes play a crucial role in one's formation, weakening or change of ethnic identity. Based on the findings of the current study, it is suggested that a more robust methodology is needed to ascertain the strength of this relationship. A more careful construction of statements—revealing either the conceptual or the practical nature of the issues under investigation—may bring to the surface a clearer picture of the relationship between language and ethnic identity.

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APPENDIX I



ΕΡΩΤΗΜΑΤΟΛΟΓΙΟ

Παρακαλούμε να απαντήσετε όλες τις ερωτήσεις αυτού του ερωτηματολογίου εκφράζοντας τις απόψεις σας με ειλικρίνεια και προσοχή πάνω σε θέματα που άπτονται της ταυτότητας και της γλώσσας. Το ερωτηματολόγιο αυτό είναι ανώνυμο και τα αποτελέσματα θα παραμείνουν εμπιστευτικά. Η μελέτη που θα προκύψει θα παρουσιαστεί σε διεθνές επιστημονικό περιοδικό.

Σας ευχαριστούμε!

Ανδρέας Παπαυάου, Καθηγητής, & Μελανή Σατράκη, Υποψήφια διδάκτορας,
 Πανεπιστήμιο Κύπρου

ΔΗΜΟΓΡΑΦΙΚΑ ΣΤΟΙΧΕΙΑ

Παρακαλούμε όπως βάλετε ✓ όπου ισχύει για εσάς.

| Δηλώστε: | | Φύλο | | Τόπος διαμονής | |
|----------------------------------|--|---------|--|----------------|--|
| Ελληνοκύπριος/-α | | Άντρας | | Πόλη | |
| Ελλαδίτης/-ισα | | Γυναίκα | | Χωριό | |
| Κοινοτικός/-ή | | | | | |
| Ελληνοκύπριος/-α από μεικτό γάμο | | | | | |
| Άλλο | | | | | |

(Α) ΤΑΥΤΟΤΗΤΑ

Παρακαλούμε να βαθμολογήσετε σε κλίμακα 1-5 για να δείξετε πόσο ισχύει η κάθε μία από τις παρακάτω δηλώσεις για εσάς.

1 – Καθόλου 2 – Λίγο 3 – Μέτρια 4 – Πολύ 5 – Πάρα πολύ

| | |
|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. Νιώθω άνετα με την κυπριακή μου ταυτότητα. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. Έχω ξεκάθαρη αίσθηση της ελληνικής μου καταγωγής και τι σημαίνει αυτή για εμένα. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. Πιστεύω ότι η Κύπρος ανήκει στο ελληνικό έθνος. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4. Νιώθω πολύ περήφανος/η για την κυπριακή μου καταγωγή και τα επιτεύγματα του λαού. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 5. Δραστηριοποιούμαι σε κοινωνικές ομάδες που προβάλλουν την ελληνική ταυτότητα. | <input type="checkbox"/> |

| | |
|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------|
| 6. Συμμετέχω σε πολιτιστικά δρώμενα που προβάλλουν τον κυπριακό πολιτισμό (έθιμα, μουσική, χορό, φαγητό, κλπ). | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 7. Η προώθηση της ελληνικής ταυτότητας στην Κύπρο δημιουργήσε και δημιουργεί συνεχείς προστριβές στον κυπριακό λαό. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 8. Η εμμονή των Κυπρίων με την κυπριακή ταυτότητα εμποδίζει την εκτίμηση και το σεβασμό που οφείλουν να έχουν οι Κύπριοι για το ελληνικό έθνος. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 9. Η προσκόλληση μου στο ελληνικό έθνος είναι απαραίτητη για την εθνική μου ταυτότητα. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 10. Ως Κύπριος, οφείλω σεβασμό προς την Κυπριακή Δημοκρατία και τους θεσμούς της. | <input type="checkbox"/> |

(B) ΓΛΩΣΣΑ

Οι παρακάτω δηλώσεις αποτελούν απόψεις για το θέμα γλώσσα-διάλεκτος που έχουν εκφραστεί αυτούσια από διάφορα άτομα κατά καιρούς σε online άρθρα εφημερίδων, blogs κτλ. Παρακαλούμε να βαθμολογήσετε το πόσο συμφωνείτε με αυτές τις απόψεις χρησιμοποιώντας την πιο κάτω κλίμακα 1-5.

1 – Καθόλου 2 - Λίγο 3 - Μέτρια 4 - Πολύ 5 - Πάρα πολύ

| | |
|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. Η διατήρηση της κυπριακής διαλέκτου είναι ηθική υποχρέωσή μας. Η χρήση της θα πρέπει να γίνεται με σύνεση [για] να μας επιτρέψει να μπορούμε να ανανεώνουμε το λεξιλόγιό μας όσο το δυνατό, διασταυρώνοντας την ευφράδεια με τη διαλεκτική χρήση. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. Αρκετοί καθηγητές απαγορεύουν τη χρήση της κυπριακής διαλέκτου, θεωρώντας την εμπόδιο στη εκμάθηση της νεοελληνικής. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. Κάποτε προβάλλαμε την κυπριακή διάλεκτο ως μέσο άμυνας εναντίον των Άγγλων, που μας έλεγαν ότι είμαστε μπάσταρδοι και όχι Έλληνες. Εμείς επιμέναμε στις ρίζες μας και μιλούσαμε τη γλώσσα μας, τα κυπριακά, για να αντισταθούμε σε αυτή τη νοοτροπία. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4. Τι είναι η κυπριακή διάλεκτος; Χωρκάτικη, λένε κάποιοι. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 5. Αλλά αν θέλουμε να βοηθήσουμε τα παιδιά μας, καλό θα ήταν να τους μιλούμε με μια πιο καθαρή γλώσσα, για να μην χρειάζονται μετά στο σχολείο και στη ζωή να μεταφράζουν το «καττούι» σε γατάκι και το «λαλώ» σε λέγω... | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 6. Είναι η κυπριακή διάλεκτος και για μένα που είμαι από χωριό και για σένα που είσαι από την πόλη. | <input type="checkbox"/> |

| | |
|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------|
| 7. Δεν πρέπει να ντρεπόμαστε για τη διάλεκτό μας, αλλά να προσπαθήσουμε να την εξευμενίσουμε, κρατώντας το ιδιωματικό της στίγμα και εμπλουτίζοντάς την με νέες λέξεις και εκφράσεις. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 8. Αυτό που γίνεται είναι μια προσπάθεια ιδεολογικοποίησης της διαλέκτου. Κάποιοι κύκλοι επειδή έπαψαν να αισθάνονται Έλληνες θεωρούν ότι μπορούν να αποκόψουν την κυπριακή από τον ελληνικό κορμό και να την παρουσιάσουν ως αυτόνομη γλώσσα. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 9. Ας είμαστε ειλικρινείς, η Κυπριακή διάλεκτος αλώνει τα καινούργια περιβάλλοντα, τα έως χθες περιβάλλοντα της Κοινής. Το ερώτημα που πρέπει να μας προβληματίζει τώρα είναι μήπως και η Κοινή στην Κύπρο χρειάζεται προστασία και όχι απαξίωση; | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 10. Ο πραγματικός διαλεκτόφωνος ομιλητής έχει την ικανότητα να διαχειρίζεται τα γλωσσικά μέσα που έχει στη διάθεσή του, για να επικοινωνήσει αποτελεσματικά, χρησιμοποιώντας μια κυπριακή διαφοροποιημένη, πολλαπλή, αλλά ακόμα ζωντανή. | <input type="checkbox"/> |

APPENDIX II



QUESTIONNAIRE

We kindly ask you to answer all the questions included in this questionnaire expressing your views with sincerity and attention on issues related to identity and language. The questionnaire is anonymous and the results will remain confidential. The study that will come out will appear in an international scientific journal.

Thank you!

Andreas Papapavlou, Professor, & Melanie Satraki, Doctoral candidate, University of Cyprus

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

Please put a ✓ in the appropriate box.

| Note: | | Gender | | Place of residence | |
|-----------------------------------|--------------------------|--------|--------------------------|--------------------|--------------------------|
| Greek Cypriot | <input type="checkbox"/> | Male | <input type="checkbox"/> | Town | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Mainland Greek | <input type="checkbox"/> | Female | <input type="checkbox"/> | Village | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| European community citizen | <input type="checkbox"/> | | | | |
| Greek Cypriot from mixed marriage | <input type="checkbox"/> | | | | |
| Other | <input type="checkbox"/> | | | | |

(A) IDENTITY

Evaluate the following statements using the scale 1-5 to show to what extent each one applies for you.

1 - Not at all 2 - A little 3 - Moderately 4 - Much 5 - Very much

| | |
|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. I feel comfortable with my Cypriot identity. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. I have a clear sense of my Greek origin and what this means to me. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. I believe that Cyprus belongs to the Greek nation. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4. I feel really proud of my Cypriot origin and people's accomplishments. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 5. I am active in social groups that promote Greek identity. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 6. I participate in cultural practices that promote Cypriot culture (customs, music, dancing, food, etc). | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 7. The promotion of Greek identity in Cyprus created and creates constant frictions to the Cypriot people. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 8. Cypriots' obsession with Cypriot identity is an obstacle for the appreciation and the respect Cypriots owe to feel towards Greek nation. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 9. My attachment to Greek nation is essential for my ethnic identity. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 10. As Cypriot, I owe respect to the Republic of Cyprus and its institutions. | <input type="checkbox"/> |

(B) LANGUAGE

The following statements constitute opinions on the issue of language-dialect as they have been expressed by several people from time to time in online newspaper articles, blogs etc. Please evaluate the following statements to show to what extent you agree with each one of them using the scale 1-5.

1 - Not at all 2 - A little 3 - Moderately 4 - Much 5 - Very much

| | |
|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. The preservation of Cypriot dialect is our moral obligation. Its use should be undertaken with caution [to] allow us to be able to update our vocabulary as possible, intersecting the eloquence with the dialectical use. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. Some teachers prohibit the use of the Cypriot dialect, considering it an obstacle in learning Modern Greek. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. Once, we put forward the Cypriot dialect as a means of defense against the English, who were telling us that we are bastards and not Greeks. We insisted on our roots and were talking our language, Cypriot, to resist this view. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4. What is the Cypriot dialect? Some say, 'village-like'. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 5. But if we want to help our children, it would be good to speak to them in a 'clearer' language, so as not to need, later at school and in life, to translate 'kat ^h :ui' into 'yataki' and 'lalo' into 'leyo'... | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 6. The Cypriot dialect is both for me coming from village and for you coming from town. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 7. We should not be ashamed of our dialect, but we must try to placate it, keeping its idiomatic stigma and enriching it with new words and expressions. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 8. What is happening is an attempt to create an ideological dialect. Some circles, because they ceased to feel Greek, believe that they can sever the Cypriot dialect from the Greek body and present it as an autonomous language. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 9. Let's be honest, the Cypriot dialect invaded the new environments which belonged to the Standard until yesterday. The question that should concern us now is whether the Standard needs protection in Cyprus, and not scorn? | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 10. The real dialect speaker has the ability to manage the linguistic means at their disposal to communicate effectively, using a Cypriot code which is different, multiplex, but still alive. | <input type="checkbox"/> |

Heritage Language Learning Motivation, Self-Perceived Identity and Maintenance among Chinese-American College Students

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to explore different levels of Chinese American heritage language learners' self-perceived ethnicity and the relationships among their identities, learning motivations, language behaviors, and views of heritage language maintenance. All participants (N=12) completed the Survey of Chinese as Heritage Language Learner and the survey of Attitudes/Motivation Test Battery to measure the participants' self-perceived ethnicity, learning motivations and language behaviors. Their processes of heritage language maintenance were explored through in-depth interviews. The results of this research demonstrated that the language preferences of participants' in different levels of Chinese courses were affected by different environments. Learners in the upper-level group demonstrated higher enthusiasm to practice Chinese with their family members. The higher their willingness to practice Chinese, the better their heritage language could be maintained. In order to develop new approaches in heritage language instruction, future studies might consider exploring the question of to what extent heritage language achievement affects learners' heritage language maintenance by comparing heritage learners at different proficiency levels.

Keywords

heritage language maintenance, learning motivations, self-perceived identities, language behaviors

Introduction

It is important to realize that heritage language maintenance (HLM) is not only an individual process, but also a social process that involves connections with schools and teachers (Vygotsky, 1978). Therefore, addressing how to deal with various needs of language learners from different backgrounds has been a particular concern for Chinese language programs in the US. The learners in Chinese language classes have been generally categorized into two groups: heritage language learners (HLLs) and non-heritage learners (Non-HLLs) of Chinese. Most of the time, Chinese HLLs are considered to have different language backgrounds than Non-HLLs, who learn Chinese as a foreign language (Lu, 2007; Lee & Kim, 2008). Thus, it is essential for Chinese language educators

to value the individual's characteristics and figure out what factors affect Chinese HLLs in maintaining their heritage language (HL).

According to Hornberger and Wang (2008), identity is crucial in a child's development and learning because it is related to his/her sense of belonging, values, competence and achievement. HLLs with multiple identities undergo a process of contextually defining themselves according to their relationships to others, so they constantly negotiate, shape and reshape their identities. This complex process becomes an essential concept in the learning of a HL and culture. Thus, studies that address fundamental theory regarding HLLs' learning motivations and self-perceived identities are greatly needed in order to understand the path of HL development and maintenance.

The purpose of this study was to explore different levels of Chinese American HLLs' self-perceived ethnicity and the relationships among their identities, learning motivations, language behaviors, and their views of HLM. Three primary research questions are addressed: 1) To what extent does language proficiency affect their learning motivation and their self-perceived ethnicity? 2) What are Chinese American HLLs' language behaviors in different environments? 3) How do Chinese American HLLs in college maintain and view their HL? Exploring these issues of HLM will enrich educators' understanding of what factors contribute to the successful maintenance of Chinese HL and what Chinese HLLs' language behaviors are in different language environments. Addressing these questions may also help educators in developing new heritage learner curricula for classroom teaching.

Theories of ethnic identity development and heritage language acquisition

Tse (1998, p. 15) proposed a model of ethnic identity development based on the experiences of racial minorities that focuses on attitudes toward the heritage and majority languages. The model consists of four major stages: 1) Unawareness, 2) Ethnic ambivalence/evasion, 3) Ethnic emergence, and 4) Ethnic identity incorporation. Considering the perspective of ethnic identity formation and second language acquisition, Tse (1998) proposed that both comprehensible input and club or group membership are essential components of HLM and ethnic identity development. Comprehensible input (CI) theory (Krashen, 1985) refers to linguistic input in the target language that is understandable, while the club or group membership (CM) theory accounts for the emotional connections of a member to the target language group (Tse, 1998). Whether or not the components of CI and CM are present during HL acquisition plays an important role in forming the framework of ethnicity identity

development. Tse's framework of time and ethnic identity development was applied in the current study to understand Chinese HLLs' language development and HLM.

Motivation research in second language (L2) acquisition

Motivation in L2 language learning has been an essential research topic in language education. One of the most influential frameworks for such inquiry is Gardner's (1985) socio-educational model, which integrates attitudes, motivations, and language learning into one model (Dörnyei, 1998; Gardner et al., 2004; Lee & Kim, 2008). Gardner proposed that students' attitudes toward the specific language group influence how successful they will be in language learning. Thus, acquiring a second language not only involves adopting its rules and grammar patterns, but also engaging in new social and cultural behavior, which leads the learners to a new second language identity (Dörnyei, 1998; Lee & Kim, 2008).

Gardner's socio-educational model is structured by two motivational orientations: integrative motivation and instrumental motivation. The former refers to the individual's desire to join the target language group and interest in the cultural values of the target language. The latter is characterized by the individual's desire to obtain some practical or material rewards from the study of the target language (Dörnyei, 1998; Lee & Kim, 2008). Gardner's early studies indicated that integrative motivation had greater influence on the language learning process than instrumental motivation. Yet in later studies, researchers (Au, 1988; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1991) found that instrumental motivation also has a significant influence on language learning outcomes. The power of integrative motivation may not necessarily be superior to that of instrumental motivation.

In order to adopt a wider vision of motivation, Tremblay and Gardner (1995) extended Gardner's socio-educational model by expanding Gardner's social psychological construct of L2 motivation (Dörnyei, 1998). In the revised model (see Tremblay & Gardner, 1995), motivation is characterized as consisting of "motivational behavior" and "adaptive attributions," which are also called "motivational antecedents" (Dörnyei, 1998; Lee & Kim, 2008). "Motivational behavior" includes three characteristics: attention, motivational intensity, and persistence, while "motivational antecedents" include: goal salience, valence, and self-efficacy. Tremblay and Gardner's (1995) framework shows that language attitudes influence the mediator variables of goal salience, valence, and self-efficacy, which in turn shape motivational behavior (Dörnyei, 1998). In this

study, their framework was used to analyze the Chinese HLLs' learning motivation.

Methodology

All participants were students at a Midwestern university in the United States. The Chinese program of this university has four levels of language courses, elementary level to advanced level. The lowest level courses, C101 and C102, are offered in the fall and spring semesters respectively, and are normally where students begin their Chinese language learning, though some begin at higher levels if they pass a language placement test or the advanced placement (AP) exam in high school. C201/C202 levels are also identified as lower-level, while C301/C302 and C401/C402 are identified as higher-level courses. Students are therefore identified as lower or higher level on the basis of the standards of the Chinese language courses in which they are enrolled. In this study 12 HLLs were selected (6 in lower-level and 6 in upper-level Chinese courses). All of the participants in this study started with C101 without skipping any Chinese level. Thus, being in the upper-level group indicated that these HLLs had been learning Chinese for a longer period of time, at least during their college years, than HLLs in the lower-level group.

The Survey of Chinese as Heritage Language Learner (SOCALL)

All participants were asked to fill out the SOCALL survey (See Appendix A), which is adapted from Zhu (2010). There are 10 items in the demographic section. This scale also investigates how Chinese heritage learners identify themselves in terms of how they dress and eat and how they perceive their height and weight by using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 ("Very Chinese") to 5 ("Very Americanized").

The language behavior scale examines participants' language behaviors with immediate family, extended family, and peers and teachers at school. Participants are asked to answer each question according to a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 ("Almost or always Chinese") to 5 ("Almost or always English"). Open-ended questions make up the final section of the SOCALL survey. This section consists of three short answer questions that explore participants' views about HLM and how they achieve it.

Survey of Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB)

The survey of Attitude Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) was adapted to measure attitudes, motivation, and anxiety associated with learning Chinese (see Appendix B). This adapted AMTB survey (Gardner, 1985; Gardner, 2004; Tennant

& Gardner, 2004) consists of 10 items, each of which represents one of five language variables: Integrative Orientation (1 item, No.1), Attitudes toward the Learning Situation (3 items, No. 2, 5, 8), Motivation (3 items, No. 3, 4, 10), Anxiety (2 items, No. 7, 9) and Instrumental Orientation (1 item, No. 6). Each item was rated on a 6- point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree.

In-depth Interview

The interview focused on the process of HL learning and maintenance as well as HLLs' language behavior preferences in different contexts. There were a total of 15 questions. Some questions concerned the subjects' language backgrounds and language learning processes, while others explored more detailed information than that obtained in the survey. There were also some questions addressing participants' experiences in school and with families, and the different types of activities in which they participated. These interviews enabled the researcher to obtain a greater understanding of Chinese HLLs' views on ethnic identity, language education and HLM.

Results and discussion

Research Question 1

To what extent do Heritage Language Learners' Chinese language levels affect their self-perceived ethnicity and learning motivation?

Heritage Language Learners' Chinese levels and Self-perceived ethnicity

To measure the self-perceived ethnicity among Chinese HLLs, the Chinese American Self-Perceived Identity Scale included in the SOCALL survey was used. The results (See Table 1) showed that the lower-level group identified themselves as mostly Americanized, while the upper-level group tended to identify themselves as more Chinese American.

Table1 Chinese heritage learners' self-perceived ethnicity

| No. | Questions | Overall Mean | Upper-level Mean | Lower-level Mean |
|-----|-----------------------------------------------------|--------------|------------------|------------------|
| 7 | How would you describe yourself at home? | 2.83 | 2.67 | 3.00 |
| 8 | How would you describe yourself in Chinese classes? | 3.42 | 3.17 | 3.67 |

Such a distinction may be explained by the notion that HLLs in the upper-level group have usually been learning Chinese for a longer period of time in college

than HLLs in the lower-level group and so their self-perceived identities in classes might be influenced by their deeper knowledge of the language and its culture.

A similar result is found for the question of how they described themselves at home (See Table 1). The lower-level HLLs identified themselves as Chinese American at home while the upper-level HLLs pictured themselves as mostly Chinese. Such a distinction may reflect that HLLs in the upper-level group use the HL more frequently at home than the lower-level group because they have more confidence in their HL skills, which in turn encourages them to speak Chinese with their native-speaking family members. Their improvement of HL skills in school might further assist their understanding of their culture, HL development and HLM. The following interview data further explain the positive association between Chinese language level and the self-perceived Chinese identity.

In the in-depth interviews, 10 participants pointed out that it was very difficult to define whether they were more Americanized or Chinese. Yujia, from the lower-level group, stated:

"I consider myself a Chinese-American or Taiwanese-American. This is just because it's a combination of both cultures. When I am in America, I feel that I am more like an Asian, but when I am in Taiwan, I am definitely not like an Asian anymore. I feel more American. So, it's really like it's both."

In other words, HLLs found that their identities changed according to their environment or the people they were with. Weijing, another student, from the lower-level group, also mentioned that his identity switched according to the ethnicity of different friends he was with. He explained:

"I will say I am an ABC [American-born Chinese]. ABC sounds cool. I think it really depends on the situation like the environment you are in. For instance, if I hang out with people from Asia, I will become more like them, and when I hang around with more American people, I act more like them. For the most part, I am probably more like an American because I have lived in the US for so long."

Weijing was not able to define his identity at first. He finally decided that he is more Americanized because he has lived in the U.S. longer than in Taiwan. On the other hand, Yuansi from the upper-level group felt there were advantages to having two cultural identities. He stated:

"I started wondering who I was when I was maybe in high school. Everyone in high school experiences an identity phase. It's easier for me to make friends with American people rather than international students. So, I am more Americanized. But, I don't want to be considered a complete American. The more cultures you know, the better you will be."

Yuansi's comment suggests that HLLs experience the "ethnic ambivalence/evasion" stage (Tse, 1988) during their ethnic identity development. They begin to wonder who they are once they realize that there are many ethnic groups surrounding them. Furthermore, Yuansi saw advantages to having two identities. He believed that a dual cultural identity made him better than having only one. This sense of dual identity superiority may derive from his Chinese level, suggesting that the longer he had been taking HL courses in college, the more advantages he found in having dual identities.

On the contrary, HLLs like Weijing might take on the identity of friends from different ethnic groups whom he happened to be with. But, eventually, he chose only one identity with which he felt more comfortable. Weijing explained:

"When I was a freshmen and sophomore, I wanted to be everybody's friend. So I spoke Chinese to Chinese people like 你好! 你是中國人嗎? (Hi, are you Chinese?). But now, I just pretend that I really don't know Chinese. I feel that for Chinese Americans, there is still a big culture gap between Chinese and Americans. For example, I still don't understand a lot of Chinese jokes and they do not understand a lot of jokes I would make. So, because of that, I used to be friends with lots of Chinese people, but now I have kind of drifted apart. Now, I am probably going more to be American again. I felt like once you picked a side, it's hard to mix with them. It is hard to mix Chinese people and American people. It's just like two different roles. You cannot really balance. I felt more comfortable being more Americanized because I understand the jokes. I understand the culture. The more I hang out with Chinese people the more I realize that I am doing a weird thing that American people don't really do."

Weijing's words suggest that he first tried to identify culturally with both Chinese and Americans. Then, he began encountering difficulties socializing with Chinese people because of a language barrier and dissimilar cultural values. He

made a final decision and identified himself as more Americanized due to a stronger sense of cultural belonging.

Heritage Language Learners' Chinese levels and Learning motivation

To measure the attitude, motivation, and anxiety associated with Chinese learning among Chinese HLLs, the AMTB survey results were analyzed according to the categorization of content variables: Integrative Orientation, Attitudes toward the Learning Situation, Motivation, Anxiety, and Instrumental Orientation.

As shown in Table 2, participants showed slightly higher integrative orientation (5.42) than instrumental orientation (5.17) in Chinese learning, identifying their greatest motivation for learning Chinese as having strong desire to interact with Chinese people. However, instrumental motivation, which can be defined as studying Chinese in order to get a good job, was a close second overall and actually higher for the upper level learners. Despite having less language learning experience, the lower level students scored higher than the upper level students on integrative orientation and notably lower on instrumental orientation. This implied that the main motivation for most lower-level HLLs to take Chinese courses is to build up their HL foundation to communicate with others. Since the lower-level students had not yet selected their majors in college, they were uncertain as to whether or not learning and maintaining their HL skills would be highly associated with their future careers.

Table 2 Context and language levels on Chinese HLLs' Chinese learning motivations, attitudes, and anxiety.

| Context | Overall Mean | Upper-level Mean | Lower-level Mean |
|-----------------------------|--------------|------------------|------------------|
| 1. Integrative orientation | 5.42 | 5.33 | 5.50 |
| 3. Motivation | 5.33 | 5.17 | 5.50 |
| 4. Anxiety | 2.21 | 2.75 | 1.67 |
| 5. Instrumental orientation | 5.17 | 5.50 | 4.83 |

The interviews with the participants further supported the data from the survey. Yangxue from the lower-level group stated, "The reason why I am taking Chinese courses is because I really want to learn how to read and write so that I can better communicate with my grandparents." In addition, Lianwei from the upper-level group also stated:

“I could not imagine going to visit my Taiwanese grandparents and not being able to say a thing to them. It is just kind of like limiting yourself and putting your family off because of the language barrier.”

Thus, being able to communicate with their family members was a priority that motivated HLLs to learn the HL. Additionally, HLLs hoped to improve their reading and writing skills, so that they would be able to understand Chinese culture better, as Yiyuan mentioned.

Comparing the upper-level students and the lower-level students, the results showed that the lower-level group rated their integrative motivation to learn Chinese (5.50) slightly higher than the upper-level group (5.17), while the upper-level group rated their anxiety about learning Chinese (2.75) higher than the lower-level group (1.67). These results imply that as the learners’ build their language skills and advance their level, their anxiety about Chinese decreases their learning motivation. Lianwei, from the upper-level group supported this argument with the following explanation:

“The more you know, the less you realize you know. The higher the proficiency, definitely, the more discouraging it is because it’s so hard. Now I’ve started to get more exposure to issues like economics and politics and diplomacy. There is such a wide range of vocabulary that I realized I did not know.”

Thus, it could be seen that as the HLLs began to encounter learning difficulties as their Chinese level rose, they realized their at-home language proficiency did not provide the complex vocabulary or syntax to discuss complex topics. . They began to put in more effort and adjust their learning habits in order to improve their proficiency.

Although participants on average showed slightly higher integrative orientation than instrumental orientation toward learning Chinese, the upper-level group rated instrumental orientation (5.50) higher than the lower-level group (4.83). This implies that a factor such as securing a good job becomes a vital purpose for the upper-level HLLs to continue learning their HL. Lianwei from the upper-level group further expressed other practical reasons for learning Chinese:

“China now is developing so fast and is becoming a powerful nation. There are many important job positions that require bilinguals now, especially with the US and China relations. There are so few of us that can speak Chinese and English fluently. [The companies] are going to pay good money for people who can do it

well. I will be closing a lot of doors if I cannot develop my Chinese further. [Learning Chinese] is a slow and painful process, but it's a process that I am going to endure."

Lianwei acknowledged the future value of being a Chinese-English bilingual. This instrumental orientation motivated him to maintain and continue learning his HL, even though he found the process of advanced Chinese learning difficult.

Research Question 2

What are Chinese American heritage learners' language behaviors in different environments?

To measure HLLs' language behaviors and preferences, participants' responses to a total of 20 items in Part III of the SOCALL survey were analyzed. Items 16 and 17, referring to the language(s) spoken by the participant's grandparents at home, and items 8 and 9, referring to the language(s) the participant spoke to each grandparent, had means of 1.08 and 1.33 respectively, indicating regular use of Chinese in conversations with these family members, often by necessity. As Yiyuan explained, "To my grandparents, I only speak Chinese because they don't understand English." Yet, whether HLLs can maintain their HL successfully by speaking with their grandparents may depend on the content of their conversations. Simply using conventional Chinese expressions with their grandparents might do little to promote HLLs' language ability as Weijing described:

"I speak to my grandparents in Chinese because they don't understand me in English. But, [we] just [speak with] simple words like 謝謝(thank you), 好 (ok), 吃飯 (have dinner), and 再見 (good-bye). There is nothing really complicated. And anything that is really complicated I probably wouldn't know how to say it anyways."

Weijing's case may be typical in that conversations with older members of the family may not be deep or complex enough to stretch learners' language skills. Furthermore, the results for items 2 and 10 regarding the language(s) participants or their close friends speak, which had means of 4.58 and 4.67 respectively indicate that these Chinese HLLs preferred speaking English to Chinese at school, especially when they were around their peers. This result is consistent with Luo and Wiseman's (2000) and Zhang's (2004) findings, which show that as immigrants' children reach school age, their out-group contact with

friends increases. Because HLLs accept English acquisition in schools, they most likely speak English with friends in school.

Correspondently, item 18, what language(s) do your best friend (s) speak at school received the highest mean value of 4.75, which confirmed that participants' communications with friends at school were almost always in English. During the interview, all participants explained why they preferred speaking English with their peers. Their reasons can be summarized with three related themes, identity, habits, and acceptance by the social group. As Yujia described:

"When I was young I didn't really know who I was. It was kind of confusing. In my school, Asians were still the minority. The majority was white. When I was little, I wanted to be white [as Caucasian] because it's the majority and the majority was accepted. At that time, I wanted to be someone else. Everyone wants to be someone else. To some of my ABC friends, I know they can understand [Chinese], but sometimes, I am not sure if they can really speak Chinese. Because some ABCs don't know how to speak it at all, but most of them can understand. It's weird to speak Chinese with my ABC friends because, since when we were little, we have just been speaking English with each other."

Because their friends were most likely Americans or American-born Chinese (ABC), English was the default language for HLLs communications in school, especially to be accepted by the majority. From the time they were young, they spoke English with ABC friends, and they could not be sure whether new friends were able to speak Chinese or not. Thus, it would be more safe and comfortable to communicate with each other in English.

HLLs might also feel less confident in their HL, in which they were more likely to make mistakes. As Yuansi said,

"I like to speak Chinese with my parents instead of my friends because when I speak Chinese to my parents, they won't judge me if I say something wrong. But, if I say something wrong with my friends, it's kind of embarrassing."

If the first language, in this case English is available to both parties in a conversation, and both want to avoid the embarrassment of making mistakes, it is natural they will speak in the language with which they feel most comfortable. Further, analysis revealed that the largest mean difference between the upper-

level and the lower-level groups were in the language(s) they spoke with their mother and their siblings (items 5 and 7). The upper-level group used Chinese with their mother much more than the lower-level group. A practice they found beneficial to their language learning. As Lianwei from the upper-level group stated, "These days I try to speak more Chinese with my Mom in order to practice it. The more I speak the better I get, obviously."

Similarly, the lower-level group used more English than Chinese when talking to their siblings, while the upper-level group reported a more balanced use of Chinese and English with their siblings. Yangxue from the lower-level group explained,

"My sister can speak a little bit of Chinese, but we just like to communicate with each other in English because it is the way we talked to each other when we were young."

Weijing shared the same point of view. He stated, "I speak English to my sister. Her Chinese is better than mine. I will say that our main language is English, so it will be strange if we are talking in Chinese. The only situation that we talk to each other in Chinese is when we are talking behind others' backs."

In contrast to Weijing and Yangxue's responses, Qiwen and Lianrui from the upper-level group mentioned that they had been practicing Chinese with their siblings ever since they began studying Chinese in college. Qiwen said:

"Ever since I started studying [Chinese] at college, I definitely use it more with my parents. They want me to practice it. My brother started studying it again when he went to Purdue. Sometimes, we speak to each other in Chinese now. Over the summer at FCI (Flagship Chinese Institute), when I called my family, I would speak to them in Chinese and practice a little bit more."

These remarks demonstrated that learners in the upper-level group were more willing than the lower-level learners to use opportunities to practice their HL with family members.

Research Question 3

How do Chinese heritage learners maintain and view their heritage language?

Results from the three open-ended questions in the SOCALL survey were analyzed. HLLs reflected that they had a responsibility to maintain the HL in order to understand their heritage culture and pass on the knowledge to the next

generation. They believed that having the ability to comprehend the HL and culture would enable them to discover their ethnic identities.

Table 3 summarizes the top five methods assisting Chinese HLLs in maintaining their HL. Although speaking Chinese with families and friends is a good and natural way to maintain their HL, HLLs ranked “taking Chinese courses” as the most useful and efficient method for HLM. Furthermore, two participants from the upper-level group suggested that reading Chinese novels, watching Chinese movies, and listening to Chinese stories such as holiday, zodiac, and historical stories as well as fairy tales motivated their HL learning and helped with HLM. In other words, HLLs in the upper-level group found that developing reading skills by reading culturally relevant material also assisted their HLM.

Table 31. Top 5 methods of maintaining heritage language

| Methods | Frequency |
|----------------------------------------------------------------|-----------|
| 1. Taking Chinese courses | 8 |
| 2. Practice speaking Chinese with families | 7 |
| 3. Practice speaking Chinese with friends | 7 |
| 4. Visiting China or Taiwan | 4 |
| 5. Chinese media: reading fiction and history, watching movies | 2 |

In addition to taking courses and speaking the HL with family members, Genmei, Weijing and Yuansi further indicated that traveling to China and Taiwan in the summer before they went to college dramatically changed their view of HLM. Weijing said:

“The big thing that really changed me was when I went to Taiwan [in] the summer before I went to the college. I think that really affected me because I gained an appreciation of being an Asian and trying to learn the language. I don’t take Chinese courses because it is easy to get ‘A’s. I can take other courses to fulfill my international studies requirement, but I just do it because I want to learn Chinese. I have so many Asian friends and I want to learn more about myself, especially, when I know more people from Asia. I started to be interested in learning Chinese. If I hadn’t been to Taiwan, I probably would not keep learning Chinese.”

Furthermore, all participants described that high Chinese language proficiency would help them to have the desire to maintain Chinese. As Lianrui from the upper-level group stated:

“If I can't speak Chinese that well, it will be more difficult for me to maintain the language. If I were to think Chinese is hard to learn, then I might be more willing to give up trying to maintain the language.”

Weijing and Wenkai from the lower-level group also believed that increasing proficiency in Chinese gave them confidence to use it. Wenkai observed that “the better I speak Chinese, the more I will speak it in my daily life.” On the other hand, Weijing's awareness of his current proficiency level seemed to have discouraged his hopes for the future. He stated, “My Chinese is not very good, so I cannot pass it on.” How concerns about language proficiency influenced HLLs' motivation for HLM can be explained by Tremblay and Gardner's (1995) extension of Gardner's socio-educational model. The individual's self-efficacy, defined as self-confidence in one's ability to reach a certain level of performance in L2, affects one's level of motivational behaviors during the process of language learning. Thus, when HLLs have higher proficiency, they build the self-confidence needed to keep learning, which in turn helps with HLM. On the other hand, as in Weijing's case, loss of confidence in HL proficiency causes the learner to doubt that he can move on to next level.

Even though high proficiency can strengthen HLLs' ability to maintain their language, Mingwei from the upper-level group pointed out a challenge that he faced. He stated:

“[My proficiency in Chinese] helps with beginning or introduction levels because of simplicity of the class, but when it becomes more challenging, the language used at home cannot be used as crutches. It takes a lot of time and effort to change bad habits and increase proficiency.”

This comment suggests that when HLLs' proficiency reaches a certain level, they need to change learning strategies in order to maintain or improve their HL. Yiyuan from the upper-level group also believed that “in order to maintain the language, [one] needs to practice more reading and writing skills.” Her belief is supported by Wu's (2008) study, which indicates that improving one's ability to read and write has been ranked as the most important goal for Chinese HLLs. Unlike HLs with the same alphabetic system as the learner's L1, facilitating transfer of listening and speaking skills to reading and writing, a heritage background in Chinese has little or no effect on learners' writing or reading

comprehension skills. Therefore, Chinese HLLs must focus on their reading and writing skills in order to fully master and maintain their HL.

Conclusion

This study examined Chinese heritage language learners' views of heritage language learning in four aspects: participants' self-perceived ethnicity, learning motivations, language behaviors and heritage language maintenance. The overall findings indicate that heritage learners' self-perceived ethnicity does not have a significant effect on their learning motivation. Although the upper-level students identified themselves as slightly more Americanized than the lower-level students, both groups had high motivation for learning their heritage language. While the number of the participants in this study may be too small to generalize the results to all Chinese HLLs, these participants may be representative enough to show that learning motivation comes from personal interest in identifying with their heritage culture.

In addition, there was an evident association between heritage learners' Chinese level, which refers to how long they have been taking Chinese courses in college, and their self-perceived identity of being Chinese at home and in Chinese classes. Heritage learners' family members and Chinese teachers both played crucial roles in shaping learners' ethnic identity, which in turn influenced their language behaviors. As the interview results demonstrated, most heritage learners preferred to speak the heritage language with their parents rather than peers because they felt more comfortable making language mistakes in front of their parents. Thus, parents may be the best language mentors to promote heritage language learning and heritage language maintenance.

Furthermore, heritage learners in different levels of language courses had different language preferences in related to particular environments. Learners in the upper-level group demonstrated higher enthusiasm to practice Chinese with their family members. The higher their willingness to practice Chinese, the better their heritage language can be maintained. Although learners in the upper-level group encounter difficulties at higher language levels, their instrumental orientation motivates them to continue learning and maintaining the heritage language.

Currently, significant issues include how to transmit the value of heritage language maintenance to learners and how to assist heritage learners, especially those at low-proficiency levels, in enjoying learning the heritage language. These issues warrant a large-scale effort in the future studies.

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APPENDIX A*A survey of Chinese as heritage language learner***Part I: Background/ General Data Information**

Please check or fill in the appropriate blanks

1. Gender: _____ Age: _____
2. Origin: ☐ Mainland China ☐ Hong Kong ☐ Taiwan ☐ Other (Please specify) _____
3. Father's education:

☐ Elementary school ☐ Junior high ☐ High school ☐ 4-year college

☐ Graduate or professional degree ☐ Other (please specify) _____
4. Mother's education:

☐ Elementary school ☐ Junior high ☐ High school ☐ 4-year college

☐ Graduate or professional degree ☐ Other (please specify) _____
5. Which language or languages did you first learn in childhood:

☐ Cantonese ☐ English ☐ Fukenes ☐ Mandarin Chinese/ Putonhua

☐ Other (please specify) _____
6. What generation are you?

☐ 1st generation = I was born in a country other than U.S.

☐ 2nd generation = I was born in U.S., either parent was born in Asia or country other than U.S.

☐ 3rd generation = I was born in U.S., both parents were born in U.S. and all grandparents born in Asia or country other than U.S.

☐ 4th generation = I was born in U.S., both parents were born in U.S., and at least one grandparent born in Asia or country other than U.S. and one grandparent born in U.S.

☐ 5th generation = I was born in U.S., both parents were born in U.S., and all grandparents also born in U.S.

☐ Don't know what generation best fits since I lack some information
7. If you are a 1st generation, how old were you when you arrived in the United States? _____

8. How well can you speak Mandarin Chinese

- ☐ I cannot speak Mandarin Chinese
- ☐ My Mandarin Chinese is good enough to describe a familiar experience or event in simple terms.
- ☐ My Mandarin Chinese is good enough to conduct a conversation on a variety of personal and academic topics
- ☐ My Mandarin Chinese is good enough to communicate with overall accuracy, clarity and precision
- ☐ Native fluency

9. How well can you speak English

- ☐ My English is good enough to describe a familiar experience or event in simple terms
- ☐ My English is good enough to for me to study at an American school
- ☐ My English is good enough to conduct a conversational variety of personal and academic topics
- ☐ My English is good enough to communicate with overall accuracy, clarity and precision
- ☐ Native fluency

10. Who are your friends at the school?

- | | |
|----------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Chinese born only | <input type="checkbox"/> Chinese born and American born Chinese |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Asian American only | <input type="checkbox"/> Asian American and European American |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Non-Asian American | <input type="checkbox"/> Others (please specify) |
-

Part II. Please choose the category which best describes you, you parents and your friends. For example, if you think the way you dress is mostly Chinese, you will circle 2 for item 1.

| Very Chinese | Mostly Chinese | Chinese American | Mostly Americanized | Very Americanized |
|--------------|-----------------------------------------------------|------------------|---------------------|-------------------|
| 1. | 2. | 3. | 4. | 5. |
| 1. | How do you dress? | | 1 | 2 3 4 5 |
| 2. | How do you eat (knife and fork or chopsticks)? | | 1 | 2 3 4 5 |
| 3. | What do you eat? | | 1 | 2 3 4 5 |
| 4. | How do you prefer to dress? | | 1 | 2 3 4 5 |
| 5. | What kind of food do you prefer to eat? | | 1 | 2 3 4 5 |
| 6. | How do you perceive your size (height and weight)? | | 1 | 2 3 4 5 |
| 7. | How would you describe yourself at home? | | 1 | 2 3 4 5 |
| 8. | How would you describe yourself at Chinese courses? | | 1 | 2 3 4 5 |
| 9. | How would you describe yourself at daily school? | | 1 | 2 3 4 5 |

Part III Language Behavior and Preferences

Please choose which best describe the language preference and behaviors of you, your family and friends on the following scale. NA means not applicable. For example, if you do not have a sibling, you will circle NA for item 9.

| Almost or Always Chinese | More Chinese than English | Balanced Use of Chinese & English | More English than Chinese | Almost or always English |
|--------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------|---------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 1. | What language(s) do you speak at home? | NA | 1 | 2 3 4 5 |
| 2. | What language(s) do you speak at school? | NA | 1 | 2 3 4 5 |
| 3. | What language(s) do you prefer to speak at home? | NA | 1 | 2 3 4 5 |
| 4 | What language(s) do you prefer to speak at your Chinese school? | NA | 1 | 2 3 4 5 |
| 5 | What language(s) do you speak with your mother? | NA | 1 | 2 3 4 5 |
| 6 | What language(s) do you speak with your father? | NA | 1 | 2 3 4 5 |
| 7 | What language(s) do you speak with your siblings? | NA | 1 | 2 3 4 5 |

| | | | | | | | |
|----|-------------------------------------------------------------------|----|---|---|---|---|---|
| 8 | What language(s) do you speak with your grandmother? | NA | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9 | What language(s) do you speak with your grandfather? | NA | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10 | What language(s) do you speak with your best friend(s) at school? | NA | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 11 | What language(s) do you speak with your other friends at school? | NA | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12 | What language(s) do you speak with your teacher at school? | NA | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 13 | What language(s) does your mother speak at home? | NA | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 14 | What language(s) does your father speak at home? | NA | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 15 | What language(s) does /do your sibling(s) speak at home? | NA | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 16 | What language(s) does/do your grandmother speak at home? | NA | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 17 | What language(s) does/do your grandfather speak at home? | NA | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 18 | What language(s) do your best friends speak at school? | NA | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 19 | What language(s) do your other friends speak at school? | NA | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 20 | What language(s) does/do your teacher(s) speak at school? | NA | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

Part IV. Short Answer questions: Please answer the following questions.

1. Do you feel learning Chinese is important to you or not? Please explain why?
2. What do you do to maintain your heritage language?
3. Do you think your Chinese proficiency will affect the way you maintain the language? Please explain how and why?

.....

APPENDIX B

Survey of Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB)

The following questions ask you how you feel about Chinese language learning. Please place a X in one of the spaces below to indicate the extent to which the statement applies to you.

1. My motivation to learn Chinese in order to interact with Chinese people is:
Weak 1____: 2____: 3____: 4____: 5____: 6____ Strong
2. My attitude toward Chinese American people is:
Unfavorable 1____: 2____: 3____: 4____: 5____: 6____ Favorable
3. My interest in foreign language is
Very Low 1____: 2____: 3____: 4____: 5____: 6____ Very high
4. My desire to learn Chinese is
Weak 1____: 2____: 3____: 4____: 5____: 6____ Strong
5. My attitude toward learning Chinese is:
Unfavorable 1____: 2____: 3____: 4____: 5____: 6____ Favorable
6. My motivation to learn Chinese for practical purposes (Ex: to get a good job) is:
Weak 1____: 2____: 3____: 4____: 5____: 6____ Strong
7. I worry about speaking Chinese outside of class:
Very little 1____: 2____: 3____: 4____: 5____: 6____ Very much
8. My attitude toward my Chinese courses is:
Unfavorable 1____: 2____: 3____: 4____: 5____: 6____ Favorable
9. I worry about speaking in my Chinese class
Very little 1____: 2____: 3____: 4____: 5____: 6____ Very much
10. My motivation to learn Chinese is:
Very low 1____: 2____: 3____: 4____: 5____: 6____ Very high

African American Students' Perceptions of Their Preparation for College Composition and Their Actual Performance in a College Composition Course

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Abstract

The role that students assume in school often mirrors the one they take on in their adult lives. Too often, today's traditional public school is not what Horace Mann advocated: "the great equalizer." Many African American students do not receive an education designed to promote capable, independent, and critical thinkers. Education provided many African American students leads to low retention and graduation rates at the college level. At many HBCUs (Historically Black Colleges and Universities), only 39 to 40% of all entering African American students go on to earn a college degree (Miners, 2010). The success of all students who enroll in college is important, but the low number of African American students at HBCUs who graduate is cause for grave concern. This article is part of a larger study examining African American students' perceptions of their high schools' preparation of them for college composition, academic tracking, and the students' actual performance. Even though the study revealed contradictions in participants' survey and interview responses, the students' perceptions of their preparation for college composition matched their actual performance. The article concludes with strategies that facilitate collaboration among students, parents, high school teachers and college professors.

Key words

HBCUs, African American students, perceptions, graduate rates, college English, actual performance

Introduction

The article focuses on the perceptions and actual performance of African American students in English 131, a required course for incoming students. The course emphasizes clear, adequate, and logical expression of thought within the sentence, paragraph, and essay. It is designed to help students to develop their reading and writing skills, to improve their critical thinking skills, and to understand and interpret essays, articles and literary works such as short stories and novels. An HBCU is any historically black college or university that was established prior to 1964. The university's primary mission is the education of African Americans, and it is accredited by a nationally recognized accrediting

association whose ability to safeguard quality training at the university is determined by the United States Secretary of Education. An examination of students at HBCUs is important to increasing the retention and graduation rates at such universities.

Review of literature

First-year college composition courses play a key role in students' introduction to post-secondary education. The size of most college English classes fosters face-to-face, personal attention, and engagement in class discussions. The individualized attention, writing exercises, and reading analysis characteristic of college composition classes increase the students' opportunities to reflect on their own thinking, which leads to an increase in academic achievement and student retention. Cognizance of students' high school experiences is key to the interconnectedness between the two levels: high school and college.

Research has found that high school teachers and college instructors have varied priorities in composition (Patterson & Duer, 2006), and these differences may account for the students' performance in college composition courses. Examining students' perceptions may divulge even more insightful information about students' academic learning than standardized college readiness tests such as the ACT (American College Testing) provide. ACT, Inc. is an independent, not-for-profit organization that conducts nationwide surveys of secondary level teachers and professors of typical first-year college courses to help ensure that academic achievement tests like the ACT coincide with what secondary level instructors teach and what college professors expect of their students. In an ACT, Inc. survey, high school teachers agreed that skills in evaluating and judging texts are important, but they did not approach these skills as priorities in the classroom. In college, reading and writing processes are combined. College teachers of first-year university students lament the students' inadequate skills in reading and evaluating texts (Patterson & Duer, 2006) because doing so (reading and evaluating texts) is crucial to helping students to provide adequate details and examples in their essays (Patterson & Duer, 2006).

Students themselves influence their learning in writing courses; students' perceptions of and confidence in their own strategies affect learning outcomes. When the students' aim is simply to comply with task demands, the learning activity involves a low level of cognitive engagement such as memorizing, repetition, listing, or organizing. Engaging in low levels of learning leads to students who fear having their writing evaluated because self-esteem and self-efficacy (belief in their ability to succeed in learning a task) influence mastering

skills. Such students have a poor writing self-concept which becomes evident in their sentence structure and grammar.

Another important factor surrounding learning in writing courses is the collaboration between students and teachers (Leah, 2002). Lavelle and Zuecher's (2001) study of writing approaches of university students revealed that the self-efficacy of students influenced greatly the students' approaches to writing. In the study of which this article is a part, it was apparent during the interviews that even when students were in standard as opposed to advanced courses in high school, the method their particular teachers used helped to determine the students' perceptions, efficacy, and performance in their college composition course.

Another issue is the conflation of marking papers and revision strategies. Students' responses in this study echo the findings of Scherff and Piazza (2005) who found that process writing—a cyclical process of drafting, revising, editing—was absent from most high school English classes, with 20% of students never going beyond a first draft. Data on process-writing suggests that without feedback and revision as a routine part of daily writing lessons, students missed an essential part of the writing process—revision, the stage in which studying the writer's craft (strategies and skills) takes place (e.g. Applebee, 1981, 1986; Applebee & Langer, 1987; Atwell, 1987; Olson, 2003; Scherff & Piazza, 2005, p. 290). According to Leah (2002), "Revision might be considered the most important stage in the whole writing process...It is also the stage that many writers misunderstand or just don't allow time for" (p. 51).

Procedure/methodology

Mixed method helped to explain students' perceptions and their actual ability in this study. The first set of data was quantitative - based on a questionnaire; the second set was qualitative - based on interviews and artifacts (students' writing assignments). One hundred and four (104) students in freshman composition took the questionnaire, and 10 of those participated in the follow-up interview phase. The research participants, who made up 74 % of all students enrolled in freshman composition, completed the survey after the middle of a summer semester at the university. They wrote their names and numbers on the surveys only if they were willing to participate in follow-up interviews. Each interviewee participated in two interviews, each interview lasting for approximately 45 minutes. The participants chose their own pseudonyms.

The first section of the questionnaire (Likert Scale) asked students to provide information about how they felt about their 9 – 12 grade experiences in English classes and their preparation for college. The following are sample items on the

survey questionnaire: *I believe that my high school English classes have prepared me to make a passing grade in college English; I learned how to revise and edit papers in my high school English classes; my writing assignments were marked, graded, and returned to me.* The participants chose from the following responses on questionnaire using a scantron sheet: Strongly Agree, Agree, Disagree, and Strongly Disagree. These questions were designed to answer one of the Sub Questions of the study: *What are the students' perceptions of their ability to do college work in a freshman composition class?*

The second section of the questionnaire asked students to provide information about their experiences in certain tracks. These questions provided responses to Sub Question 2: *How has prior academic placement in grades 9 – 12 influenced the students' ability to do work in a freshman composition class?* The third section asked students to provide information about their experiences in college English and was designed to answer Sub Question 3: *What is the students' actual performance in a freshman composition?* The final section contained demographic information such as the gender of the students, their age (for informed consent/assent purposes), and the students' willingness to participate in the interview stage to make sure that the study included a representative group of students. The students' responses on the questionnaire helped in the effort to include, in the follow-up interviews, students who represented various demographics, genders, perceptions, etc. Subquestions one (students' perceptions of students' preparation for a college freshman composition class) and three (students' actual performance in a college freshman composition class) are the main focuses in the discussion of the study.

In phase two (qualitative), students participated in standardized open-ended interviews. The goal was to obtain detailed information about the participants' thoughts, beliefs, knowledge, reasoning, motivations, and feelings about their past and present experiences and beliefs (Johnson & Christensen, 2004). Asking all the interviewees (10) the same questions in the same order helped to identify themes and to make comparisons. The following are examples of the types of questions:

1. How would you describe the difficulty of the work you completed in your high school English class?
2. What kind of activities did the high school teachers use to teach you about providing support and details in essays and paragraphs?
3. Was your college English class what you expected it to be? Explain how you thought it would be. Explain how it actually was.

An examination of the students' essays provided an idea of the students' writing ability, and several essays and homework assignments served as artifacts.

Results/findings

Perceptions are important in that they help to influence how people think of themselves and how others think of them. The way students perceive themselves as learners determines their behavior, and their behavior contributes to the students' failure or success. Both the quantitative and qualitative data in this study revealed that the students had a high perception of their ability to perform well; however, in some cases, the students' perceptions did not match their actual performance.

Most students (87%) reported on the questionnaire a belief in their ability to pass a freshman composition class, and all except one of the interviewees actually passed English 131. Still, some contradictions between the questionnaire, the interviews, and the students' papers were evident; there were contradictions between students' perceptions and their actual performance. Most students (83%) reported on the questionnaire that they understood most of the rules of grammar and mechanics as they learned them in high school, but 75% reported that they had lost points on papers because of errors in their college English class. The follow-up interviews of ten students in the study revealed that some teachers marked papers via a circle or check marks but did not specify the error in grammar and mechanics. When students received their writing assignments in college, they realized a marked difference between the way their high school teachers marked their writing assignments and the way college professors marked them. Professors made detailed comments about support, clarity, proofreading and editing, and other problem areas. The interview helped to clarify students' answers as some students considered a circle and a check mark without specification of the skill (error) as a teacher marking, grading, and returning the essay. In high school, receiving a writing assignment with random marks, check, circles accompanied by a high grade contradicted what the students were experiencing in college.

The students' answers during the interview and their writing samples indicated a need for further instruction in proofreading for errors in grammar/mechanics. During the *interviews*, most students revealed that they did not understand grammar and mechanics at a level that they originally believed they did, and weaknesses in some areas of grammar and mechanics caused them to lose points on their college writing assignments. The students overestimated their understanding of grammar and mechanics as most of them lost points for

not proofreading and editing adequately in college, and their graded college composition papers were evidence of their overestimation.

When a research participant, Amanda, was asked if the learning activities in high school English classes helped her to understand college English, she replied, "Sort of. High school could've focused more on grammar. I'm pretty good at providing support." Understanding grammar and usage is different from actually putting this understanding into action in writing assignments. It is much easier for students to locate errors in grammar and usage while detecting errors in isolated sentences on a worksheet than editing *their* work for such errors. Using students' errors from their own papers could be more helpful in teaching grammar and usage. In some cases, high school teachers admit to not placing an emphasis on skills such as writing strategy, organization of writing and grammar and usage (Patterson & Duer, 2007). Subsequently, students themselves do not prioritize skills such as grammar and usage. The students' constant reference to grammar/mechanics as "little problems" and "minor errors" during the interviews proves this point.

According to the survey conducted by Patterson and Duer (2006) high school teachers and college teachers place different degrees of importance on grammar and usage. The skills under the headings "Writing Strategy," "Sentence Structure," "Organization of Writing Style," and "Grammar and Usage" were rated most important by college instructors of entry-level English courses. The fairly low percentage of the aforementioned skills taught as reported by high school teachers indicates the genuine difference between the priority of high school teachers and the priority of college teachers. If skills such as grammar and usage are not prioritized in the secondary high school English classroom, it is difficult for students to grasp the skills when they arrive at college. Most college teachers mark students' papers, indicate the specific errors made, and make suggestions about improving the students' work, and particular errors in grammar/mechanics affect the students' grades on writing assignments.

Even though the students in this study at an HBCU realized quickly that they may not have understood errors in grammar and mechanics and other skills as they thought when the skills were discussed in their high school English classes, their positive perceptions of their ability to do college work helped them to address their shortcomings and then to work on making improvements. This study's findings indicate that the students' perceptions of their abilities are just as important as their academic ability. Most of the interviewees believed in their ability to succeed in a college composition class, and 90 percent of them (from different English 131 courses) passed the course.

Proofreading for errors in grammar and mechanics were not the only skills students found troublesome once they reached college. On the questionnaire, more than half (69%) of the students reported that they understood how to write essays with good content, but 41 % lost points because of the kinds of details they provided in their college writing assignments. Still, the interviewees' writing assignments revealed that most of them could provide enough details and examples to pass a writing assignment. Three students indicated that the conclusion was the hardest part of the essay for them to write, one reported the introduction, one reported the literary analysis, and two reported the thesis statement. The following is an example of a student's difficulty with the thesis statement: "In my essay I will discuss the similarities and give details to support my reasons." Often, college freshmen find it difficult to express the point of their essay in a thesis without making an announcement (e.g., I will compare...). With further instruction and practice at the college level, the interviewees said that they mastered the skill.

This research study revealed that although students may pass a specific college English course, weaknesses in their writing still exist. The students must be cognizant of the skills that they did not master because not having a firm grasp of skills (e.g., grammar and usage) will affect the students' performance in their careers upon graduation.

Of the total number of students who engaged in the interview phase of the study (10), only one did not pass freshman composition. In that sense, the results coincide with the responses on the questionnaire in which the students reported that they believed in their ability to pass a freshman composition class. Also, most of the interviewees' writings revealed that they could pass a freshman composition class. Oddly, the one interviewee who did not pass the composition class reported on the questionnaire that she believed that her high school English classes prepared her to make a passing grade in college English, that she understood most of the rules of grammar and mechanics as she learned them in high school, and that she understood how to write essays with good content. Students completed the questionnaire near the end of the summer semester, so the aforementioned student may have thought that she would pass the course despite the marks on her essays in English 131.

Discussion/conclusion

One of the main reasons to research students at HBCUs is that one rarely reads journal articles or books concerning details about these particular students' learning, their attitudes, and their perceptions. The results of this research indicate the need for teachers to take more time learning about their

students. Test results tell only part of the story; students themselves tell the rest. Teachers need to do more to encourage more students to take a more active role in their learning by expressing their perceptions. Perceptions influence behavior and performance in the school environment, and oftentimes the roles that students take on in middle and high school predict the roles they will play in society later in life. Though academic achievement is definitely not less important than students' perceptions, academics could be improved when students' perceptions about their abilities are more positive.

The fact that many students in the study revealed that they were making errors in grammar/mechanics and were losing points in their writing assignments as a result is an indication that high school teachers may need to re-evaluate how they teach students how to proofread and edit their papers—in other words, incorporate more true process writing and revision. Many students who fail essays and other writing assignments in college do so because they need a stronger mastery of proofreading and editing skills, which could also be accomplished through ongoing peer revision activities such as peer editing. High school teachers should collaborate more with college instructors in order to help students to address skills in all areas. However, high school teachers need the support, resources, and time to provide detailed comments about students' essays so that students will have a greater understanding of proofreading and editing, increasing their chances and degree of success in college English classes.

College teachers must not assume that earning a high school diploma means that the students know how to proofread and edit papers for errors in grammar/mechanics. Often, college teachers complain about students' inadequate proofreading and editing skills, and some do not think that it is their responsibility to teach these skills to students who have reached the college level. However, college instructors everywhere must work with the student population they have, and they must not "pass the buck" or "play the blame game." Instead, as Leah (2002) reported, more collaboration between students and teachers is needed. As it is now, there are two cycles: in the first cycle, the students do all the work writing papers and in the second cycle, the teacher does all the work grading the papers. Of course, there is no way to get away from this pattern completely, but with more give and take at various stages of the process, faculty-student communication would improve. Instead of two cycles, there could be moments between student writing and teacher grading when students help to propose ideas relevant to grading criteria, submitting papers, etc.

Parents and students must work on ways to encourage an interest in learning in the first place and then to work on figuring out how the students learn best. What takes one student two hours and one teaching method to learn and

complete a task may take another student four hours and various methods to do so. The length of time does not necessarily mean that one student is less academically inclined than the other. What it means is that students must learn more about themselves and their own learning styles so that they can have more control over their academic endeavors, regardless of the academic track (standard or advanced) the students and/or their counselors choose. The academic track that the students enroll in does not dictate the students' academic, social, or economic future. More of the students who participated in the interview portion of this study were placed in a standard track, but it was clear that their perceptions of their ability influenced their performance and final grades.

Recommended teaching strategies

The most effective English language arts classrooms practice interconnectedness; they make connections between school and home, between explorations of key concepts and questions over the course of the semester or year, connections between canonical texts and other alternative texts, and revisiting related ideas and experiences (Applebee, 2002). Without connectedness, teachers, too often, present information about key concepts in isolation of writing and reading. Such is the case with students completing worksheets on random sentences with grammar errors in them without examining the whole essay (support, thesis, transitions, etc.). Knowledge about one aspect of writing (e.g. support) is futile without an understanding of the usage of grammar and usage to convey the message in the support. This study revealed that some students provided adequate support, but the errors in grammar and usage detracted from the point the students were attempting to make in the paper.

Another strategy is cultural relevance in teaching. Ladson-Billings (1995) pointed out the importance of having students' home/community culture and the school complement each other. According to Landt (2006), for example, the literature in school remains mostly Eurocentric and providing an array of perspectives is critical, but exposing students to these works is a challenge. Students are aware of the absence of their culture in school. Truth, one of the participants in this study of students at HBCUs, expressed a desire for more readings about African Americans. Educators should also consider the prevalence of multimodal tools that make it necessary to redefine notions about reading, composing, etc. That way, educators can incorporate digital literacies in their English language arts curriculum since students use them on a daily basis (Doerig, Beach, & O'Brien, 2007). A major part of cultural relevance and listening

to students is taking the time to find out how they communicate inside and outside of the classroom.

It is important for young adults to see how others experience life because they are in the process of becoming independents in a world beyond school and the community; exposing students to varied texts allows them to engage in understanding the self. Also important is for students to consider who is missing from their textbooks and how this may influence the self-esteem of those who are not featured in the texts. Readers need to see images of those like them in order for them to make connections between literature and their everyday lives. If adolescents read about others similar to and different from them, they get to see that unfamiliar aspects of other cultures are less foreign when viewed through the lens of familiar issues.

A key practice, providing feedback to students, could lead to self-regulation among students. Feedback can be focused at the self-regulation level, including greater skill in self-evaluation or confidence to engage further on a task. Whether the students in this study made errors in grammar and usage because they simply did not take the time to proofread, their high school teachers did not establish proofreading and editing as a priority, or they do not have an understanding of grammar and usage, feedback from teachers could help to decrease problems with proofreading and editing. A similar approach should be taken while teaching students other elements such as support, transitions, the thesis, creativity, etc. An example of a feedback could be, "You already know the key features of the opening of an argument. Check to see whether you have incorporated them in your first paragraph" (Hattie & Timperly, p. 93, 2007). Such feedback has major influences on self-efficacy, self-regulatory proficiencies, and self-beliefs about students as learners.

A final strategy could be more communication among stakeholders such as high school teachers, college teachers, students, and parents. A key element of successful schools is "shared responsibility which includes students, teachers, school administrators, parents, and policy makers" (Linn, 2003, p. 3). Collaborations lead to accountability, which empowers teachers to implement strategies that ensure academic achievement among all students. In one research study, many college students specifically identified their experiences and interactions in college as being essential in forming their felt identities (self-concept) (Kaufman & Feldman, 2004). Communicating with their teachers facilitates students' sense of confidence in the learning environment. The students in this study made few comments about their communication with their high school teachers, thereby indicating a need for more information about the

way students communicate with their teachers and the degree of said communication.

Research indicates that parents and teachers sometimes have different meanings of academically successful students. When a parent expressed concern because her child had made *C*'s and *D*'s on a report card after teachers informed her throughout the grading period that the student was doing "fine," the child's teachers were perplexed about the parent's dismay and encouraged her to stop "pushing" the student. The parent and teachers differed about what constituted success for the child (Delpit, 1995). While the parent's perceptions were high, the teachers settled for mediocrity. Such teachers' perceptions often influence students' academic achievement. There are other cases in which there is a distinction between what parents want and expect of their children and what teachers expect of the students.

Focusing on students' views could lead to greater retention rates at HBCUs. A greater retention rate leads to enormous opportunities and success. Students have opinions and voices that need to be revealed in order for them to become responsible, informed citizens. Responses from a larger number of HBCU research participants would be helpful in learning even more about students. In this study, students completed the questionnaire after midterm during a "nine" week summer semester; conducting the study after midterm during a "sixteen-week" fall semester could provide more information. Ultimately, information that teachers gain from students could help to reduce the gap in the academic achievement of minority students and, thus, increase retention and graduation rates at HBCUs.

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Implementing Language Learning Strategies into a Series of Second Foreign Language Learning Textbooks

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Abstract

Since English is considered the first foreign language in Europe, other languages gradually take the position of the second foreign language. The idea of plurilinguism as stated in the CEFR (2011, p. 4) emphasises the fact that “a person may call upon the knowledge of a number of languages to make sense of a text, written or even spoken, in a previously ‘unknown’ language, recognising words from a common international store in a new guise.” This concept is considered more and more when designing course books for foreign language education. It is incorporated in textbooks with the aim to interconnect the process of acquiring two languages in a way that a positive transfer between them can take place. It means that nominated foreign languages can complement each other and learners can draw from their knowledge of one language when learning a second one. The successful application of this idea requires the use of learning strategies, which are seen as a hinge between the learner’s resources (competences) and what he/she can do with them (communicative activities). The principles of planning action, balancing resources, compensating for deficiencies during execution, monitoring results and undertaking repair build an important part of them. Therefore, learners should receive instruction on effective learning strategies. Researchers agree that strategy instruction should be explicit; it means that the teacher should inform students about the value and applications of the strategies. Little by little, this concept works its way into the foreign language didactics and the first textbooks, which are designed according to this principle, have appeared on the book market. The purpose of the study is to carry out a quantitative content analysis of defined categories and subcategories of language learning strategies which are explicitly implemented into the series of textbook deutsch.com 1, deutsch.com 2 and deutsch.com 3.

Keywords

language learning strategies, language use strategies, CEFR, second foreign language, course book, quantitative content analysis

Introduction

The curricula and content of education in general and language education have changed. Besides the linguistic content, which used to be the most important aspect of language teaching, other factors now play a significant role. Actual pedagogical development shows that teaching and learning of foreign

language should have broader goals. Except for linguistic training, foreign languages should help to form the personalities of learners and fulfil various competences and skills mentioned in the Common European Framework and in national curricula. Among all these skills and competences, it is mainly the intercultural competences, autonomous learning and developing a linguistic repertory in which all linguistic abilities have a place that are the most significant. A huge challenge of current Slovak school practice are textbooks, which play a central role in teaching and learning of foreign languages and have considerable influence on both learners and teachers because they offer a basic framework and assistance.

As already mentioned the changes in language teaching are reflected mainly in the Common European Framework (CEFR) - a document that provides a common basis for the elaboration of language syllabuses, curriculum guidelines, examinations and textbooks, etc. across Europe. It describes what language learners have to learn in order to use a language for communication and what knowledge and skills they have to develop so as to be able to act effectively. It puts emphasis on the cultural context in which a language is set. It follows the concept of plurilinguism, which means that language education is no longer seen as achieving mastery of one or more languages in isolation. The student should rather build up a communicative competence to which all knowledge and experience of language contributes and in which languages interrelate and interact. This requires the use of strategies in learning and communicating. That is why the framework includes the planning of self-directed learning through raising the learner's awareness of his or her present state of knowledge, self-setting of feasible and worthwhile objectives, planning and monitoring ones' progress and self-assessment (CEFR, 2011)

According to CEFR (2011, p. 57) language-learning strategies are "means the language user exploits to mobilise and balance his or her resources, to activate skills and procedures, in order to fulfil the demands of communication in context and successfully complete the task in question in the most comprehensive or most economical way feasible depending on his or her precise purpose."

The CEFR itself and the strategy training research try to resolve also the problem how language learning strategies should be effectively applied in the curriculum and textbooks. Based on the knowledge of the existing strategy training research (Oxford, 1989), the training should be integrated into activities over a long period of time rather than taught as a separate and short intervention. Students should have plenty of opportunities for strategy training during language classes and include explanation, handouts, activities, brainstorming, and materials for reference and home study. Strategy training

should be explicit, overt and relevant and should provide plenty of practice with varied tasks involving authentic materials. It should provide strategies that are transferable to future language tasks beyond a given class and it should provide students with a mechanism to evaluate their own progress and to evaluate the success of training and the value of the strategies in multiple tasks.

1 Classification of language learning strategies

For the purpose of the study, a classification of language-learning strategies is important because the most appropriate one should serve as a starting point for the content analysis procedure. Language-learning strategies have been classified by many scholars and almost two dozen strategy classification systems have been established respecting different criteria. In the long run, they reflect more or less the same categorisations of language-learning strategies without any radical changes (Oxford, 1989; Hismanoglu, 2000). According to Cohen and Weaver (2005), three *primary* and several *secondary* classification schemes can be applied to language-learning strategies. The problem is they can conflict with one another. The overlapping roles of strategies in a classification scheme are challenging, but the primary strategy schemes have helped both teachers and learners understand the support roles of language-learning strategies. Only the primary classification of strategies is reflected in this article: goal-based strategies, skills-based strategies and function-based strategies.

1.1 Classifying strategies by goal

In this group (Cohen & Weaver, 2005), we differentiate between *language-learning* strategies that are conscious processes used to learn a language and *language-use* strategies that are conscious processes selected to use the material that is learned. *Language-learning strategies* include: identifying the language material that needs to be learned, distinguishing this material from other material, grouping the material for easier learning, practicing material through participation in classroom activities and homework, committing the material to memory using techniques such as repetition, the use of mnemonics, or some other memory technique. *Language-use strategies* consist of retrieval strategies - conscious processes that learners use to call up language material from storage; rehearsal strategies - conscious processes for practicing target language structures before using them; communication strategies - conscious processes used by learners to convey a message that is both meaningful and informative for the listener or reader when they do not have all the language they need and cover strategies - conscious processes that learners use to create an appearance of language ability so as not to look unprepared.

1.2 Classifying strategies by language skills

It is very important to elaborate on the theoretical foundations for language-learning strategies for various language skills. According to Cohen and Weaver (2005, p. 33-37) and CEFR (2011, p. 63-87), strategies can be also classified by skill area, which includes the *receptive* skills of listening and reading and the *productive* skills of speaking and writing. *Receptive strategies* - aural reception (listening) and visual reception (reading) - involve identifying the context and knowledge of the world relevant to it, activating in the process what are thought to be appropriate schemata. *Productive strategies* - oral production (speaking) and written production (writing) - involve mobilising resources, balancing between different competences - exploiting strengths and underplaying weaknesses - in order to match the available potential to the nature of the task.

There are also skill-related strategies that cut across all four skill-areas, such as *vocabulary* or *grammar* learning. Learners need to learn new words or new grammar structures to be able to understand them when they hear them, while others are needed for speaking or writing.

1.3 Classifying strategies by function

Chamot (1987) and Oxford (1990) state that strategies can be classified into four functional groups: cognitive, metacognitive, affective and social. *Cognitive strategies* cover many of the processes or mental manipulations that learners go through in both learning the target language (e.g., identification, grouping, retention, and storage of language material) and in using it (e.g., retrieval of language material, rehearsal, and comprehension or production of words, phrases, and other elements of the target language). Repetition, resourcing, translation, grouping, note taking, deduction, recombination, imagery, auditory representation, key word, contextualisation, elaboration, transfer, inferencing are among the most important cognitive strategies. *Metacognitive strategies* allow learners to control their language learning by planning what they are going to do, checking how it is going, and then evaluating their performance on a given task. Advance organisers, directed attention, selective attention, self-management, functional planning, self-monitoring, delayed production, self-evaluation are among the most important metacognitive strategies.

Affective strategies help students regulate their emotions, motivation and attitudes and are often used to reduce anxiety and provide self-encouragement. The most common affective strategies are: lowering your anxiety, encouraging yourself, taking your emotional temperature.

Social strategies involve learners' choices to interact with other learners and native speakers, such as asking questions to clarify social roles and relationships, asking for an explanation or verification, cooperating with others in order to complete tasks and empathising with others.

2 Studies related to implementing learning strategies into FLL textbooks

Lojová and Vlčková (2011) name textbooks as one of the factors which influence language learning strategies and state further (p. 147) that "the use of learning strategies is influenced by a textbook - by preferred exercise types, types of tasks, their structure and the overall nature of a textbook". They mention some textbooks that contain exercises developing the reflection of the learning process and the use of appropriate learning strategies like Handshake (2000) and Viney and Viney (2000). They admit that the research aimed at the indirect influence of a textbook on acquiring and using of learning strategies is rather limited. Mostly, the influence of individual learning tasks has been explored so far. This can be confirmed also by the retrieval of available literature on language learning strategies. Only two studies have been found which focus their attention on the analysis of incorporating learning strategies into foreign or second foreign language textbooks. These studies are described in more detail in the following paragraphs. Their outcomes build the basis for further investigation in this field and offer incentives for formulation of the new research aims and questions.

LaBelle (2010) reports on the analysis of the illustrated and written content of 33 ELL textbooks to determine the range of second language-learning strategies. The two researchers chose an intentional, convenient sample from each textbook - the third unit of each of the 33 representative textbooks - to form the corpus they analysed. They tried to answer the question: To what extent do middle school ELL texts depict frequency and variation of language learning strategies in illustrations and written texts? To measure the content, the researchers developed a coding instrument consisting of 15 categories to track how frequently each of the 15 language learning strategies was portrayed. Only language learning strategies that relate to listening and reading skills were coded. The decision to focus solely on language-learning strategies that relate to receptive skills was underpinned by the wide range of diverse language learning strategies that exist in the literature. The method used was a quantitative content analysis. The author's argument was that such (2010, p. 360) "controlled observation and systematic counting help quantify the frequency and variation with which these strategies occur rather than presenting anecdotal analysis that is extremely subject to the impressions of the researchers." The content analysis was conducted through coding, which was divided into two parts: first, language-

learning strategies as exhibited in illustrations; second, language-learning strategies as exhibited in written text. The purpose of this two-part procedure was to gather data independently in illustrated and written depiction and to underscore the importance of both representations and their impact on the L2 learner. Each of the two researchers coded either 16 or 17 of the textbooks (for a total of 33). The coding was based upon each researcher's judgment of his or her associations, observations and interpretations of the photos, drawings, illustrations, or narrative texts within the corpus chosen for the analysis by using the original copies of the textbooks, printed instrumentation sheets and marked the occurrences of types of L2 learning strategies. This coding was conducted over a period of two months. Textbooks were ranked upon the following rubric that measured the range (frequency + variation) of depiction of L2 learning strategies:

1. Extensive: >50 frequencies + > 12 strategies represented
2. Considerable: 26-50 frequencies + 9-12 strategies represented
3. Some: 11-25 frequencies + 7-8 strategies represented
4. Little: 1-10 frequencies and/or 1-6 strategies represented
5. None: 0 frequency; 0 strategies represented

The researchers concluded that 6 of the 33 textbooks had a good to excellent range of L2 learning strategies in both illustrated and written representation. The study provides recommendations for teachers regarding selection of ELL textbooks appropriate for their students along with a sample coding-instrument for their use.

Taušová (2011) describes a process of creating a system of categories for the evaluation of learning strategies connected with receptive skills in textbooks of 'German language as a second foreign language' that are used for teaching beginners at lower secondary level at primary schools. First of all, she pays attention to German as a second foreign language related to the concept of plurilinguism and to the characteristics of the examined textbooks. Then, the results of the pilot phase of verification of the system of categories for the evaluation of textbooks from the viewpoint of learning strategies used in receptive skills listening and reading are presented. The whole sample is represented by 6 textbooks (3 published by German publishing houses and 3 published by Czech publishing houses) suitable for teaching German at lower secondary level (A1 level), which have received the note of approval from the Ministry of Education of the Czech Republic. The sample of the pilot study, whose outcomes are offered in the article, is represented by two randomly chosen textbooks (one published by a German publishing house and the other published by a Czech publishing house). According to the professional terminology, only

those textbooks aimed at teaching German as a second foreign language that respect learner's knowledge of the previously acquired first foreign language (usually English) in their methodological conception are considered. To create the systems of categories for the purpose of her study, the author used, modified and selected the most frequent strategies from already existing systems and categorisations of learning strategies. She developed a coding instrument based on stages of receptive skills – pre-listening (reading), while-listening (reading) and post-listening (reading). The while-listening (reading) stage was further subdivided into three groups according to the listening style (global, selective and detailed listening/reading). The analysed corpus was formed by the first 34 pages of each textbook and corresponding student's book. Within listening comprehension, 11 out of 18 category systems emerged (61%). Altogether, 120 listening strategies were discovered. Within reading comprehension, 9 out of 15 category systems emerged (60%). Altogether, 40 reading strategies were discovered. The author concluded that the individual learning strategies are more evenly distributed in listening than in reading where one category clearly dominates. When comparing the two textbooks, the author found out that listening strategies are the prevailing ones in each textbook. Taking the pre-, while- and post listening/reading stages into consideration, the following results were obtained: the pre-listening/reading stage is represented by a minimal number of strategies in both analysed textbooks. More than a half of all strategies are related to the while-listening/reading stage. It means that the emphasis is put on the activities performed during listening and reading. The author states that her partial hypotheses are thus not confirmed. In the next phase of the research, she suggests the verification of systems of categories by another coder.

3 Explicit and integrated learning strategy instruction

The research in the area of learning strategies went through two main stages. The broad descriptive research has tried to answer the questions of identification procedures of learning strategies, terminology and classification of strategies, the effects of learner characteristics on strategy use, and the effects of culture and context on strategy use. The less extensive strategy intervention research has suggested important issues related to instruction such as: explicit and integrated strategy instruction, language of instruction, transfer of strategies to new tasks, and models for language-learning strategy instruction (Chamot, 2005). Whereas the issues of the first research stage seem to be explored quite sufficiently, the concerns of the second stage still need intensive work, especially, the questions focused on language-learning strategy instruction, curriculum and putting learning strategies into practice as a fixed part of textbooks. Researchers in this

field are preoccupied with the question whether learning strategies should be taught in explicit or implicit ways. Research in the first language context has shown that explicit instruction and the development of metacognitive awareness promote strategy transfer. On the curricular side, some researchers believe that language learning strategies should be taught as a separate course, while most recommend that strategies instruction should be integrated into the regular language course (Chamot, 2005). Researchers in both L1 and L2 contexts agree that explicit instruction is far more effective because it includes the development of students' awareness of their strategies, teacher modelling of strategic thinking, identifying the strategies by name, providing opportunities for practice and self-evaluation and also fosters metacognition, students' ability to understand their own thinking and learning processes (Anderson, 2002; Carrier, 2003; Chamot, 2004, 2005; Chamot et al., 1999; Cohen, 1998, 2003; Goh, 2002b; Graham & Harris, 2000; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford & Leaver, 1996; Pressley, 2000; Shen, 2003).

4 Research aims and research questions

The main aim of the study is to find out how the paradigm shift towards foreign language-learning strategies have been worked out and translated into action in a selected series of a textbook. Unlike the studies described in the Chapter 2, we have decided to carry out an analysis of the whole series of one textbook because a series has the advantage of standardising content and approach across levels, guaranteeing consistency of presentation of skills, spiralling of vocabulary and reasonable progression of text difficulty (Garinger, 2013). Furthermore, we sought to trace the implementing of language learning strategies in the whole series of textbooks.

The research questions, which can be derived from the above mentioned research aim, are:

1. How do the explicit learning strategies progress across the series of three course-books deutsch.com? Does their number increase or decrease?
2. Are there any changes in the strategy types depending on the level of individual course books?

On the basis of the research outcomes of the previous studies and the requirements for explicit strategy instruction given in the CEFR, these hypotheses are stated:

1. It is assumed that most attention will be paid to cognitive and metacognitive learning strategies.
2. The learning strategies supporting the receptive skills listening and reading will be the most frequented in the first textbook of the series deutsch.com.

3. The learning strategies supporting the productive skills speaking and writing will be the most frequented in the second and third textbook of the series deutsch.com.
4. It is assumed that pronunciation-learning strategies will be represented consistently across the whole series deutsch.com.

5 Sample

The sample is represented by three course books of the series deutsch.com 1 (A1 level), deutsch.com 2 (A2 level) and deutsch.com 3 (B1 level) suitable for teaching German at lower secondary level (A1, A2 level) and secondary level (B1 level) which have received the note of approval from the Ministry of Education of the Slovak Republic. The series was designed for teenagers who already have experience with learning foreign languages and would like to start learning German. The main principle followed in the whole series is the principle of plurilinguism. It builds links between the already acquired foreign language (English) and the new language to learn (German) systematically and encourages the learners to activate consciously the knowledge of a foreign language they already have. It systemises and deepens this way the development of learning strategies. The textbook follows a task-oriented, communicative approach and applies the principles of plurilinguism in a way that leads the learners towards autonomous and independent learning. The elements of self-evaluation and regular repetition of the structures are an important part of the didactic and methodological concept. The whole series consists of forty-eight units - the first two textbooks consist of eighteen units subdivided into six modules, the third one consists of twelve units subdivided into six modules. Each unit contains two pages with tasks and exercises, intercultural pages and a review page, which summarises the vocabulary, grammar, skills and learning strategies. The progression in the textbooks is kept intentionally flat.

6 Data collection and analysis procedures

There are a number of methods that can be applied in the textbook research. In the presented study, a quantitative content analysis is used. Pingel (1999) compares quantitative and qualitative research techniques and stresses their complimentary nature. Quantitative methods are used to measure aspects of the text in terms of frequency and space, it means quantifying how frequently particular words, names, places, dates or, as in our case, learning strategies appear across a sample of texts. It can also involve measuring how much or how little space is allocated to a particular topic. Pingel admits (1999, p. 45) that “they enable breadth at the expense of depth telling us a great deal about where the

emphasis lies, about selection criteria, but nothing about values and interpretation.” On the other hand (ibid.), with qualitative methods of textbook analysis, depth presides over breadth - the results tend to be richer with regard to understanding the way that information is presented in a text, but it is more difficult to make generalisations from them. Considering the advantages and disadvantages of both types of research methods we decided to use a mixed type that is called quantitative-qualitative research to be applied in the present study.

The data collected from textbooks can be transcribed either by analytical and quantitative content analysis, or by narrative and qualitative interpretations (Oxford, Lavine, Felkins, Hollaway, & Saleh, 1996). The textbooks were analysed in two ways. First, the strategies were quantitatively coded. Then, the strategies were analysed qualitatively to understand their nature. The methodology of the present study is based on the combination of quantitative and qualitative content analysis. First the criteria for the quantitative content analysis and units of analysis were set. The research unit was defined as a learning strategy in the selected textbook that was distinctly marked according to a skill and a function. LaBelle (2010) admits that the cognitive and metacognitive approach that he applied in his analysis is not the only approach to analysing the content of textbooks. He suggests a *skills-based* or *learning vs. usage* approach as useful for gaining practical applications to language learning and teaching. In his opinion, future research that combines all three of these approaches might provide a more holistic view of the ways in which learning strategies and teaching strategies interact. Based on his suggestions, the skills-based and function-based approach is used in our study in accordance with the classification of strategies described in Chapter 1. The learning vs. usage approach seems to be redundant in this case, since the strategies implemented in the analysed series are solely language-learning strategies. The focus of the research is laid on several categories within the skills-based approach: listening, reading, speaking, writing, grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation strategies, as well as within the function-based approach: cognitive, metacognitive, social and affective strategies. The skills-related learning strategies can be easily identified, because they are explicitly highlighted and marked as learning strategies in the textbook. The function-based strategies are identified according to their definitions in Chapter 1 and upon the author’s judgment. In the analysis of the series of the second foreign language learning textbook designed for A1, A2 and B1 level according to CEFR the extent to which the selected corpus included a range of language learning strategies is determined. As the quantitative content analysis is useful when analysing large samples, this purpose fits the present study’s goal of coding the frequency of learning strategies in the content of the whole series of

second foreign language learning textbooks. The quantitative content analysis was used to answer the first research question: How do the explicit learning strategies progress across the series of three course books deutsch.com? Does their number increase or decrease?

Since it is difficult to disclose the real nature of learning strategies within the context of the analysed course book merely by counting their number, the additional explanation of why certain strategies can be found in large or small numbers requires the collection and involvement of new sorts of data (Flick, 2009, p. 29). The obtained numerical data were complemented through qualitative content analysis. The quantitative and qualitative results were linked with the aim to mutually validate the findings of both approaches. The qualitative content analysis was applied to obtain information about variation of language learning strategies portrayed in the series of SFLL textbooks to reveal if there are any changes in the strategy types depending on the level of individual course books. The process of coding was started by looking out systematically for any mention of the listed learning strategy types, according to the coding instrument. As we coded the type of the learning strategy, we also made a note of the number of times each strategy type was mentioned.

7 Research results of the quantitative content analysis

In the following tables the results of the quantitative content analysis of the series deutsch.com 1 (A1 level), deutsch.com 2 (A2 level) and deutsch.com 3 (B1 level) are presented. Table 1 shows the overall results related to the whole series and in the subsequent tables (Tables 2-4) the results connected to the individual textbooks of the series are presented. Tables 5 and 6 give an overview of the distribution of the learning strategies considering the skills-based approach and the function-based approach across the whole series.

Considering the skills-based approach, the series together contains one hundred-forty explicitly taught learning strategies: ten listening strategies, twenty-two reading strategies, twenty-one speaking strategies, twelve writing strategies, thirty-one grammar strategies, twenty-five vocabulary strategies and nineteen pronunciation strategies. The main focus is laid on reading, speaking, grammar and vocabulary strategies, whereas the listening, writing and pronunciation strategies are slightly underrepresented.

Considering the function-based approach, the whole series contains eighty-eight cognitive strategies, forty-five metacognitive strategies, one social strategy and seven affective strategies. It is evident that the cognitive strategies (63%) and metacognitive strategies, which build approximately 32% of the overall

number, prevail over social and affective strategies, which do not play a significant role in the series.

Table 1 Strategy distribution in the whole series deutsch.com 1, 2 and 3

| | Cognitive strategies | Metacognitive strategies | Social strategies | Affective strategies | Total |
|--------------------------|----------------------|--------------------------|-------------------|----------------------|------------|
| Listening strategies | 7 | 3 | - | - | 10 (7 %) |
| Reading strategies | 12 | 10 | - | - | 22 (16 %) |
| Speaking strategies | 14 | 5 | 1 | 2 | 21 (15 %) |
| Writing strategies | 4 | 6 | - | 2 | 12 (8 %) |
| Grammar strategies | 20 | 11 | - | - | 31 (22 %) |
| Vocabulary strategies | 18 | 5 | - | 2 | 25 (18 %) |
| Pronunciation strategies | 13 | 5 | - | 1 | 19 (13.5%) |
| Total | 88 (63%) | 45 (32%) | 0 (0 %) | 7 (5%) | 140 |

Table 2 Strategy distribution in deutsch.com 1

| | Cognitive strategies | Metacognitive strategies | Social strategies | Affective strategies | Total |
|--------------------------|----------------------|--------------------------|-------------------|----------------------|-------|
| Listening strategies | 3 | - | - | - | 3 |
| Reading strategies | 2 | 3 | - | - | 5 |
| Speaking strategies | 5 | 2 | - | 1 | 8 |
| Writing strategies | 2 | 5 | - | 1 | 8 |
| Grammar strategies | 2 | 2 | - | - | 4 |
| Vocabulary strategies | 3 | 2 | - | 1 | 6 |
| Pronunciation strategies | 4 | - | - | 1 | 5 |
| Total | 21 | 14 | - | 4 | 39 |

Following the skills-based approach, there are three listening strategies, five reading strategies, eight speaking strategies, eight writing strategies, four grammar strategies, six vocabulary strategies and five pronunciation strategies in the textbook deutsch.com 1 (A1 level). The strategies related to the productive skills take the most important part; the remaining strategies are more or less equally distributed.

Following the function-based approach, the textbook contains twenty-one cognitive strategies, fourteen metacognitive strategies, four affective strategies

and no social strategies. The cognitive and metacognitive strategies seem to have the equal position and take the major part in the course book. Only minimum space is devoted to the affective strategies and social strategies are completely missing.

Table 3 Strategy distribution in deutsch.com 2

| | Cognitive strategies | Metacognitive strategies | Social strategies | Affective strategies | Total |
|--------------------------|----------------------|--------------------------|-------------------|----------------------|-------|
| Listening strategies | 3 | 2 | - | - | 5 |
| Reading strategies | 6 | 4 | - | - | 10 |
| Speaking strategies | 3 | 3 | 1 | 1 | 8 |
| Writing strategies | 1 | 1 | - | 1 | 3 |
| Grammar strategies | 8 | 4 | - | - | 12 |
| Vocabulary strategies | 8 | 1 | - | 1 | 10 |
| Pronunciation strategies | 9 | 5 | - | - | 14 |
| Total | 38 | 20 | 1 | 3 | 62 |

Following the skills-based approach, there are five listening strategies, ten reading strategies, eight speaking strategies, three writing strategies, twelve grammar strategies, ten vocabulary strategies and fourteen pronunciation strategies in the textbook deutsch.com 2 (A2 level). This time, more space is devoted to pronunciation, grammar, reading, vocabulary and speaking strategies. Listening and writing strategies play a less significant role.

Table 4 Strategy distribution in deutsch.com 3

| | Cognitive strategies | Metacognitive strategies | Social strategies | Affective strategies | Total |
|--------------------------|----------------------|--------------------------|-------------------|----------------------|-------|
| Listening strategies | 1 | 1 | - | - | 2 |
| Reading strategies | 4 | 3 | - | - | 7 |
| Speaking strategies | 6 | - | - | - | 6 |
| Writing strategies | 1 | - | - | - | 1 |
| Grammar strategies | 10 | 5 | - | - | 15 |
| Vocabulary strategies | 7 | 2 | - | - | 9 |
| Pronunciation strategies | - | - | - | - | - |
| Total | 29 | 11 | - | - | 40 |

Following the function-based approach, it contains thirty-eight cognitive strategies, twenty metacognitive strategies, one social strategy and three

affective strategies. Unlike in the previous course book of the series, there is no equal proportion between cognitive and metacognitive strategies, which take a minor part. The same can be observed with social and affective strategies. Compared to deutsch.com 1 the number of social strategies increased very slightly, though this increase is negligible. The number of affective strategies decreased.

As for the last course book of the series, a reduction in all learning strategies can be observed. Following the skills-based approach, there are two listening strategies, seven reading strategies, six speaking strategies, one writing strategy, fifteen grammar strategies, nine vocabulary strategies and no pronunciation strategies in the textbook deutsch.com 3 (B1 level).

Following the function-based approach, it contains twenty-nine cognitive strategies, eleven metacognitive strategies, no social strategies and no affective strategies. All strategies show a progressive decline.

Table 5 Strategy distribution according to the function-based approach

| | Cognitive strategies | Metacognitive strategies | Social strategies | Affective strategies |
|----------------------------------------|----------------------|--------------------------|-------------------|----------------------|
| Strategy distribution in deutsch.com 1 | 21 | 14 | - | 4 |
| Strategy distribution in deutsch.com 2 | 38 | 20 | 1 | 3 |
| Strategy distribution in deutsch.com 3 | 29 | 11 | - | - |

The cognitive and metacognitive learning strategies show a high occurrence with the heaviest concentration in the second course book of the series. It is evident that the social strategies practically do not occur in any of the course books with one exception in the second course book. Compared to the social strategies, the affective strategies emerge slightly more often, mainly in the first two course books.

Listening and reading strategies are represented quite unevenly across the series. They emerge in the highest number in the second course book, whereas their quantity in the first and third is kept down. Speaking strategies are distributed fairly equally across all three textbooks. Writing-learning strategies show gradual decrease across the series. The share of vocabulary strategies within the series indicates the lowest number in the first course book with increasing tendency in the following two course books. Grammar strategies show

the same uneven distribution across the series as the listening and reading strategies. Pronunciation strategies emerge largely in the second course book of the series and are omitted in the last one.

Table 6 Strategy distribution according to the skills-based approach

| | Listening strategies | Reading strategies | Speaking strategies | Writing strategies | Grammar strategies | Vocabulary strategies | Pronunciation strategies |
|---------------------------------------|----------------------|--------------------|---------------------|--------------------|--------------------|-----------------------|--------------------------|
| Strategy distribution in deutsch.com1 | 3 | 5 | 8 | 8 | 4 | 6 | 5 |
| Strategy distribution in deutsch.com2 | 5 | 10 | 8 | 3 | 12 | 10 | 14 |
| Strategy distribution in deutsch.com3 | 2 | 7 | 6 | 1 | 15 | 9 | - |

8 Research results of the qualitative content analysis

To gain more understanding of what is hidden under the numbers and frequencies of the strategies that emerged from the quantitative analysis and to deepen the obtained data interpretations, the *qualitative analysis* of the textbooks should provide a deeper insight into what kinds of strategies were found. For the qualitative analysis, a system of categories and codes was created, which should correspond with skills-based and function-based approach as much as possible. A coding instrument according to maximal list of strategies (Appendix), starting from O'Malley and Chamot (1990) and Oxford (1990) was developed and used to conduct the actual content analysis reported here. We chose the particular strategies listed below for their clarity and simplicity to provide a paradigm that would enable us to code quickly, accurately, and efficiently. These strategies provide a range of function-based subcategories (cognitive, metacognitive, social and affective) within the broader categories that follow the skills-based approach. Not all of the strategies listed were found in the analysed SFLL series of textbooks. To answer the research question: if there are any changes in the strategy types depending on the level of individual course books, we structured the progression of strategies within the individual skills.

For easier understanding, the categories, subcategories and the codes with examples are put into the following tables:

Table 7 Types of strategies in deutsch.com 1, 2, 3 in Listening

| Categories according to skills-based approach | Subcategories according to function-based approach | Codes | Examples |
|-----------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------|----------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Listening deutsch.com 1 | Cognitive | <i>resourcing</i> | Pay attention to the information you need (video, radio, photos, newspaper). |
| | Cognitive | <i>inferencing (2)</i> | Read the task before listening. You will need this information. Pay attention to background noises. |
| Listening deutsch.com 2 | Cognitive | <i>inferencing</i> | Pay attention to background noises while listening. |
| | Cognitive | <i>note-taking</i> | Use abbreviations when making notes: "Unterrichtsfächer – U-Fächer". |
| | Cognitive | <i>key word</i> | Highlight the key words in the tasks before listening. |
| | Metacognitive | <i>selective attention</i> | Make notes while listening. Write only the important information down. |
| | Metacognitive | <i>self-evaluation</i> | If you cannot find the correct answer, read the task once again and listen carefully. |
| Listening deutsch.com 3 | Cognitive | <i>elaboration</i> | Ask questions related to the text. Try to answer them after first listening. |
| Listening lc lm | Metacognitive | <i>self-monitoring</i> | Pay attention to the fact that words from the task often occur in the text. These facts, however, are not necessarily the correct ones. |

In the first textbook of the series, only cognitive strategies *resourcing* and *inferencing* are explicitly taught within the receptive skill Listening. The first strategy makes use of language materials such as dictionaries, videos, photos, newspapers, while the second one is focused on guessing meanings by using available information. In the second textbook of the series, both cognitive and metacognitive strategies emerge. Additionally to *inferencing*, the *note-taking* and *key word* strategies were discovered. This textbook involves also the metacognitive strategies *selective attention* - paying attention to specific parts of the language input that will help learning and *self-evaluation* - checking how well one is doing against one's own standards. The third textbook combines the

cognitive strategy *elaboration*, which is relating new information to other concepts in memory and the metacognitive strategy *self-monitoring* - checking one's performance.

Table 8 Types of strategies in deutsch.com 1, 2, 3 in Reading

| Categories according to skills-based approach | Subcategories according to function-based approach | Codes | Examples |
|-----------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Reading deutsch.com 1 | cognitive | <i>imagery</i> | Draw the meaning of words. You will remember them better. (GROSS- klein, hell - dunkel) |
| | cognitive | <i>key word</i> | Note down the key information from the text on a note. This is a way to overview them at one sight. |
| | metacognitive | <i>selective attention (3)</i> | What, who, when, where? Answers to these questions are the main information. |
| Reading deutsch.com 2 | cognitive | <i>key word</i> | Find the key words in the text and highlight them. |
| | cognitive | <i>key word +contextualisation</i> | Highlight the key words in the task. Look them up in the text then. |
| | cognitive | <i>Elaboration</i> | Ask W-questions related to the text and answer them. It is a way to summarise important information. |
| | cognitive | <i>recombination</i> | Summarise the text in your own words. You will understand it better. |
| | cognitive-metacognitive | <i>deduction selective attention</i> | Remember: all adjectives ending with suffix -schaft are feminine. |
| | metacognitive | <i>advance organisers</i> | Read the task before reading the text and consider which information you need. |
| | metacognitive | <i>selective attention (2)</i> | Highlight the interrogative nouns in the questions and in the answers in the text. Pay attention to the expressions while reading. |
| Reading deutsch.com 3 | cognitive | <i>Deduction</i> | Read the introduction to the text and think what the text might be about before reading. |

| | | | |
|-----------------------------|----------------------------|----------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Reading 2c 2c-m 1m | cognitive | <i>Inferencing</i> | The context helps to understand the unknown words. |
| | cognitive metacognitive | <i>transfer self-monitoring</i> | Activate your previous knowledge, state hypotheses and compare them with the text. You will understand it better. |
| | cognitive metacognitive | <i>key word+ grouping +selective attention</i> | Systemise the key information from the text. You can overview them at one sight. |
| | metacognitive | <i>directed attention</i> | You do not have to understand each word while reading. Focus on the main idea of the text. |

In the first textbook of the series, cognitive strategies *key word* and *imagery* - visualising information for memory storage and the metacognitive strategy *selective attention* are taught within the receptive skill Reading. The second textbook contains the majority of the strategies within Reading. The cognitive strategies *key word + contextualization* - placing a word or phrase in a meaningful language sequence, *elaboration* - relating new information to other concepts in memory, *recombination* - putting together smaller meaningful elements into new wholes, were discovered. A combination of cognitive strategy *deduction* - conscious application of rules to processing the foreign language and metacognitive strategy *selective attention* also emerged, followed by separate metacognitive strategies *advance organisers* - planning the learning activity in advance and *selective attention*.

The third textbook encompasses the cognitive strategies of *deduction* and *inferencing* followed by a combination of cognitive and metacognitive strategies *transfer* - using previous knowledge to help language learning and *self-monitoring* as well as *key word + grouping*, which is organising learning on the basis of common attributes and *selective attention*. A separate metacognitive strategy *directed attention* - deciding to concentrate on general aspects of a learning task - occurs in the textbook too.

In the first textbook of the series cognitive strategies *transfer*, *grouping* and *directed physical response* - responding physically followed by the metacognitive strategy *self-monitoring* - checking one's performance as one speaks and *advance organisers* are taught within the productive skill Speaking. The rare affective strategy - *encouraging yourself* is taught here as well.

The second textbook contains additionally to cognitive and metacognitive strategies also a combination of metacognitive strategy *directed attention* and affective strategy *encouraging yourself* was discovered. The only social strategy *asking for an explanation* in the whole series could be identified.

Table 9 Types of strategies in deutsch.com 1, 2, 3 in Speaking

| Categories according to skills-based approach | Subcategories according to function-based approach | Codes | Examples |
|-----------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Speaking deutsch.com 1 | Cognitive | <i>transfer (3)</i> | - You understand many words in German - you know them in your mother tongue or other languages. Words from other languages help. - Compare the new grammar structures with other languages. It helps to understand while learning. - Think what you already know about the new topic. |
| | Cognitive | <i>grouping</i> | Learn the adjectives together with their antonyms. |
| | Cognitive | <i>directed physical response</i> | Use pantomime while learning. Perform the meaning of the words. |
| | Metacognitive | <i>self-monitoring</i> | Build short and simple sentences. |
| | Metacognitive | <i>advance organisers</i> | Take a minute to plan a dialogue. |
| | Affective | <i>encouraging yourself</i> | Do not be afraid of mistakes. No one is born a master. |
| Speaking deutsch.com 2 | Cognitive | <i>contextualisation</i> | Think of a short story and use the new word expressions. You will remember them better. |
| | Cognitive | <i>contextualisation</i> | Remember that the sentences cannot be translated word by word. |
| | Metacognitive | <i>advance organisers</i> | Prepare materials before speaking (photos, CDs, brochures). |
| | metacognitive | <i>selective attention</i> | Pay attention to the position of the adjectives. They come before noun in German. |

| | | | |
|------------------------|-------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| | metacognitive – affective | <i>directed attention+ encouraging yourself</i> | Focus on the content before speaking. It is not a problem if you do not get everything right. |
| | Social | <i>asking for an explanation</i> | If you do not understand, ask for clarification. These sentences help: Once again, please. I beg your pardon. Can you repeat it? |
| Speaking deutsch.com 3 | Cognitive | <i>note-taking</i> | Note the new words down on a note, e.g. "vermuten, Vermutungen anstellen". |
| | cognitive cognitive | <i>note-taking+ repetition</i> | Note the new expressions down on sticky notes and use them when speaking. |
| | cognitive cognitive cognitive | <i>note taking+repetition+ contextualisation</i> | Note the new expressions down on sticky notes and revise them several times. You will remember better the appropriate preposition and the article. |

The third textbook of the series comprises only cognitive strategies. These strategies are however, thoroughly organised in the following way: *note-taking* followed by a combination of *note-taking + repetition* and finally by *note taking + repetition + contextualisation*.

In the first textbook of the series the cognitive strategy *grouping* is followed by the combination of cognitive strategy *resourcing* and the metacognitive strategy *self-evaluation* within the productive skill Writing. The majority of the identified strategies are metacognitive strategies *selective attention*, *advance preparation* and the cluster of strategies *advance preparation + advance organisers*.

The second textbook contains a cognitive strategy *contextualisation*, a metacognitive strategy *advance organisers* and affective strategy *encouraging yourself*, whereas the last textbook of the series includes only one cognitive strategy *recombination*.

Table 10 Types of strategies in deutsch.com 1, 2, 3 in Writing

| Categories according to skills-based approach | Subcategories according to function-based approach | Codes | Examples |
|-----------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Writing deutsch.com 1 | Cognitive | <i>grouping</i> | Collect your thoughts in a mind map. |
| | cognitive-metacognitive | <i>resourcing</i> <i>self-evaluation</i> | Check the spelling. If you are not sure use a dictionary. |
| | Metacognitive | <i>selective attention (2)</i> | Check the text. These points will help you: verb at the second place, verb – appropriate suffix, noun – begins with a capital letter. |
| | Metacognitive | <i>advance preparation</i> | Collect your thoughts and notes before writing. |
| | Metacognitive | <i>advance preparation+</i> <i>advance organisers</i> | Plan the structure of the text using W-questions before writing. |
| Writing deutsch.com 2 | Cognitive | <i>contextualisation</i> | Create your own exercises. You will learn more. |
| | Metacognitive | <i>advance organisers</i> | Collect your thoughts and expressions before writing. |
| | Affective | <i>encouraging yourself</i> | It is important to enjoy learning – play with the language (finish the story). |
| Writing deutsch.com 3 | Cognitive | <i>recombination</i> | Structure your description according to the questions. Form the questions in the present tense: person, tense, place, topic, plot. |

Table 11 Types of strategies in deutsch.com 1, 2, 3 in Vocabulary

| Categories according to skills-based approach | Subcategories according to function-based approach | Codes | Examples |
|-----------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------|---------------------|-------------------------------------------------|
| Vocabulary deutsch.com 1 | cognitive | <i>grouping (2)</i> | Build word fields. You can complete them later. |

| | | | |
|--------------------------|----------------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| | cognitive | <i>recombination</i> | The compound words frequently consist of more words. You can understand the individual words. |
| | metacognitive | <i>self-management</i> | Distribute the notes with new words across the room. You will learn them quicker. |
| | metacognitive | <i>advance organisers</i> | How can you answer the questions? Collect your thoughts and appropriate expressions first. |
| | affective | <i>lowering your anxiety</i> | Learn the dialogue by heart. You will be surer in the given situation. |
| Vocabulary deutsch.com 2 | cognitive | <i>imagery</i> | Visualize an image related to each word. |
| | cognitive | <i>grouping</i> | Create word families. It helps when learning. |
| | cognitive cognitive cognitive - affective | <i>contextualisation, elaboration, transfer, encouraging yourself</i> | Relate the new vocabulary with your own interests. You will remember the words better. |
| | cognitive - metacognitive | <i>deduction selective attention</i> | Remember: all nouns with suffix -ung are feminine. |
| Vocabulary deutsch.com 3 | cognitive cognitive | <i>grouping+ elaboration (2)</i> | Summarise the word families with the known vocabulary and complete them with new vocabulary. |
| | cognitive cognitive metacognitive | <i>deduction+ inferencing+selective attention</i> | Remember: You can understand the compound words better, if you separate the individual parts of the word and analyse them from the end to the beginning. |
| | cognitive - metacognitive | <i>deduction+selective attention</i> | Remember that all nouns ending with suffixes "-schaft, -keit, -ung, -heit, -ität" are feminine. |

In the first textbook of the series, the cognitive strategies *grouping* and *recombination* are followed by the metacognitive strategies *self-management* and *advance organisers* in the area of learning the new vocabulary. An affective strategy of *lowering one's anxiety* was discovered as well.

The second textbook includes cognitive strategies *imagery* and *grouping*. A cluster of cognitive strategies *contextualisation, elaboration, transfer* and an affective strategy *encouraging yourself* is a part of the explicit instruction too. The

last strategy, which was identified, was the combination of cognitive and metacognitive strategies *deduction* and *selective attention*.

The last textbook of the series comprises four strategy clusters: cognitive strategies *grouping* and *elaboration*; cognitive and metacognitive strategies *deduction*, *inferencing* and *selective attention* and cognitive and metacognitive strategies *deduction* and *selective attention*.

Table 12 Types of strategies in deutsch.com 1, 2, 3 in Grammar

| Categories according to skills-based approach | Subcategories according to function-based approach | Codes | Examples |
|-----------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Grammar deutsch.com 1 | cognitive | <i>note-taking+imagery (2)</i> | Write the new words on a note. Draw the grammar rules. You will learn them better. |
| | metacognitive | <i>self-monitoring</i> | Check the word order in the sentences using the conjunction "deshalb". |
| | metacognitive | <i>selective attention</i> | Learn the past participles always together with the infinitive and „haben/sein – leben – hat gelebt“. |
| Grammar deutsch.com 2 | cognitive | <i>contextualisation</i> | Learn the verbs, nouns and adjectives together with conjunctions. |
| | cognitive | <i>elaboration</i> | Explain the grammar rules in your own words – you will understand them better. |
| | cognitive | <i>deduction</i> | Highlight the subject in the sentence. You will find the relative pronoun easier. |
| | cognitive | <i>grouping</i> | Learn the comparative and superlative forms together. Learn the exceptions by heart, e.g. "gut, besser, am besten". |
| | cognitive - metacognitive | <i>deduction+ selective attention (4)</i> | Modal verbs in past tense do not have umlaut (mutation), but they always have t-. |
| Grammar deutsch.com 3 | cognitive | <i>resourcing+ grouping</i> | You can express similar contents with the same grammar structures. Collect and compare them. |

| | | | |
|--|-----------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| | cognitive | <i>contextualisation</i> | Structure the text, e.g. in a chronological way with expressions "first, then, finally". |
| | cognitive | <i>elaboration</i> | You already know these noun suffixes: "ein neues Auto – neues Auto". |
| | cognitive - metacognitive | <i>deduction+selective attention (4)</i> | Remember: relative pronouns differ only with "ich (mich, mir)" and with "du (dich, dir)". Remember: a relative pronoun in genitive has only two forms - "dessen (m, n) a deren (f, pl.) " |
| | cognitive cognitive metacognitive | <i>resourcing+note taking+ selective attention</i> | The way a noun is declinable can be looked up in a dictionary according to the given suffixes - "Mensch, der, -en, -en". Make a note into your note pad. |

In the first textbook of the series, the cluster of cognitive strategies *note-taking + imagery* is followed by the metacognitive strategies *self-monitoring* and *selective attention* in the area of learning the new grammar.

The second textbook encompasses cognitive strategies *contextualisation*, *elaboration*, *deduction* and *grouping*. Four clusters of a cognitive strategy *deduction* and a metacognitive strategy *selective attention* was discovered too.

The majority of grammar strategies were identified in the third textbook of the series: a cluster of cognitive strategies *resourcing + grouping*, further cognitive strategies *contextualisation* and *elaboration*. A combination of cognitive and metacognitive strategies *deduction + selective attention* and *resourcing + note taking + selective attention* was discovered too.

Table 13 Types of strategies in deutsch.com 1, 2, 3 in Pronunciation

| Categories according to skills-based approach | Subcategories according to function-based approach | Codes | Examples |
|-----------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Pronunciation deutsch.com 1 | cognitive | <i>transfer</i> | You understand the international words, however, the pronunciation is in each language different. |
| | cognitive | <i>grouping</i> | Learn the nouns together with the definite article. |
| | cognitive | <i>repetition</i> | Read the dialogue aloud. It makes the speaking easier. |
| | cognitive | <i>note taking+imagery</i> | Note down and highlight the nouns. You will remember them better. |
| | affective | <i>encouraging yourself, taking your emotional temperature</i> | Learn the dialogues in different moods. It is more enjoyable (friendly, tired, angry). |
| Pronunciation deutsch.com 2 | cognitive | <i>recombination</i> | When reading compound words, read the last word first and then the whole compound. |
| | cognitive | <i>repetition (2)</i> | Compounds are pronounced without pausing. You can make a short pause between the words. |
| | cognitive | <i>auditory representation</i> | Learn one example sentence by heart. You will remember the sentence melody and the word order of the sentence with the conjunction "wenn" better. |
| | cognitive - metacognitive | <i>deduction+ selective attention (5)</i> | Remember: suffixes -ig, -lich, -isch are unstressed. |
| Pronunciation deutsch.com 3 | - | - | - |

The strategies aimed at pronunciation were distributed in the series in the following way: The first textbook of the series comprises four separate cognitive strategies *transfer, grouping, repetition* and a cluster of cognitive strategies *note taking + imagery*. An affective strategy *encouraging yourself, taking your emotional temperature* was incorporated into the textbook too.

The second textbook again involves separate cognitive strategies *recombination, repetition* and *auditory representation*, followed by a combination of cognitive and metacognitive strategies in a repeating pattern. No pronunciation strategies were integrated into the third textbook of the series *deutsch.com3*.

To sum up the occurrence of the different types of learning strategies across the *deutsch.com* series, it can be observed that the majority of strategies listed in the coding instrument were integrated into the series of textbooks *deutsch.com*. The following strategies were not implemented into the course books: the cognitive strategy *translation* (using the first language as a basis for understanding and/or producing the FL), the metacognitive strategy *delayed production* (deliberately postponing speaking/writing so that one may learn by listening/reading) and social strategies *asking questions to clarify social roles and relationships, cooperating with others in order to complete tasks and empathising with others*.

9 Findings and interpretations

The findings related to the *function-based approach* give us an idea about the frequency and distribution of the cognitive, metacognitive, social and affective learning strategies across the series of course books *deutsch.com*.

When classifying learning strategies, O'Malley and Chamot (1990) have differentiated and categorised them into two main types: metacognitive and cognitive strategies. Cognitive strategies manipulate the material to be learnt or apply a specific technique to the learning task. Metacognitive strategies are important because they oversee, regulate, or direct the language learning process. However, without the use of appropriate cognitive strategies, the potential of these metacognitive strategies is reduced. The significance of these two major strategies types is reflected also in the analysed series *deutsch.com*, where cognitive strategies constitute 63% and the metacognitive strategies 32% of the entire cohort. The mutual relationship and dependence between these two strategies types in the series is supported by their frequent occurrence in form of chains or clusters within all language skills, vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation.

The fact that cognitive strategies include using prior knowledge to understand new language material can serve as an explanation for the high occurrence of cognitive learning strategies, which cover many of the mental processes that learners go through in learning the target language. Since the series is designed for second language learning, the learners know already how to learn the new vocabulary or grammar structures. They are aware of the fact that proper pronunciation and spelling are important. Their learning experiences of the first foreign language are connected with certain learning-techniques and learning-strategies that they can apply when learning a second foreign language. Reminding them of these cognitive processes is useful when discussing how the already established learning strategies can be consciously developed, as well as how to make the most of them to design one's learning process in an effective way. Learners who have at least a basic knowledge of one foreign language (English) and start learning German notice very quickly that there are numerous similarities between these two languages (mainly in grammar and vocabulary). That is why they can easily make connections between these two foreign languages.

The metacognitive learning strategies are represented in the largest amount in the first and second course book of the series. The rationale might be that at the beginning stage of learning a new language the focus is laid on teaching the learners to control their language learning by planning what they will do, checking how it is going, and then evaluating their performance on a given task. If they learn how to consciously select the vocabulary and grammatical forms they will use, how to draw on another set of strategies for monitoring how their speaking is going, how to evaluate what worked and how to identify the problem areas, then they will be more successful and effective in planning, monitoring and evaluating their learning process at the advanced stages. It is also important to mention that older learners (teenagers in this case) are more able to apply metacognitive strategies in their learning process than younger learners. It is important to highlight the fact that the series supports the strategy of selective attention rather frequently, which is an interesting way of creating metastrategic awareness. Its aim is to expose students to an oral/written text in a language other than English, and discuss the different cues one can use to guess at the possible meaning of the text. Such a strategy is particularly useful to students who are not conscious of and/or do not naturally transfer native language strategies to learning another language. Considering the occurrence of cognitive and metacognitive learning strategies, hypothesis no. 1 is confirmed.

The categories of social and affective strategies were added into the classification of learning strategies later and do not seem to play as significant

role as cognitive and metacognitive strategies. However, the fact that social strategies are rather ignored in the series is a little bit striking. The series is designed according to the communicative approach and should prefer learning strategies aimed at fostering the social interaction with other learners, such as asking questions to clarify social roles and relationships, asking for an explanation or verification, and cooperating with others in order to complete tasks.

The reason for the small number of the affective learning strategies in the series can be explained by the fact that the learners who use the course books deutsch.com already have fundamental experience with learning foreign languages. The need to regulate their emotions, motivation and attitudes with the aim to reduce anxiety and provide self-encouragement is possibly less intensive. Students are more successful at staying committed to the goals they have set for themselves, even under difficult conditions. Considering the types of affective strategies implemented into the analysed series *deutsch.com*, preferably *encouraging yourself* and *lowering your anxiety* were detected within productive skills speaking/writing and within vocabulary and pronunciation. The implemented affective strategy instruction seems to be most beneficial in classroom activities aimed at foreign language production for real life purposes. Generally, the findings connected to social and affective learning strategies confirm LaBelle's statement (2010, p. 360) that FLL textbooks in general lack sufficient social and affective strategies, so that analysis of them would prove rather unproductive.

The findings related to the *skills-based approach* give evidence for the frequency and distribution of the listening, reading, speaking, writing, grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation learning strategies across the series of course books deutsch.com.

Listening and reading strategies are represented quite unevenly across the series. They emerge in the highest number in the second course book, whereas their quantity in the first and third books is kept down. Regarding this finding, hypothesis no. 2 was not confirmed.

Speaking strategies are distributed in the same number in the first and second textbooks and they slightly decrease in the third course book. However, writing strategies show gradual decrease across the series, which is rather unusual. The productive skills should be accompanied by appropriate number of corresponding learning strategies because the transfer from comprehension of the new language structures to their production might be rather demanding. Regarding this finding the hypothesis no. 3 was confirmed only partially.

The share of vocabulary strategies within the series indicates the highest number in the second and third course book. The explanation for this distribution of vocabulary strategies might be the fact that vocabulary offers possibilities for interconnecting the existing knowledge with the new one. Many words have similar roots in English and German and there are lots of internationalisms also. In addition, German contains various words of English origin and lots of topics connected with everyday life and are easily accessible when the learners are aware of this “common vocabulary”. It is possible to activate the basic knowledge quickly and effectively through comparing the languages and to build relatively rich “common or parallel” vocabulary mainly at the beginning stage, which is focused on the comprehension of the new language.

Grammar strategies show a raising tendency across the series. The clarification of this phenomenon was sought after through deeper qualitative content analysis of the individual units. The explanation for this tendency is a progressive increase in the amount of new grammar across the series, which calls for further strategy enhancement.

Pronunciation strategies emerge primarily in the first two course books of the series with the highest concentration in the second textbook and they are absent in the third course book. The reason for higher concentration of these strategies at the early stages is obvious: to make the learners aware of the fact that proper pronunciation is essential when learning new language. This result can be considered only as partial confirmation of hypothesis no. 4.

10 Conclusions and suggestions for further research

The scope of the present study was to suggest a procedure for analysing the occurrence of learning strategies in textbooks. The explicitly highlighted learning strategies according to skills-based approach were analysed for their frequency and distribution across the whole sample through “*quantitative content analysis, a statistical technique for obtaining descriptive data on content variables*” (George 2009, p. 144). Further, a typology of the learning strategies according to the function-based approach was developed. Changes in the strategy types depending on the level of individual course books were identified through the qualitative content analysis.

The main outcomes of the quantitative and qualitative content analysis are the following: According to Macaro (2003), strategies are actually used in consort with others, either in chains or in clusters. The strategies in the series *deutsch.com* are arranged in both ways mentioned above. The analysis has revealed that in the case of strategy *chains*, the strategies are set in a predictable sequence, where the use of one strategy leads to another. In strategy *clusters*, a

learner is instructed to use a group of strategies simultaneously in performing a task.

The cognitive strategy *translation* (using the first language as a basis for understanding and/or producing the FL) was not implemented into the course books. This finding supports the main principle followed in the whole series - the plurilinguism. It builds links between the already acquired foreign language (English) and the new language (German) systematically and encourages the learners to activate consciously the knowledge of a foreign language they already have. The use of translation strategies usually represents an inefficient approach to learning foreign languages that beginning-level learners often feel forced to use (Eastman, 1991). The processing through the first language may interfere with attention to and overall processing of input. As for metacognitive strategy *delayed production* (deliberately postponing speaking/writing so that one may learn by listening/reading) - one more strategy not integrated into any of the textbooks of the series *deutsch.com* - we may say that initial emphasis on listening or reading comprehension, which represents a more natural way to learn a language is not so vital in case of a second foreign language learning textbook designed for learners, who already have experience with learning a foreign language and who can produce language quickly and effectively through comparing the languages and activate the already existing first foreign language "common or parallel" vocabulary assimilated in their long-term memory.

Based on the results of studies conducted on teaching affective strategies in FL classroom Ellis and Sinclair (1989) and Oxford (1990) recommend that extensive affective strategy instruction in FL classes needs to be reconsidered. The results of their studies suggest that teachers should *not* devote valuable time to the ongoing development of affective strategies. Rather, once strong group cohesion and a positive, supportive learning environment have been established, instructors should focus on teaching meaningful language and content in response to learners' needs and interests. This attitude is reflected also in the series *deutsch.com*, in which the affective strategies are aimed mostly at learning the dialogues in different moods to make them more enjoyable, learning the dialogues by heart so that the students are surer in a given situation, enjoying learning by playing with the language, or encouraging students not to be afraid of making mistakes.

We can conclude that the central philosophy of implementing explicit learning strategies into the series of textbooks *deutsch.com* is not to accomplish as many strategies as possible, but rather to focus the learner's attention on particular cognitive and metacognitive strategies, which they can employ to help them overcome obstacles in language learning and language use. The language learning

strategies portrayed in the series are rather tightly related to the actual exercises, tasks and texts.

For upcoming research, it would be necessary to conduct additional content analysis of the learning strategies listed in the student's books and teaching strategies given in teacher's books of the series to find out how these correspond with the learning strategies given in the course books. The next phase of research should also include observations in actual instructional settings to collect information about the effectiveness of these textbooks in real pedagogical practice.

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Appendix

Coding instrument - Language Learning Strategies
(adapted from O'Malley & Chamot, 1990, p. 44; Oxford, 1990, p. 163)

| Cognitive strategies | Language Learning Strategy | Examples |
|----------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------|
| | <i>repetition</i> - imitating other people's speech overtly or silently | |
| | <i>directed physical response</i> - responding physically 'as with directives' | |
| | <i>translation</i> - 'using the first language as a basis for understanding and/or producing the L2' | |
| | <i>grouping</i> - organising learning on the basis of 'common attributes' | |
| | <i>note-taking</i> writing down the gist etc of texts | |
| | <i>deduction</i> conscious application of rules to processing the L2 | |
| | <i>recombination</i> - putting together smaller meaningful elements into new wholes. | |
| | <i>imagery</i> - visualising information for memory storage | |
| | <i>auditory representation</i> - keeping a sound or sound sequence in the mind | |
| | <i>key word</i> - using key word memory techniques, such as identifying an L2 word with an L1 word that it sounds like. | |
| | <i>contextualisation</i> 'placing a word or phrase in a meaningful language sequence'. | |
| | <i>elaboration</i> 'relating new information to other concepts in memory'. | |
| | <i>transfer</i> - using previous knowledge to help language learning | |
| | <i>inferencing</i> guessing meanings by using available information | |

| <i>Meta-cognitive strategies</i> | Language Learning Strategy | Examples |
|----------------------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------|
| | <i>advance organisers</i> - planning the learning activity in advance | |
| | <i>directed attention</i> - deciding to concentrate on general aspects of a learning task | |
| | <i>selective attention</i> - deciding to pay attention to specific parts of the language input or the situation that will help learning | |
| | <i>self-management</i> - trying to arrange the appropriate conditions for learning | |
| | <i>advance preparation</i> - planning the linguistic components for a forthcoming language task | |
| | <i>self-monitoring</i> - checking one's performance as one speaks/writes | |
| | <i>delayed production</i> - deliberately postponing speaking so that one may learn by listening | |
| | <i>self-evaluation</i> - checking how well one is doing against one's own standards | |
| <i>Affective strategies</i> | Language Learning Strategy | Examples |
| | <i>anxiety reduction</i> - using progressive relaxation and deep breathing exercises, music, and laughter | |
| | <i>self-encouragement</i> - making positive statements, taking risks wisely, and administering self-rewards | |
| | <i>monitoring emotions</i> - listening to the body, completing a checklist, writing a language learning diary, and discussing feelings with peers | |
| <i>Social strategies</i> | Language Learning Strategy | Examples |
| | <i>asking questions to clarify social roles and relationships</i> | |
| | <i>asking for an explanation or verification</i> | |
| | <i>cooperating with others in order to complete tasks</i> | |
| | <i>empathising with others</i> | |

Content Analysis as a Research Method in Investigating the Cultural Components in Foreign Language Textbooks

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Abstract

In a broader context, the paper deals with content analysis as one of the most frequently applied research methods in the field of education; in a narrower sense it is concerned with the analysis of the cultural content in foreign language (FL) textbooks. The first part of the paper sheds light on the basic principles of content analysis. First of all, the meaning of the term is discussed through different definitions. This is followed by the comparison of the qualitative content analysis to its quantitative counterpart. In addition, considerable attention is paid to the process of content analysis. Furthermore, the issues of reliability and validity are discussed. Last, but not least, a summary of the theoretical background of FL textbook analysis and suggested checklists are provided.

The second half of the paper provides the methodology, the description and analysis of ten studies that applied content analysis in the process of investigating the cultural content of FL textbooks. The summary outlines the basic features of the examined studies.

Keywords

content analysis, cultural content, foreign language

Introduction

Content analysis – originally used in communication, journalism, sociology, psychology, and business (Neuendorf, 2002) – is today considered to be one of the main methods of educational research and it is also frequently applied in areas such as law and health care. In order to shed light on the principles of conducting this research method, the following part will be devoted to the definition of the concept of “content analysis” and the differences between its qualitative and quantitative approaches. Furthermore, we will also pay attention to the procedure of its application in practice, as well as the aspects of reliability and variability.

What is content analysis?

As Weber (1990, p. 117) puts it “content analysis is a research method that uses a set of procedures to make valid inferences from text”, and it has several advantages in comparison with other research methods. First of all, content analysis is applied directly to texts or transcripts, i.e. the products of human

communication, which is the core of social interaction. Secondly, high quality studies combine both qualitative and quantitative analysis of texts and mixing methods is generally acknowledged as an effective way to ensure the trustworthiness of the research in terms of validity and reliability. Furthermore, documents of different kinds provide a reliable source of information for a long period of time, as they can have a “lifespan” of several decades or even centuries. Last but not least, the unobtrusive feature of this method ensures that neither partner of the communicational situation is being analysed; therefore, there is little risk that they will behave according to certain expectations, which could consequently modify the nature of the data (Weber, 1990; Cohen et al., 2007; Stemler, 2001).

According to Cohen et al. (2007), content analysis in a broader sense refers to the process of summarising and interpreting written data, whereas, in a narrower context, it is “a strict and systematic set of procedures for rigorous analysis, examination and verification of the contents of written data” (ibid., p. 475). One of the fundamental features of content analysis is that a vast amount of written data is reduced to smaller groups of information (ibid.), or as put by Weber (1990), long texts with loads of words are represented by fewer words or expressions. In addition, content analysis can be conducted with any written material, from documents to interview transcriptions and can be applied to examine large amounts of text (Cohen et al., 2007).

Neuendorf (2002, p. 10) considers content analysis, as a summarising method of analysing messages quantitatively, to be scientific, in terms of “objectivity-intersubjectivity, a priori design, reliability, validity, generalisability, replicability, and hypothesis testing”; without being limited to the measurable types of variables or the context of the messages.

As it can be seen in the above perceptions of this research method, two fundamental approaches to content analysis exist: a qualitative and a quantitative one. Therefore, we will look at the meaning of these terms and the aspects in which they differ from each other.

Qualitative or quantitative analysis?

Qualitative content analysis, compared against quantitative content analysis, is often referred to as “latent level analysis, because it concerns a second-level, interpretative analysis of the underlying deeper meaning of the data” (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 246); whilst the latter is usually described as “manifest level analysis”, providing an objective and descriptive overview of the “surface meaning of the data” (ibid.).

A similar definition and differentiation is also provided by Zhang and Wildemuth (2009, p. 308) outlining that “qualitative content analysis goes beyond merely counting words or extracting objective content from texts to examine meanings, themes and patterns that may be manifest or latent in a particular text”. In fact, according to the authors, the differences between these two fundamental types of content analysis can be divided from several points of view.

One of them is the fields of research from which they have developed; quantitative content analysis has been mainly applied in mass communication and related areas, while its qualitative version was originally used in anthropology, qualitative sociology, and psychology. Secondly, quantitative content analysis is considered to be deductive, aimed at testing hypotheses or finding answers to questions based upon theories or previous empirical research. On the contrary, qualitative content analysis is mainly inductive, as it draws inferences from the examination of topics and themes and data. Furthermore, the techniques of data sampling are different, as the quantitative approach requires random sampling or other techniques of probability to ensure validity, while qualitative analysis uses intentionally chosen texts. Last, but not least, there are different products of the two approaches; while quantitative analysis caters for statistical methods and numerical results, the qualitative approach brings descriptions. In addition, it draws attention to unique themes that depict the variety of the perceptions of the phenomenon, rather than statistical importance of the frequency of particular concepts.

Despite of these differences, it has been highlighted by numerous scholars that, in research practice, the two approaches are often applied in combination (Dörnyei, 2007; Flick, 2007; Zhang & Wildemuth, 2009). In fact, mixing qualitative and quantitative methods is known as one of the ways of using triangulation, which, according to Flick (2010, p. 405), is “used as a strategy of improving the quality of qualitative research ...”. Indeed, they mutually support each other’s advantages and strengthen the validity of the findings, thus both contribute to obtain a broader, holistic knowledge about the examined field of study (Dörnyei, 2007; Flick, 2007).

As we are primarily concerned with the analysis of cultural content of textbooks, it is noteworthy to mention that even this specific type of investigation can be performed both quantitatively and qualitatively. Therefore, the second part of this paper is also aimed at finding out whether the selected studies opted for the qualitative or quantitative approach to conduct content analysis. However, prior to proceeding to this stage, we pay attention to the procedures that need to be undertaken when carrying out this type of method, i.e. how

content analysis works in practice. In addition, definitions of the basic terminology connected with the given issue will also be provided.

The process of content analysis

Cohen et al. (2007) define content analysis simply, as the process of four “C”s, i.e. coding, categorising, comparing and concluding. According to Dörnyei (2007), coding is used to reduce or simplify the data while emphasising their specific features in order to connect them to broader concepts, e.g. categories, whereas “code” is simply a label attached to a chunk of text intended to make the particular piece of information manageable and malleable” (ibid., p. 250). In addition, categorising refers to developing meaningful categories into which words, phrases, sentences, etc. as the units of analysis can be grouped, while comparing means making connections between categories. Finally, concluding stands for drawing theoretical considerations on the basis of the text and the results of the analysis (Cohen et al, 2007).

Cohen et al. goes further; stating the following “essential features of the process of content analysis:

1. breaking down text into units of analysis;
2. undertaking statistical analysis of the units;
3. presenting the analysis in as economical a form as possible” (ibid., p. 476).

However, these three phases also cover some other important features, so the whole procedure of content analysis can be further divided into several steps. The number of the phases is perceived by various scholars differently, although the steps, to a greater or lesser extent, share the same focus.

Neunendorf (2002, p. 50-51) defines nine stages, as following:

1. “Theory and rationale” which is about giving answers to questions such as what will be analysed and why it will be analysed, what the research questions are, and alike;
2. “Conceptualisations” caters for defining the variables;
3. “Operationalisations” stands for determining the units of data collection, as well as the aspects of measurement, i.e. internal validity;
4. “Coding schemes” which both in human and computer coding means creating a “codebook” (containing an explanation of all variable measures); in addition, in the case of human coding, a “coding form” is also required;
5. “Sampling” which could be done by different subsets, e.g. by issue, by pages, etc.

6. "Training and pilot reliability" refers to the agreement of different coders on codes and noting the reliability of each variable when piloting the an independent test;
7. "Coding" – in case of human coding in order to ensure "intercoder reliability", the use of at least two coders is required, whereas computer coding should apply dictionaries;
8. "Final reliability" is concerned with calculating a reliability figure;
9. "Tabulation and reporting" stands for the (statistical) presentation of the results in tables or figures, as well as their interpretation.

Numerous scholars (Dörnyei, 2007; Flick, 2007; Weber, 1990; Zhang & Wildemuth, 2009) emphasise the step of creating and applying a coding scheme and considers it to be of crucial importance amongst the phases of content analysis, as it influences the outcomes of the whole study to the largest extent. Hence, Weber (1990) provides an eight-step framework of developing and using a coding scheme that draws on the following issues: determining the units of analysis, defining the categories, piloting coding on a small sample of text, assessing accuracy and reliability, revising the rules of coding (in case of a poor reliability), returning to step three, i.e. testing the scheme on a sample. This cycle will be repeated until a relatively high reliability is achieved. The last two phases involve the coding of the whole text and finally assessing reliability and accuracy of human coders.

As we are primarily concerned with content analysis in the field of education, we will pay considerably more attention to the model drawn by Cohen et al. (2007) consisting of eleven steps.

1. At first, similarly to Neuendorf (2002), the *formulation of the research questions* – derived from the theory to be tested – is required to be done.
2. Secondly, the *population* – from which samples are to be selected – *must be defined*. This does not refer only to people, but rather to texts, such as newspapers, textbooks, emails and so on.
3. The third step is to decide which *sampling strategy* to choose, i.e. whether to apply stratified sampling, random sampling, cluster sampling, etc. with regard to the key aspects of sampling that include "representativeness, access, size of the sample and generalisability of the results" (ibid, p. 477).
4. The next stage is connected with answering the questions about the *generation of the document*, such as how it was created, where it comes from, how it was recorded and so on.
5. *Establishing the units of analysis*, e.g. words, sentences, paragraphs or the whole text, people or themes, etc. should be the fifth step of the analysis. Two

types of units must be distinguished here, the *coding* and *contextual* units, the former standing for the smallest analysable element of the material, while the latter meaning “the largest textual unit that may appear in a single category” (ibid., p. 477).

6. The next step focuses on the *development of codes* to be used in the analysis. Codes can be very general, or more specific. It can have a form of a word or abbreviation, which is then ascribed to each piece of datum; hence, it must clearly represent what it stands for. This way, the frequency and the patterns of codes can be easily detected.
7. Stage seven is concerned with the *establishing of the categories for the analysis*. They can be defined as “the main groupings of constructs or key features of the text, showing links between units of analysis” (ibid., p. 478). In fact, categories can be formed by using one, a few, or plenty of terms. The notion “category” can stand for words, phrases, sentences or other units of text sharing similar meanings. According to the aim of the research, words can be presumed as similar in terms either of their accurate, dennotational or their connotational meaning (Weber, 1990). Several aspects have to be decided upon, such as whether to develop mutually exclusive, broader or narrower, general or more specific categories. In order to ensure content validity, they need to be exhaustive (Stemler, 2001). One of the differences between codes and categories is that the former is usually more specific than the latter, which is also referred to as a “node”. Thus, while “a code is a label for a piece of text; a node is a category into which different codes fall or are collected” (Cohen et al., 2007, p. 479). Or in other words “whereas codes describe specific textual moments, nodes draw together codes into a categorical framework, making connections between coded segments and concepts” (ibid.). In these terms a node can be understood as a concept, an idea, a place, a group of people, etc.
8. Step number eight is the process of *coding and categorising of the data*, which deals with the ascription of codes and categories to each piece of data. Codes and categories can be decided upon in advance (as written in the previous stages), or retrospectively, i.e. “in response to the data that have been collected” (ibid., p. 480). Pre-coding of several questions during the preceding phases of the analysis enables an objective and immediate conversion of each data into a score. Examples of pre-coded questions can be rating scales and checklists. In addition, “it is important to decide whether to code simply for the existence or the incidence of the concept” (ibid.), as, in the case of the former, the aspect of frequency would be lost, which could indicate the significance of the examined concept in the text. It is also noteworthy to

mention that a number of computer software products exist to help the work of the coder, just to mention some of them, without attempting to be comprehensive, are for example ETHNOGRAPH, N-Vivo, Code-AText and many others (Cohen et al., 2007; Stemler, 2001; Zhang & Wildemuth, 2009).

9. Having performed the process of coding and categorising, *data analysis* can be conducted, e.g. the researcher can count the number of occurrences of each code or word in the text, as well as the number of words in each category. Some words can be ranked in more than one category, for instance when a category is subsumed by another category. Having calculated the frequencies, statistical analysis can be performed, such as tabulation, graphical representation, regression, etc. In a less quantitative version of analysis, connections between concepts and categories, their strength and direction will be established.
10. The penultimate step is concerned with *summarising*, i.e. identifying the key features, such issues, factors or areas of the investigation.
11. Finally, the whole process of content analysis is completed by *making speculative inferences*, i.e. by drawing conclusions on the basis of the summarised results of the research.

Reliability and validity in content analysis

In the process of content analysis, investigators are most often challenged with difficulties arising from aspects of reliability and validity.

In case of content analysis, *reliability* is commonly associated with notions of stability, reproducibility, and accuracy. Stability is considered to be the weakest form of reliability, as it is coded only by one coder and can be understood as the persistence over time of the rules of the coding scheme. Reproducibility, also referred to as intercoder reliability, means the same results of coding, when the same text is coded by two or more coders. Accuracy, being the strongest feature of reliability, stands for “the extent to which the classification of text corresponds to a standard or norm” (Weber, 1990, p. 120).

Scholars distinguish between three fundamental forms of *validity* in content analysis. Face validity represents the extent to which a category measures what it is intended to measure and, as single-variable validity, it is considered to be the weakest of all the forms. External validity is “obtained by comparing content-analytic data with some external criterion” (ibid., p. 121), hence, it is perceived as much stronger than other types of validity. Semantic validity means the agreement between persons on the meanings or connotations of words they are examining.

To put it simply, in order to make valid conclusions, the procedure of coding and classification is of crucial importance and must be reliable. This primarily means that the same text should be coded in the same way by different investigators. In addition, the variables developed in this process must be valid as well, which means that it represents what is attempted to measure by the researcher (Weber, 1990; Neuendorf, 2002; Stemler, 2001; Zhang & Wildemuth, 2009).

As pointed out, problems of both reliability and validity usually arise from the “ambiguity of word meanings, category definitions, or other coding rules” (Weber, 1990, p. 118). Hence, it is advisable to start work on small units of text to pilot the coding and categorisation, and make changes where necessary.

Analysis of FL textbooks

It is commonly acknowledged that textbook analysis should primarily serve for teachers in the process of choosing the most appropriate material, which is of particular importance for several reasons. First of all, it is one of the main strategic decisions in FL education and in education in general, as teachers usually do not choose course-books for a short period of time; furthermore, if used for several years, a large amount of money is going to be spent. In addition, the learning experience and language proficiency level of a large group of students is going to be influenced which, consequently, can have an impact on their professional future. Finally, from a student’s point of view, it can be confusing and demanding to get accustomed to a new set of materials if we decide to change the previous package within the same programme (Cunningsworth, 1995).

A number of scholars agree that textbook selection is one of the key problems of today’s EFL education and at the same time one of the most demanding tasks (Cunningsworth, 1995; Straková, 2001). On one hand, the reasons which lay behind it include the fact that one can feel completely lost, due to the overwhelming and confusing range of EFL products. On the other hand, teachers still lack the necessary skills to choose the most appropriate course-books and they often decide under the pressure of time or other circumstances (Ansary & Babaii, 2002).

It would be naïve to think that there is a course-book which could fulfil one’s overall expectations (Cunningsworth, 1995; Gadušová & Hartánská, 1995), “but the aim is to find the best possible fit, together with potential for adapting or supplementing parts of the material where it is inadequate or unsuitable” (Cunningsworth, 1995, p. 5). Therefore, an in-depth analysis of the selected

textbooks must be undertaken, in which we actively look for information in the material according to the agenda we have decided on prior to it.

Two fundamental approaches to assessing textbooks can be differentiated; being analysis for potential and analysis for suitability. Whilst the former refers to textbook analysis in general, without any specific use in mind, the latter stands for “matching the course-books against a specific requirement” (ibid., p. 15).

General FL textbook analysis

It must be noted that different educational realities require different criteria, so, what is important, is to identify one’s own priorities and to draw up a range of categories according to them. These criteria can also comprise some parts of the commonly acknowledged checklists used for course-books evaluation in general and provided by numerous experts in the field that focus on more or less the same attributes of materials, as follows: financial affordability, physical availability, visual appearance, methodology and methodological guidance, interesting topics and appropriate handling of skills and stereotyping, correspondence with the syllabus, etc. (Ansary & Babaii, 2002; Cunningsworth, 1995; Harmer, 1998; Ur, 1999).

In connection to the principles of content analysis, checklists are examples of pre-coded questions formed prior to the phase of coding and categorising data. They are also of crucial importance with regard to content analysis of textbooks, as they help the objective and systematic transformation of each data into a score (Cohen et al., 2007). The content and the length of the check-sheet will depend on a lot of factors, as already mentioned, except for the circumstances in which the textbooks are going to be used, whether one evaluates teaching material for general purposes or looking for a specific feature. “However, it is important to limit the number of criteria used and, the number of questions asked, to manageable proportions. Otherwise, we risk being swamped in a sea of detail” (Cunningsworth, 1995, p. 2).

Textbook analysis for suitability

As previously stated, there are situations when one analyses a FL course-book to determine whether it is suitable from one particular point of view. In such cases, we are limited by the number of criteria that, on one hand, can be considered to be an advantage, because we are not overwhelmed with a huge amount of categories. On the other hand, the careful construction of a useful checklist gains extreme importance, as inappropriately set guidelines might negatively affect the whole process of analysis and consequently the results of the investigation, too.

As we are primarily concerned with the analysis of the cultural content in textbooks, we will draw attention to checklists suggested in this area. However, it must be noted that our examination of numerous lists of criteria for general analysis indicated that majority of them did not include cultural aspects of the target language at all. In fact, there are not many checklists focusing specifically on the cultural dimension in FL courses (Byram, 1989; Saluveer, 2004). In the following part of the study, without attempting to be comprehensive, we provide a summary of some of the guidelines for evaluating FL course-books proposed by different authors with regard to the given perspective.

Criteria for analysing cultural content in FL textbooks

As cited in Byram (1989), Huhn (1978) distinguishes seven criteria dealing with the cultural content of FL textbooks as follows:

- Cultural information must be accurate and contemporary;
- The question of stereotypes must be handled critically;
- It must provide a realistic picture of the foreign society;
- It must be free from ideologies;
- Facts should not be presented in isolation;
- The historical material should be presented explicitly.

Another classification of criteria is provided by Risager (1991, p. 182-183):

1. The micro level – phenomena of social and cultural anthropology:
 - a. The social and geographical definition of characters
 - b. Material environment
 - c. Situations of interaction
 - d. Interaction and subjectivity of the characters: feelings, attitudes, values, and perceived problems.
2. The macro level – social, political, and historical matters:
 - a. Broad social facts about contemporary society (geographical, economic, political, etc.)
 - b. Broad socio-political problems (unemployment, pollution, etc.)
 - c. Historical background
3. International and intercultural issues
 - a. Comparisons between the foreign country and the pupils' own
 - b. Mutual representations, images, stereotypes
 - c. Mutual relations: cultural power and dominance, co-operation and conflict
4. Point of view and style of the author

Continuing with Cunningsworth (1995), the social and cultural context in the FL course must be comprehensible to the students and they should be able to interpret “the relationships, behaviour, intentions, etc. of the characters portrayed in the book” (ibid., p. 92). His checklist pays special attention to gender differences. For instance, it is important to examine whether women are treated equally to men, what inner qualities and physical attributes women are given, or the professional and social status women occupy. Other aspects involved in the list focus on the inner lives of the characters portrayed in the course and the social background in which they exist.

According to Kilickaya (2004), prior to using FL textbooks with students, teachers should take into consideration such factors as “socio-cultural information, learners’ needs, stereotypes, generalisations and intercultural communication”.

A further model for analysing the cultural content in FL textbooks was presented by Hatoss (2004). It was drawn up based upon a pilot study that was carried out as a content analysis of textbooks used for business communication in produced in the English language, but with a European context. It focuses on the evaluation of three dimensions: text and visual input, methods used to teach the cultural content and aims set by the author/s or publisher/s of a particular textbook for developing learners’ cultural competence. Input factors include sociolinguistic and pragmatic competences, sociocultural knowledge, as well as paralinguistic and semiotic input. The aspect of methods is concerned with implicit versus explicit as well as cognitive versus experiential teaching of the cultural input. The criterion of the authors/publishers’ aims deals with the issue of assimilation.

Having drawn the most fundamental principles of content analysis in terms of investigating cultural content in FL textbooks, we proceed to the second part of this paper, which is focused on the analyses of studies conducted in the examined area. The diversity of the randomly chosen studies in terms of the investigated issues, methodology, size and character of the samples etc. was intentional. In fact, we primarily wanted to find out, which aspects of the guidelines presented above had been examined in the studies, how the analysis had been carried out, and whether there are any similarities or differences with regard to these viewpoints. In addition, we also provide our personal opinion about the analysed studies, their benefits or deficiencies, as well as a summary of our findings.

Content analysis of the cultural content in FL textbooks

The second part of this paper focuses on applying the method of content analysis in FL textbook evaluation. As we are primarily interested in examining

the cultural content of FL textbooks, a sample of ten studies dealing with at least one aspect of the given perspective is presented and analysed. The provided examples of cultural content analysis in FL textbooks were retrieved from different sources, involving printed and online versions of various publications, regardless of the date of publishing. The common feature of the studies is that they investigated one or more aspects of the cultural dimension in FL course-books, as one of our basic intentions was to learn about the types of cultural issues that researchers seek, using the method of content analysis. The studies were selected from sources, the majority of which is specialised in language pedagogy or applied linguistics, such as journals, a conference proceeding, a printed volume of studies and a monograph, as follows: *Pan-Pacific Association of Applied Linguistics* (Japan, conference proceeding), *Bulletin of Niigata Institute of Technology* (Japan, journal), *Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching* (Singapore, journal), *Canadian Social Science* (Canada, journal), *Hawaii Pacific University TESOL Working Paper Series* (USA, journal) *International Journal of English Language Education* (Macrothink Institute, USA, journal), *Cultural Studies in Foreign Language Education* (Byram, monograph), *Mediating Languages and Cultures: Towards an Intercultural Theory of Foreign Language Education* (England, volume of studies), *Ibérica* (Spain, journal) and *SAGE Open* (England, journal).

The main objectives of the present study were as follows:

1. To learn about the diversity of different issues investigated in FL textbooks;
2. To find out whether the qualitative or the quantitative approach was preferred by the researchers;
3. To find out whether content analysis was supplemented by other methods of research;
4. To learn about selected aspects of research methodology applied in the studies, i.e. sampling, units of analysis, checklists, categories, etc.
5. To learn about the results of the studies;

With regard to the research aims, we have formulated the following research questions:

1. What cultural issues are investigated in the selected FL textbooks, i.e. what was the focus of the studies?
2. Did the researchers conduct qualitative content analysis or its quantitative counterpart? Are there any studies combining the two approaches?
3. Were the examples of the content analysis supplemented by other research methods?

4. What information is provided about the sample and the units of analysis? Did the researchers use suggested checklist/s? If yes, which one/s?
5. What were the conclusions of the researchers based upon the results? Did the selected materials adequately represent the investigated issue?

As to the data processing, firstly, the content of the studies was summarised, then they were examined from the point of view of the given questions. The results of the investigation were recorded in a table according to which conclusions were drawn up. The summary of the results also provides some interesting viewpoints outlined by the researchers of the studies.

Examples of cultural content analysis in FL textbooks

As we have arranged the selected studies in chronological order, we will start with the research conducted by Byram in 1989. The reason why we opted for this study was that Byram is considered to be one of the most prominent scholars, emphasising the importance of introducing the intercultural element to FL and he has developed a model for intercultural communicative competence (ICC). The aim of the presented study was to investigate the extent to which issues such as cultural knowledge and cultural information played role in language teaching. It comprised analysis of a 'French as foreign language' textbook, as well as interviews and observations of teachers and students. The research was carried out in two English comprehensive schools over three years. Findings revealed that the cultural content of the lessons was deeply influenced by the textbooks. The observation of teachers; and interviews with them, indicated that the cultural content of the books had been complemented by the teachers. Moreover, the interviews with students revealed that the majority of them enjoyed the culture component.

Concerning the textbook analysis, the research sample consisted of the first three volumes of the textbook titled "Action! Graded French", published in the 1980s. It was intended for teaching French as a foreign language to 11 to 16 year olds. Units of the textbook demonstrated different aspects of the life of French people. As to the research procedure, the coding system for the purpose of the analysis covered several different aspects. The data were analysed both quantitatively and qualitatively.

As far as the analysis by theme was concerned, the results implied a thematic and pragmatic approach to intercultural language teaching, as all the three volumes were full of a wide range of different topics, connected mainly to a visit in France and using services. Regarding the second category, which was concerned with the image of the target country, a positive view of the French society and culture was portrayed in the textbooks. Furthermore, when it came

to the aspect of stereotypes, the findings of the analysis indicated that in general, neither French people nor their country was stereotyped. Finally, concerning the realistic view or authenticity of the information, two controversial groups of results were found. One of them was connected with the previously mentioned superficial, exclusively positive image of the target culture, where the author apparently failed to provide a realistic picture. On the other side, places, especially when supplemented with photos or pictures, proved a realistic approach of conveying information.

Based upon these findings, Byram assumed that some aspects of the French culture in the analysed textbooks reflected the reality (e.g. places, situations); however others appeared to be less real (e.g. characters). According to the researcher, the examined materials could only lead to a superficial understanding of French, mainly for the reasons that they lacked less attractive realities of the target culture, a more genuine picture of French people and their lifestyle, as well as some other sociocultural issues, such as religion or politics.

As for our second example, we have chosen a textbook analysis carried out by another famous scholar and researcher, who claims that one of the roles FL textbooks should gradually acquire is the role of mediator between the home and the target culture, i.e. the role of “presenting the country in a nut-shell” (Risager, 1991, p. 191). Risager is also known for developing a list of criteria dealing with the cultural content of FL textbooks (refer to the theoretical part of the study). Her research, conducted in 1991, aimed at mapping the development of incorporating the intercultural component in FL textbooks. As for the coding scheme, she applied the model of four categories presented above. The data were processed both quantitatively and qualitatively. The research sample included textbooks used for the elementary level in Scandinavia since the 1950s, the majority of which were produced in Sweden. Yet, the researcher considered the results of the analysis to be generalisable to other western countries of Europe.

Based on the findings of the analysis, Risager claimed that textbooks shared some features regardless of the time of production. First of all, the sociocultural focus consisted of the same elements in all examined materials, e.g. characters living in urban environment came from the middle-class, their age distribution was close to that of the intended learners, the linguistic interaction between them appeared to be trivial and focused mainly on situations of free time and consumption. The researcher highlighted that the tendency to focus on average learners needed a shift towards a more heterogeneous group of students in terms of both their age and social status.

The second type of common features was connected with the under-presented emotions and subjectivity of characters; thus providing a picture of so called “half-persons”, which questioned the authenticity of the heroes and situations. The following feature referred to the objective, neutral style commonly shared by all the investigated textbooks. It was reflected mainly in avoiding provocative and controversial issues that, in fact, could hinder discussion and engagement.

On the other side, results of the analysis at the micro-level demonstrated some shifts in the development of EFL textbooks throughout the examined period of time. One of them is the tendency to individualisation and weak social network of the characters. In addition, gender stereotypes seemed to become less apparent, trying to establish an egalitarian representation of both sexes. Other changes could be related to the replacement of the unrealistic drawings of early textbooks by more authentic pictures and photos.

As far as the macro-level analysis was concerned, changes were traced in terms of geographical information and socio-political problems, as newer textbooks paid more attention to these issues. However, whatever the time of publishing, textbooks lacked information on historical background.

Within the category of “International and Intercultural Issues”, the tendency to confront the target culture with the learners’ own in the latest materials was mentioned. In addition, they were also concerned with national stereotypes to a greater extent than earlier textbooks.

Apparently, the two studies that were presented do not share a lot of common features, mainly as far as their focus, research sample and methodology are concerned. However, it was not our objective to investigate identical studies, as we primarily aimed at looking for the type of cultural issues analysed in FL textbooks. Yet, what these two examples do have in common is that they both could serve as a model for researchers when analysing the cultural content of FL textbooks; due to the thoroughly designed and conducted research, as well as the objective interpretation of the results using the method of triangulation. Hence, apart from looking for the answers to the predefined questions, we will also provide our opinion about the advantages or the limitations of the following studies at the end of each of them.

The next study conducted by Aliakbari (2005) and dealing with the cultural content of current ELT textbooks in Iran, attempted to find the answers to two sorts of questions. One of them was interested in whose culture and, to what extent, is represented in ELT textbooks. The other tried to find out whether the given teaching materials provided sufficient support to develop learners’ ICC.

Based on Cortazzi and Jin's model (1999), he also examined whether the particular ELT textbook reflected the source culture, i.e. Iranian, the target culture (the culture of English-speaking countries), the international target cultures (countries where English is not used as first language) or remained neutral, i.e. focusing merely on learners' linguistic competence. In both cases the data were analysed quantitatively.

As to the research sample, Aliakbari chose the four levels of a nationally developed textbook, called "English book", used in Iranian upper secondary schools. Each of the levels consisted of a vocabulary building section, a reading comprehension part, listening comprehension and pronunciation practice, a grammar builder and a conversation practice part. However, the study investigated only the vocabulary and reading section as, during the process of investigation, they turned out to be the core of each unit and of every level.

With regard to the different nature of the two investigated parts, two different schemes of categories were developed for the purpose of the content analysis. In the vocabulary section, sentences following the particular word or phrase were classified into four categories. Thus, sentences without any cultural information belonged to the so-called "No Reference, Culture Free Statements" (NRCFS). The second category, labelled as "No Reference, Culture Specific Statements" (NRCSS) comprised examples with unidentifiable cultural content. "Sentences with Culture General References" (SCGR) contained cultural information that could not be restricted only to one nation or country. The fourth category, however, included references to a particular culture or country; hence the name "Sentences with Culture Specific References" (SCSR). Finally, to make the analysis easier, the categories were further marked as A, B, C and D.

For the analysis of the reading passages, Aliakbari established eight categories as follows: "reference to English speaking countries (H), reference to non-English speaking western countries (I), reference to eastern countries (L), cross-national comparison (M), reference to Iran (N), reference to Islam and Islamic traditions (O)" (ibid., p. 8). Categories (J) and (K) were also added, the former referring to texts with a general content, such as science, history and alike; whilst the latter included unidentifiable references.

According to Aliakbari, findings of the analysis demonstrated that the investigated textbook did not provide sufficient support for fostering learners' ICC, as only 11 % of the sentences of the vocabulary sections could be classified as SCSR. As far as the content of reading passages was concerned, it primarily focused on science and references to issues, such as literature and arts, were almost missing. As 28% of the cultural information in reading comprehension sections could not be connected to any culture or country, it was considered to be

a further disadvantage of the examined textbooks. In addition, the range of different references appeared to be limited and insufficient.

Based upon these results, Aliakbari assumed that the analysed Iranian textbook failed to develop ICC; therefore, a shift in the ideology of ELT and thus also in developing textbooks would be necessary. However, in our opinion the conclusion that the investigated course-book did not provide sufficient support to build one's intercultural competence seems to be overstating. Certainly, the equal representation of home, target and international target culture can broaden students' horizons and contribute to their cultural understanding; yet ICC also comprises other components, such as sociolinguistic and pragmatic competences, which the present study did not pay attention to.

Another example, carried out by Mineshima (2008), is an investigation about how genders were portrayed in a Japanese upper secondary-school English textbook. The examined material, titled *Birdland Oral Communication I*, used for teaching oral communication was written by a group of 9 authors, consisting of both native (2) and non-native Japanese (7) speakers of English.

As far as the procedure of the research is concerned, both quantitative and qualitative analysis was carried out focusing mainly on the language of the textbooks; although pictures were also examined where appropriate. Quantitative analysis was conducted in order to examine two aspects of sexism, which were the representation of genders and character traits. The former took into account the number of female/male characters in the whole textbook and in each lesson as well, the number of their utterances and it also checked which of the genders appeared first when mentioned together. On the other hand, the latter investigated the differences between the two genders in terms of school subjects and occupations, interests and lifestyle, as well as the division of household chores. Qualitative analysis was carried out to get a holistic view of the gender representation in the given textbook. For this purpose, five dialogues were chosen and analysed from the point of view of gender portrayal. Furthermore, some illustrations were also investigated, with a special focus on occasions when females and males wore aprons.

Findings of the quantitative analysis implied that female and male characters were almost equally present both in the textbook as a whole, as well as in each of its lessons. Similarly, the number of their utterances shared a balanced value and so did the frequency of their first appearances. Regarding personality traits, both genders were provided with approximately the same number of school subjects, professions, leisure activities and household duties.

In spite of the egalitarian approach demonstrated through the results of the quantitative analysis, the qualitative investigation, on the contrary, brought more controversial results. On one hand, the unequal distribution of household chores in favour of men appeared in various contexts; however, males working in aprons and ambitious female characters were also equally present in the textbook.

Based on the majority of the findings, Mineshima concluded that the examined textbook contributed to an egalitarian and broad-minded manifestation of both genders, strengthening their equal position in different fields of life. In addition, he suggested two pedagogical implications. Firstly, he emphasised the preventive role of the teachers with regard to gender discrimination, i.e. they should treat the unequal representation of the genders in textbooks as pedagogical opportunities. Secondly, teachers should avoid attributing any prescribed roles to either of the genders, e.g. to practise various roles demonstrated in the dialogues of the textbook, regardless of the students' gender.

Amongst the limitations of the study, Mineshima mentioned the small number of the analysed pictures while conducting qualitative analysis; hence, more samples could contribute to a more precise picture of the examined issue. Furthermore, as the investigation focused only on one textbook, a comparison of different textbooks would be necessary for the purpose of making generalisations. Despite the limitations of the study, Mineshima believed that it could serve as a source of criteria for teachers, when selecting and choosing textbooks.

Si Thang Kiet Ho (2009) analysed the aspects of intercultural communication in two EFL textbook units currently used in a Vietnamese university. Furthermore, according to the principles of intercultural language learning a cultural component of each unit was developed. Through a variety of interactive language tasks and activities the proposed framework aimed at raising learners' cultural awareness and fostering culture learning cognitively, behaviourally and affectively.

As for the research sample, Si Thang Kiet Ho chose a unit dealing with the topic of family in a Speaking course titled "Let's Talk 2" (Jones, 2002) and another lesson focused on food and drinks in a textbook titled "British Culture" (Thai & Duong, 1998). As far as the analysis of the cultural content was concerned, Si Thang Kiet Ho evaluated separately two different aspects within each unit. Firstly, the analysis focused on how culture was incorporated in the given unit, i.e. the types of activities through which cultural issues were introduced. In

addition, the treatment of culture in terms of language-culture relationship was also examined, i.e. whether the textbook taught culture explicitly or implicitly. The collected data were analysed qualitatively.

Regarding the results of the analysis, the unit dealing with the issue of families involved two main activities. One of them was to describe family relationships using the target language through vocabulary building tasks. The other one focused on discussion about learners' family life in their home country. The activities were introduced mainly through pair work, group work and individual work. Concerning the second aspect, the unit taught culture exclusively in a static-cognitive way, as it did not provide opportunities for active and dynamic culture learning, i.e. did not expose learners to the exploration of the target culture, to its confrontation with the home culture and the reflection on the similarities and differences of these two entities.

In the lesson concerned with food and drinks, reading comprehension and post-reading activities were applied. In addition, a glossary of cultural terms related to the topic was provided. Similarly to the unit of families, learners were not enhanced to actively build their ICC, as the culture-related issues were represented merely as facts.

Based on the findings of the analysis, Si Thang Kiet Ho made several suggestions how to use the cultural elements presented in the units more efficiently in order to develop learners' intercultural competences. The proposed model was developed with regard to the basic principles of intercultural learning. One of them is the aspect of "exploring self", which according to Si Thang Kiet Ho could be realised through groups discussions about the cultural differences and similarities, or through cultural connotations of vocabulary, for instance by drawing pictures. Secondly, cultural awareness could be developed by creating an authentic environment, a so-called "cultural island", through decorating the classroom with authentic picture, drawings, and so on. The cultural behaviours of people of the target culture could be further observed by watching videos. In addition, cultural exploration might be also fostered through conducting ethnographic interviews with native speakers, cultural simulations, identifying and reflecting on cultural stereotypes. Furthermore, comparing cultures and reflecting on the differences and similarities is another effective tool for enhancing cultural awareness. Finally, Si Thang Kiet Ho ranked problem-solving activities among the effective ways of mediating between cultures, i.e. avoiding or solving intercultural misunderstandings.

Apparently, Si Thang Kiet Ho provided a wide range of interactive tasks to effectively exploit the cultural content of the analysed units and to enhance students' ICC. However, what we miss is the critical analysis of the underlying

assumptions about culture in the given materials what he primarily aimed at. Except for the method of teaching the cultural content, the study obviously failed to provide a broader picture of the cultural input in the two selected units. In addition, even if an analysis of the cultural content was provided, the sample of two units, i.e. one unit per textbook, seems to be too small to make conclusions about “the under-lying assumptions about culture in two traditional EFL textbooks”.

The cultural content of EFL textbooks used in higher education in China was examined by Juan (2010). Her study aimed at finding out what kinds of cultural information the college EFL textbooks contained. It also tried to answer the question of the typical features the cultural content had. In addition, the purpose of the research was to investigate the advantages and disadvantages of the cultural references.

Regarding the research methodology, the sample comprised the first four volumes of *New College English* (Yinhua et al., 2001), published in Shanghai and used at the Tianjin Polytechnic University. Each of the levels consisted of eight lessons of different focus reflected in two texts and the supplementing parts. Hence, the content analysis focused on the evaluation of the two texts in each unit, as well as the proceeding and following tasks, such as the pre-reading and post-reading activities. In addition, it also examined the preface of the books. The data were gathered at two levels: on one hand – similar to the technique of skimming – the analysis tried to identify the gist of the whole unit, i.e. the main topic; on the other hand it also scanned the particular parts of the units for more detailed and specific information. For these purposes, the strategies of both quantitative and qualitative research were combined. Concerning the evaluation criteria, she reached for Byram’s model to analyse the given materials.

The results were discussed within several sections. As to the preface of the textbooks, Juan claimed that it completely lacked the aspect of developing learners’ communicative competence. She considered it to be disappointing as, according to her, the preface is the representation of the ideology and the framework of the textbook in a nutshell.

As to the content of the texts, they mostly focused on issues of the contemporary society covering a great variety of topics, e.g. unemployment, terrorism, friendship, etc. and using mostly up-to-date sources. Concerning the leading topic of the units, i.e. the analysis for a gist, except for the category of “social and political institutions”, all the other criteria of Byram’s model were represented. When it came to the search for details, the largest proportion of information was provided on “national geography” and “socialisation and the life

phrase”; however, the criteria of “stereo types and national identity” was almost completely neglected.

Regarding pre-reading activities, with one exception, the results of the analysis for a gist and that of details corresponded with each other, showing that 72.22% of the pre-reading passages contained information on “social identity and social groups”. Post-reading tasks, except for the “points for discussion”, lacked cultural issues and were mainly concerned with improving students’ language proficiency.

Based on the findings mentioned above, Juan made some conclusions, which she referred to as advantages and disadvantages of the *New College English* textbook. Amongst the pros of the investigated material, she ranked the diverse range of topics, the realistic view of the target community, the large number of literary works, the authors’ explanations and attitudes. On the other hand, she also drew the attention to some drawbacks of the analysed textbook. One of them was the prevailing focus on the American culture and neglecting other English-speaking countries. In addition, the representation of international cultures and the learners’ home culture, i.e. Chinese, was limited. It also lacked the confrontation of various cultures, which is important in order to raise students’ awareness of the differences. Last, but not least, the primary emphasis on language proficiency did not foster the students’ cultural awareness. Therefore, Juan suggested that the future, improved version of the given textbook should include the confrontation of as many English-speaking and international cultures with the home culture as possible. In addition, the integration of cultural elements in all sections of the textbooks should be another necessary step.

In our opinion, based on Byram’s criteria, Juan managed to provide a clear view of the cultural content of the analysed textbooks. In addition, the above listed benefits and drawbacks of the investigated materials and the offered suggestions could contribute to the implementation of the cultural element in the college English teaching in China and thus to the development of intercultural language teaching.

In another study, Korean EFL textbooks were investigated from the point of view of cultural and social biases by Kim (2012). The researcher attempted to find out what social identities and social stereotypes were present in the analysed textbooks. In addition, he also investigated the representations of gender identity and gender stereotypes. Finally, he aimed at examining whether the given textbooks contained elements of multiculturalism, global community, creativity, multi-cultural society and global etiquette.

The research sample included three of the English textbooks that were most commonly used in secondary schools across South Korea. All the book were titled *Middle school English 1*; however, one of them was written by Lee et al. (2009) and published by Doosan Dong-A B., another one was developed by J. Lee et al. (2009) and published by Chunjae Education, while the third one was written by Jang et al. (2009) and the publisher was Neungyule Education.

As to the research method, quantitative and qualitative content analysis was applied. Both the visible and invisible elements of culture were examined in the three textbooks. Categories for social identification involved factors, such as gender, age, race, social class, and disability.

Races were further analysed based on various features, e.g. hair colour, skin colour, etc. and were classified as Asian, Caucasian, and African American. Genders were divided into males and females. Pictures included in the textbooks were examined from the point of view of professions and activities.

Summarising the findings of the study, it is noteworthy that women were often represented as housewives. In addition, there were almost twice more images depicting males playing sports than those featuring sporting women. The types of sports were also biased, as team sports, especially ball games were connected to men, while non-team sports were more characteristic for women. Moreover, some activities and occupations were also limited to a particular gender. Hence, these results, according to Kim, indicated that textbooks do stereotype certain gender roles and so could have a negative impact on the development of the learners' personality.

The analysis of racial bias revealed that there were a prevailing proportion of Caucasian teachers in comparison to those of Asian origin or to those of other parts of the world. Kim understood this fact as the preference of the Korean society for Caucasian teachers of English.

We appreciate that based on the findings of the research and on the suggestions of Triyoda (2010), the author of the study recommended some changes to be taken into consideration. Firstly, images in EFL textbooks should support ethnic and social diversity of both the home and target country, which should also be reflected in the names and personalities of characters. Furthermore, both genders and different age groups should be equally represented in terms of different leisure activities, occupations or family roles. Finally, appearance and emotions of the genders should not be stereotyped either. However, the study did not give an answer to the third research question, i.e. whether the analysed textbooks "contained elements of multiculturalism, global community, creativity, multi-cultural society and global etiquette based on the addition of the 7th English National Curriculum" (ibid., p. 32). Therefore, we

consider the findings of the research to be only partial and insufficient to provide a holistic view of the cultural content of the investigated materials.

In the last example of Asian studies, Liu (2012) investigated textbooks in order to identify which type and what kind of culture was present in Chinese EFL university textbooks. The materials investigated in the study consisted of eight widely used Chinese College English textbooks (four students' books and four teachers' manuals), namely *Listening and Speaking 1-4 of New Horizon College English* (NHCE), compiled by Chinese authors. However, it must be noted that the analysis focused primarily on the teachers' books, while students' books of NHCE served only as a reference, as according to the researcher the latter was not as informative as the former. Regarding the structure of the teacher's manual (similar to the student's book) it contained a sum of forty lessons, each consisting of five parts: "Audio Scripts" for listening activities, "Notes for Teachers" for language work, "Culture Notes" providing cultural information, "Key to answer" and "Key for reference" for extra information. The collected data were analysed quantitatively.

As far as the research procedure was concerned, for the purpose of the analysis, Cortazzi and Jin (1999)'s framework was applied, according to which the source of culture could be distinguished as target, international target or source culture. However, as the given model did not cater for the case of unidentifiable, non-reference origins, another category of "unidentified sources of culture" was added.

Apart from the perspective of the source of culture, the aspect of big "C" and little "c" culture was taken into consideration. The researcher established the codes for this perspective based on Chen (2004) and Lee (2009)'s concepts on the cultural themes under Big "C" and little "c", as follows:

1. Big "C" culture (12 themes): Politic, Economy, History, Geography, Literature/Art, Social norms, Education, Architecture, Sports, Music, Movie, and Science.
2. Little "c" culture category (7 themes): Food, Holiday, lifestyles, Customs, Values, Hobbies and Gestures / body language" (ibid., p.87).

The results of the analysis revealed that the cultural content in more than half of the examined textbooks fell into the category of unidentifiable sources. In addition, identified cultural content was dominated by the target culture, while international target culture and home culture were present in a very small proportion. Furthermore, the findings also demonstrated that the pre-pondering theme was little "c" of "values", whilst common little "c" topics such as food, holidays, hobbies, etc. were missing. Hence, Liu considered the lack of

information on the source of culture and the imbalanced range of cultural themes to be insufficient to foster students' ICCs; thus causing problems in situations of intercultural communication. However, we cannot completely agree on this statement, as the information on the target and home culture, as well as the range of cultural topics, i.e. the sociocultural knowledge is just one of the aspects that attention must be paid to when developing ICC. Hence, in our opinion, in order to find out whether a textbook contributes to the improvement of ICC, other issues such as the sociolinguistic and paralinguistic input must also be analysed.

On the basis of the research findings, the researcher suggested that, apart from materials focused on the target culture, NHCE textbooks should include international target culture and source culture. Also, teaching materials should comprise a large variety of both big "C" and little "c" culture themes. Moreover, according to Liu, it was advisable for the teacher's manuals to include rich cultural information and adequate methodological guidance on how to teach culture.

In spite of the thorough analysis of the given aspects and the researcher's recommendations, amongst the limitations of the study, we would mention the research sample chosen for the analysis. Even though according to the researcher, the student's books were not as informative as teacher's manuals, we do not consider the choice of the latter as the research sample to be rational; since the aim of the research was to investigate the given cultural issues in Chinese EFL university textbooks.

A current study was conducted by two Spanish researchers, Oñate and Amador (2013) who examined what role the intercultural component had played in Business English textbooks since the 1960s. In the selected materials, they studied the presence of the aspect of intercultural communication, the attention given to this concept in whole units, and how it had been taught within the lessons. Furthermore, the range of chosen cultural issues and business contexts in which they appeared were also studied. Last, but not least, the paper also investigated which cultures had been mentioned in the chosen textbooks and whether they contained any national stereotypes.

To track the development of the given aspects, a number of 67 general Business English textbooks published between 1963 and 2009 were analysed. The selected teaching materials catered for different levels of English proficiency, from beginner to upper intermediate. Categories and codes for the purpose of the analysis were established with regard to the viewpoints mentioned above. The textbooks were divided into four main groups according to the date of publishing. Thus, the first category included seven books published between 1963 and 1979.

The remaining three groups included a ratio of 20 textbooks per decade, i.e. the 1980s, 1990s, 2000s. The collected data were processed quantitatively.

Oñate and Amador interpreted the findings of the research and divided them into different sections. In the first group, i.e. books published between 1963 and 1979, cultural issues were almost completely neglected; hence, the analysis of the further aspects was impossible. As to the analysis of the second group, i.e. books from the 1980s, almost half contained some kind of intercultural element which were taught through a range of activities including reading, listening and conversational tasks. Some of the examined books even put an emphasis on paralinguistic issues related to the world of business, e.g. negotiations or meetings. The books focused mainly on the culture in the UK and the USA, but some Asian and European countries got also some attention. However, information on South America, Canada and Africa was almost completely missing.

The third group of the investigated materials, i.e. that of the books published in the 1990s proved a larger proportion of intercultural component not only in whole textbooks, but also within the units. Similar to the previous category, the intercultural aspect was fostered through the activities of reading, listening and communication. Non-verbal communication, business-related issues and principles of socialising were also dealt with. Among the countries mentioned, the UK and the USA still played a leading role; however, countries on the other continents appeared to a lesser or greater extent as well.

As to the last group of the analysed books, the 2000s could be characterised with a boom of incorporating the aspects of intercultural communication. Regarding activities through which cultural issues were introduced, no sharp differences could be highlighted in comparison with the previous groups. In addition, emphasis placed on non-verbal communication reached a similar conclusion. On the other hand, business-related issues, together with socialising, got considerable attention. Apart from the UK and the USA, Germany, Japan and China became prominent; countries, such as Poland or Sweden were also introduced, though.

Obviously, due to the considerable research sample, Oñate and Amador managed to provide a broad overview of the development of the intercultural component in Business English textbooks since the 1960s. With regard to the results that showed a significant development in integrating culture to Business English language teaching, their conclusion that current Business English textbooks increase student's cultural awareness and lead them to a respectful as well as sensitive attitude toward other cultures, seems to be relevant.

Another example of the latest studies, done by a Tunisian researcher, Melliti (2013), focused on exploring the issue of “globality” in global EFL textbooks, in terms of connectedness, inappropriacy and inclusivity. “The study raised questions about the suitability of global course-books to globally diverse learners” (ibid, p. 1). For this purpose, the methods of content analysis and questionnaire were applied. As to the research sample, the former focused on the analysis of a widely used course-book, which is known worldwide, *Headway Intermediate* (H/I), whilst the latter investigated the perception of 251 of its users at Institute Bourguiba for Living Languages (IBLV) in Tunisia. As the purpose of this study is to analyse studies focused on content analysis of the cultural content in EFL textbooks, the following part will draw attention mainly to the first phase of the research, i.e. to the analysis of H/I course-book.

Regarding the research procedures, words and pictures in the lessons of H/I “was discussed in terms of its treatment of the principles of preserving inclusivity, avoiding inappropriacy and investing in connectedness” (ibid., p. 5); these aspects actually represented the categories of the coding scheme. Within the aspect of inclusivity of minorities, codes were developed to cater for “the numbers, the roles, and the topics related to women, men, Whites, Blacks, and other diverse characters” (ibid.). The concept of inappropriacy was investigated in terms of the next issues: sex (overt mention), narcotics, isms, pork, anarchy, AIDS, Israel and six-pointed stars, racism, genetic engineering, terrorism, politics, violence, alcohol, out of marriage relationships (i.e. relations with someone other than ones’ spouse such as cohabitation, dating, boy/girlfriend), glorifying some dangers in some countries, religion, ideological icons and revealing clothes” (ibid.). With regard to connectedness “leisure activities, the issue of language and global locations” were determined as codes. It is noteworthy that only apparent examples representing the given codes were taken into consideration. The collected data were analysed both quantitatively and qualitatively.

As far as the aspect of inclusivity was concerned, findings revealed that females were mentioned less frequently than males and portrayed as women of Western cultures. In addition, some stereotypical representations appeared as well. Furthermore, in terms of numbers, roles and topics, Whites were preferred over other groups, such as Blacks, Asians, Native Americans, etc. Based on these results, Melliti assumed that global course-books failed to support the principle of inclusivity of different minorities living in today’s world.

Regarding the prospective of inappropriacy, results of the study demonstrated that controversial issues such as “sex, narcotics, anarchy, Israel and six-pointed stars, racism, genetic engineering, terrorism, isms and pork” were avoided. However, according to Melliti, the given topics could provide a

motivating source for fostering the skills argumentation. Furthermore, the findings also revealed that the three topics politics, violence and AIDS were treated with caution. The researcher explained this fact by the general aim of publishers not to lose markets, thus hindering cultural awareness of the learners from different parts of the world. On the other side, H/I did cater for controversial topics, such as alcoholic beverages, revealing clothes, out of marriage relationships like dating and cohabitation, dealing with some dangers in particular countries, religion and celebrating specific ideological icons.

Within the category of connectedness, the researcher interpreted the following results. The majority of the leisure activities was connected with travelling and sports that, according to Melliti, could be considered as an attitude of the publishers towards safe topics; yet, reading between the lines, the signs of ethnocentric orientation could be noticed. Examining the issue of the language variety, H/I could be characterised by the pre-dominant position of Standard British English and everyday English, neglecting other geographical and social varieties, including American English. In addition, the obvious dominance of the Western locations, such as Europe, Australia and America in H/I also manifests – consciously or unconsciously – the idea of ethnocentricity.

Based on the findings of the content analysis, supported by the results of the questionnaire, Melliti's conclusion seems to be realistic; for he considered H/I to be global in terms of connectedness, inappropriacy, but only partially global with regard to inclusivity. Furthermore, the researcher's recommendation to produce locally designed course-books corresponds with the idea that "the intercultural element" in FL education draws the attention to the home culture and the home language, and therefore it must be also reflected in the materials used for language teaching (Corbett, 2003; Kramsch, 1998).

Summary

We have drawn our conclusions based upon the findings displayed in Tables 1 - 2. However, it must be noted that during the process of the analysis, we decided not to include the examples of categories set by the researchers as there was not enough place in the chart to involve them due to their extensive character. Therefore, they are provided within the description of the studies.

To summarise the principal features of the analysed studies, we have decided to answer the research questions one by one.

1. What cultural issues are investigated in the selected FL textbooks, i.e. what was the focus of the analysis?

Looking at the list of cultural issues in Table 1, we can claim that the selected studies focused on a range of different aspects. The most frequently examined

perspectives include “gender representation and stereotypes” (4 studies), “social identification and stereotypes” (3 studies). Issues, such as “type of culture”, “developing ICC”, range of cultural topics, “development of integrating cultural aspect in FL textbooks” were present in two studies each. Individually examined topics involved “methods of teaching culture”, “image of the target country”, “big C and little c culture” and “globality”.

2. Did the researchers conduct qualitative content analysis or its quantitative counterpart? Are there any studies combining the two approaches?

Based upon the findings, we can state that the majority, i.e. six of the examined studies, used a combination of qualitative and quantitative content analysis; however, exclusively quantitative approach was applied in three cases and in one example the data were analysed only qualitatively.

3. Were the examples of the content analyses supplemented by other research methods?

Despite the recommendation of numerous researchers, only two studies tried to verify the results of the content analysis by using other research methods as well. One of them was the research focusing on the “globality” of Headway Intermediate, with the researchers opting for a questionnaire, which was answered by 251 of its users. Byram (1989) investigated the diversity of topics, image of the target country and stereotypes by the triangulation of content analysis, observation and interviews.

4. What information is provided about the sample and the units of analysis? Did the researchers use suggested checklist/s? If yes, which one/s?

We can assume that the majority of the studies (eight) analysed FL textbooks used by adolescents and young adults, as four of them investigated upper-secondary school textbooks, three examined university or college books and one was concerned with business textbooks, which can be also ranked among materials for more mature learners. Only two of the examples focused on FL textbooks used at lower levels, one at elementary and one at lower-secondary education.

Apart from the aspect of learners’ age, eight studies investigated the cultural content in English as foreign language textbooks. The remaining two conducted analysis of a ‘French as foreign language’ textbook and another one focused on the development of the cultural aspect in textbooks of different languages.

As to the units of analysis, the units of analysis included words, sentences, dialogues, illustrations, sections of the units, units as a whole, and each textbook as a whole.

As far as the use of checklists is concerned, eight researchers developed their own coding scheme according to the aspect they were investigating. In two cases, the model of source, target and international target cultures suggested by Cortazzi and Jin (1999) was applied. In addition, Byram's model (1993) and Risager's checklist (1991) were also used.

5. *What were the conclusions of the researchers based upon the results? Did the selected materials adequately represent the investigated issue?*

In the majority of the studies, researchers expressed their complete or partial dissatisfaction and disappointment about the results of the analysis. Only in one case was the content of the textbook evaluated positively with regard to the research aim, as the Japanese upper secondary-school English textbook, titled "Birdland Oral Communication I" catered for an equal representation of genders. The other optimistic view was expressed by the Spanish researchers, Oñate and Amador (2013), concerning the significant development in integrating culture to Business English textbooks.

The most frequently mentioned deficiencies included the insufficient support of improving learners' intercultural competences, the dominant and almost exclusive focus on the target culture, usually American, gender and social stereotyping, passive and only cognitive learning of culture, etc.

To sum up, based upon the negative opinions expressed by the researchers, we have the impression that there is still a lot to do in the field of textbook development, to which analysis of the cultural content of currently used textbooks can contribute to a large extent. However, in order to come up with relevant suggestions and recommendations, the carefully planned and conducted process of content analysis, as well as the objective interpretation of the results, is of particular significance. Drawing on the limitations found during the analysis of the presented studies, researchers should pay attention mostly to the selection of the appropriate research sample and the establishing of the units of analysis, as well as the development of categories and codes. No less important is to avoid exaggerating statements and overgeneralisations in case of analysing only a few aspects of the particular area.

As to the diversity of the investigated issues, it would be advisable to focus on aspects of the ICC, which are less frequently investigated; for instance, none of the ten studies investigated the paralinguistic or sociolinguistic input in FL textbooks. Furthermore, it would be important to pay attention to the cultural content used at nursery, primary and lower secondary schools. As recommended by numerous scholars (Dörnyei, 2007; Flick, 2010) the results of the content analysis should be contrasted to the findings of other methods, such observation,

interviews or questionnaires addressed to the users of the given textbook. Finally, despite the dominance of English language as “lingua franca”, textbooks of other languages should be investigated to a larger extent.

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APPENDIX

Table 1 Principal features of the analysed studies 1

| Name of the researcher/ country of the research | Cultural Issue/ Focus | Quan | Qual | Other methods | Sample |
|----------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|------|------|----------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Byram/England | range of topics, image of the target country, stereotyping | ✓ | ✓ | interviews and observations of teachers and pupils | first three volumes of lower secondary French textbook titled "Action! Graded French" |
| Risager /Sweden | development of incorporating the intercultural component in FL textbooks | ✓ | ✓ | X | textbooks used for the elementary level in Sweden since the 1950s (different languages) |
| Aliakbari /Iran | type of culture/developin g ICC | ✓ | X | X | four levels of Iranian upper- secondary textbook "English book" |
| Mineshima/ Japan | sexism | ✓ | ✓ | X | Japanese upper secondary-school English textbook, "Birdland Oral Communication I" |
| Si Thang Kiet Ho /Vietnam | the way of teaching culture | X | ✓ | X | a unit dealing with the topic of family (Jones, 2002) in a Speaking course and lesson focused on food and drinks (Thai & Duong, 1998) in a British Culture course |
| Juan /China | range of cultural topics/developin g ICC | ✓ | ✓ | X | the first four volumes of "New College English" used Tianjin Polytechnic University |
| Kim/South Korea | social identification and stereotypes(gend er, age, race, social class, and disability) | ✓ | ✓ | X | three English textbooks most commonly used in South Korean secondary schools |

| | | | | | |
|-------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------|---|---|--------------------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Liu/China | type of culture/big “C” and little “c” culture | ✓ | X | X | 8 (4 students’ books and 4 teachers’ manuals), Listening and Speaking 1-4 of New Horizon College English (NHCE). |
| Oñate and Amador /Spain | the development of the cultural aspect in FL textbooks | ✓ | X | X | 67 general Business English textbooks published between 1963 and 2009 |
| Melliti/Tunis | “globality”: connectedness, inappropriacy and inclusivity | ✓ | ✓ | questionnaire 251 of H/I users | Headway Intermediate |

Table 2 Principal features of the analysed studies 2

| Name of the researcher/ country of the research | Units of analysis | Checklist/models | Conclusions/implications |
|----------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Byram/England | sections of the units of the textbook, the whole textbook | X | wide range of topics, too positive, unrealistic image, no stereotypes; |
| Risager /Sweden | the whole textbook | Risager’s model (1991) | common features: same elements of the sociocultural focus, under-presented emotions and subjectivity of characters, objective, neutral style; development: egalitarian representation of both sexes, individualisation, more authentic pictures, more diverse topics; |
| Aliakbari /Iran | sentences in the vocabulary and reading sections in each unit | Cortazzi and Jin’s model (1999) | insufficient support of developing ICC |
| Mineshima/ Japan | sections of the units of the textbook, the whole textbook, dialogues | X | equal manifestation of genders |

| | | | |
|---------------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Si Thang Kiet Ho /Vietnam | sections of the units of the textbook, the whole unit | X | teaching culture passively; a model to efficiently develop learners' intercultural competences was proposed by the researcher. |
| Juan /China | sections of the units of the textbook, the whole textbook | Byram's model (1993) | insufficient support of developing ICC, wide range of cultural topics, dominance of the American culture, lack of source and other cultures; |
| Kim/South Korea | sections of the units of the textbook, the whole textbook | X | textbooks do stereotype certain gender roles and prefer Caucasian teachers of English |
| Liu/China | sections of the units of the textbook, the whole textbook | Cortazzi and Jin (1999)'s model | lack of information on the source of culture, insufficient international target culture imbalanced range of cultural themes; |
| Oñate and Amador /Spain | sections of the units of the textbook, the whole textbook | X | significant development in integrating culture to Business English language teaching |
| Melliti/Tunis | words and pictures in the lessons of the units of the textbook, the whole textbook | X | only partial globality, production of locally designed course-books suggested by the author; |

Conceptual Metonymy in the Speech Act of Request

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Abstract

Based on the theoretical background from pragmatics and cognitive linguistics, this paper describes the role of conceptual metonymy in the two linguistic branches mentioned. Drawing on a corpus of written answers to a discourse scenario, the aim of the paper is to examine whether, and if yes — to what extent, conceptual metonymy forms the basis for the realisation of the speech act of request in the Serbian and English languages respectively. In order to answer the questions posed, the collected data have been analysed with the usage of a taxonomy of (in)directness, which linked the notions of metonymic nature — indirectness — politeness, and the final results have undoubtedly shown an overlap between pragmatics and cognitive linguistics in the process of speech acts' realisation, i.e. in the process of thinking and speaking.

Key words

pragmatics, cognitive linguistics, conceptual metonymy, speech act of request

1 Introduction

1.1 Thoughts & utterances

The relationship between what we think and what we utter is a complex one. The operations included in the process of the interpretation of language production are equally important for pragmatics and cognitive linguistics, and are thus the subject of research of both of these linguistic disciplines.

A human being, on the basis of acquired linguistic and general knowledge, can understand and/or produce lingual utterances. One of the basic cognitive linguistics principles is the principle of interrelationship between language and cognitive processes, such as: thinking, concluding, assuming and, finally, metonymic and metaphorical mapping. It can be said that language is governed by general cognitive processes, so that lingual realisations, actually reveal the way in which our conceptual system functions.

Cognitive linguistics neglects the *true* — *false* polarity and believes that conceptual experience forms the basis for human acquisition of new concepts; the mentioned experience is, above all, a corporeal one and the acquired knowledge is being structured in the so-called *Idealised Cognitive Models* — *ICM* (Lakoff, 1987). According to Langacker (1987), Taylor (1995) and other cognitive linguists, cognitive domain bears the characteristics of *encyclopaedic* domain,

which means that it encompasses all the knowledge the speaker possesses of a certain area of endeavour. For successful human communication, it is necessary that interlocutors share encyclopaedic domains of similar content, i.e. that their prior knowledge of conceptual world is similar enough, so that understanding of mutual communication is enabled.

At the same time, in the focus of pragmatics there is *implicature* (which inferential pragmatics, based on Grice's postulates, perceives as a group of maxims, principles or heuristics, which enable inference itself, but do not say much about its nature, however), which represents the conclusions about what has not been said in a specific utterance; implicature, at the same time, is conditioned not only by contextual, but by extra-linguistic knowledge as well, which, given the above-mentioned in mind, does form the beginning of the shared field of interest between pragmatics and cognitive linguistics.

Namely, *Relevance Theory* has given the conclusion that metonymy lies in the foundation of every conversational implicature and illocutionary force (Ruiz de Mendoza & Baicchi, 2007), though the metonymic activity had previously been neglected, for a long time (in the literature related to pragmatics), and considered as a mainly cognitive linguistics' phenomenon of a referential nature. Be that as it may, in order to reach the nature of reference, i.e. the process of implicature performance itself, metonymic operations cannot be avoided, since the understanding of metonymy is necessary for discourse cohesion.

Within the mentioned theoretical frame of the two linguistic disciplines, namely, pragmatics and cognitive linguistics, the aim of this paper is to examine the way in which the two disciplines, via conceptual metonymy, overlap and the way in which this overlapping, i.e. interaction, leaves traces in discourse, namely, the speech act of request in the English and Serbian language.

Starting from the assumption that metonymy forms the basis for all indirect speech acts, the main goal of this paper is to, using the current pragmatic taxonomy of (in)direct strategies, show the extent in which the speech act of request is expressed in an indirect way in the Serbian and English languages respectively and, at the same time, how often metonymic relations are used by the interlocutors, with the aim of achieving successful communication flow.

1.2 Conceptual metonymy

Since ancient times, the phenomenon of metonymy has been well known, firstly in rhetoric and literature within which, as a major trope (later a figure of speech), performed the function of *a change of name*, which, actually, is the very meaning of the term itself. Much time later, metonymy, along with metaphor, has become the leading tool for the mapping of relations in cognitive linguistics,

where its function has remained, almost, the same as it used to be once, during ancient times; it, namely, even within the borders of cognitive linguistics, serves as a tool for the relations of changing one term (name) for another.

There is a generally accepted opinion in cognitive linguistics that metonymy represents the mapping within the same experiential domain or conceptual structure (Lakoff & Turner, 1989; Ruiz de Mendoza, 2000; Taylor, 1995). Nevertheless, metonymic mappings do not appear randomly, they are, on the contrary, systematically arranged, in the form of conceptual metonymies (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980); to be more precise, a logical relationship between the notions/concepts is a necessary one.

Namely, cognitive linguistics perceives language pursuant to a postulate, according to which the pieces of information are formed as structured areas or concepts, where real-life scenes are being elaborated in a way preconditioned by language background, i.e. the language conventions typical for a specific language community. This is also, in consent with the mentioned notion of Idealized Cognitive Model (ICM), introduced by Lakoff (1987), who used this new term, for what Fillmore had previously named *frames*. Metaphor and metonymy are capable, by focusing on a specific part of a concept, within an ICM, to transfer/map some information using the language content, which can be named, according to traditional nomenclature, figurative.

It is typical for each metonymic mapping that there are *target* (T) and *source* (S) domains, which are parts of the same conceptual domain, so that different kinds of mapping are possible within such an organisation of concepts: whole for part, part for whole, etc.

1.3 Speech acts (and their place in cognitive linguistics)

One of the most important pragmatic concepts is *Speech Act Theory*. Names to be mentioned here are, in the first place, Austin and Searle, the former of whom identified the utterances which he called *performatives*, by which we, at the same time, do/perform what we say (1962). The mentioned author suggested a three-part frame of classification: *Locution* — the words the speaker utters, i.e. literal meaning of the utterance; *Illocution* — the force of the utterance, i.e. what the speaker wants the utterance to make; *Perlocution* — the effect the utterance produces on the hearer. For Austin, the most important part of the frame is illocution, since it bears the illocutionary force, which is, in some number of cases, explicit.

In terms of illocution, it is important to mention the division of speech acts into *direct* and *indirect* ones. Direct speech acts can be defined as those utterances in which there is conformity between communicative function on one

side, and the type of sentence, performative verb or other indicator of the function on the other side. Indirect speech acts, on the other hand, are those utterances in which there is no conformity between the intended communicative function and sentence type, performative verb or other illocutionary indicator.

So, for example, the utterance: *Can you bring me some water?* is in the form of a question, but, actually, bears the illocutionary force of the speech act of request, regardless of its interrogative form, which is unlike the following: *I request a glass of water from you.* Moreover, an utterance is not necessarily in the form of a sentence, in order for it to transmit the illocutionary force, e.g.: *If you would be so kind to come...* (addressed to a waiter in a restaurant), instead of: *I request that you come here.*

Since cognitive approach relies on the *Prototype Theory* (Rosch, 1978), where, within the same category, there are members whose interrelation is not equal (some of them are better representatives of a certain category), the inner structure of speech acts can also be seen as a prototypical category, where each illocutionary type can be prototypically evaluated. Marmaridou (2000) gave an interesting suggestion regarding this kind of evaluation of speech acts, namely, she proposed that speech acts should form their own ICM, within which there would be prototypical and peripheral representatives. In the case of speech acts, prototypical representatives could be performative verbs, such as: *order, demand, beg, proclaim...*, whereas peripheral representatives would be indirect speech acts.

1.4 Speech act of request — from pragmatic theory to practice

Speech actions, which, within their intention, bear somewhat altered behaviour of the addresser, Searle named *directive speech acts* (Searle, 1969). There are a few types of directives: requests, apologies, threats, pieces of advice, offers, etc., and all of them have the illocutionary force of different strength. The speech act of request has a strong illocutionary force, somewhere between an order, on one side, and a plea, on the other side.

The phenomenon of *face* plays an important role in the realisation of the speech act of request. Namely, all human beings, in all the cultures of the world, do possess the quality termed face, i.e. the positive identity of themselves (Brown & Levinson, 1978, 1987). Decades ago, Brown and Levinson saw the notions of face and *politeness* (as the realisation of respect towards someone's face) as important, if not the most important, factors for controlling the way people communicate. With regards to face, the two authors noticed two aspects of human emotions related to face and these are *negative and positive face*; the former is the wish of an individual not to be imposed by others and the latter is

the wish of an individual to be praised and respected by others. Complementary to the two dimensions of face, pragmatic theorists have introduced two dimensions of politeness as well — *positive and negative politeness*.

Brown and Levinson also established three factors that define the realisation of face among interlocutors: *Power* (vertical distance between the interlocutors), *Distance* (horizontal distance between the interlocutors) and the *Rate of imposition* discussed about. It is important to pinpoint that these factors played an important role in the production of the questionnaire for the purposes of this paper as well.

It is well known that there are speech actions, and, among them, speech acts, which, in social interaction, have a stronger potential to threaten someone's face than the others; these speech acts are *face-threatening acts* and include, but are not limited to, the following: apologies, critics, requests, orders, suggestions.

The speech act of request has been widely examined in cross-cultural research of pragmatics, mainly through the eyes of politeness. Though Brown and Levinson advocated the universal character of politeness, which, in one way or another, has been proved to be part of each world's culture and customs, the way and rate according to which the speakers of world languages minimise threats of face-threatening speech acts, nonetheless, vary from language to language.

Brown and Levinson's research (1978, 1987) found that politeness phenomenon occurred in three unrelated languages: English, Mayan, and Tamil (a South Indian language). The research has shown that humans in every culture share a very broad set of polite linguistic conventions for mitigating the force of speech acts and that these linguistic mechanisms serve the same interactional and social purpose.

Then, House and Kasper (1981) studied the relative politeness of utterances in German and English. They measured politeness by having native English and German speakers role-play two types of delicate international situations — complaints and requests. Eventually — they concluded that compared to British speakers, German speakers were significantly less polite in the situations and tended to use more aggressive constructions.

Blum-Kulka and House (1989) compared native speakers of Hebrew, Canadian French, Argentinean Spanish, Australian English, and German, finding distinctive cross-cultural differences. Argentinean Spanish speakers were the most direct, followed by the speakers of Hebrew. Australian English were the least direct speakers. Of intermediate levels of directness were French Canadians and Germans.

The CCSARP is perhaps the most extensive empirical investigation of cross-cultural pragmatics. CCSARP stands for the *Cross-Cultural Speech Act Realization*

Project. It was set to investigate cross-cultural and inter-lingual variations in the speech acts of requests and apologies. This study involved seven languages, including English, French, Danish and Hebrew (Blum-Kulka, 1982).

Shoshana Blum-Kulka (1987) spoke about the relationship between indirectness and politeness. She introduced the terms of conventional and nonconventional indirectness and added that the term of politeness should be related to the former but not necessarily to the latter form of indirectness she proposed. Two years later (1989), Shoshana Blum-Kulka did a major cross-cultural research with requests and apologies as the subject of the research. For the purposes of that research, a taxonomy was made — which would later become one of the most used taxonomies for similar pragmatic studies (and will be defined below).

Differences in requesting strategies in English and Polish were studied by Wierzbicka (1985). This study was based on the assumption that differences between these two languages in requesting strategies appeared due to differences in cultural norms existing between the two communities: English requesting strategies depend heavily on the usage of interrogative, and avoid the usage of bare imperatives to a great extent. Polish, on the other hand, would rarely use interrogatives to convey requests; interrogatives in Polish are largely associated with hostility and alienation.

2 Data and Methods of Research

2.1 Data

In the research, conducted for the purposes of this paper, academics from universities in Serbia and Great Britain participated. There were 60 of them, 30 per language, both included males and females; all the participants were informed that the data would remain anonymous and they all voluntarily accepted to be part of the research. In gathering the data, a *Discourse Completion Test* (DCT) was used. Adapted in 1982 by Blum-Kulka, for the purpose of investigating speech acts, the DCT is a questionnaire containing a set of briefly described situations designed to elicit a particular speech act. Subjects read each situation and respond to a prompt in writing.

In this paper, DCT is composed of one speech action, i.e. scenario. The examinees answered to a scenario, which described the interlocutors who knew each other and whose social status was equal. When composing the test, the rate of imposition did not play a major role as did the factors of power and distance, but it is worth mentioning that the rate was not at a significant level, i.e. that the potential threat for the hearer's face was as much minimised as possible. The

examinees gave their answers in written form and the goal of the DCT was to elicit the speech act of request.

The scenario from the DCT was as follows:

Your friend is going shopping to a shopping centre, rather far from your home, but you cannot join him. So, you want to ask him to do you a favour and do some shopping for you, too. YOU SAY: ...

2.2 Data Analysis

The data collected through the Discourse Completion Test was analysed. This analysis was based on an independent examination of each response. The different situations may elicit 9 different request strategies listed in order of directness, with the first one being the most direct and the ninth one being the most indirect, as follows:

- Mood derivable
- Explicit performative
- Hedged performative
- Obligation statement (Locution derivable)
- Want statement (Scope stating)
- Suggestory formulae
- Query preparatory (Preparatory condition)
- Strong hints
- Mild hints (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989).

3 Results of the analysis and discussion

Prior to presenting the results of the analysis, we shall provide an example, per each of the possible nine strategies for the realisation of the speech act of request, for easier data decoding:

- | | |
|--------------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| 1) Mood derivable | <i>Go and buy some apples for me!</i> |
| 2) Explicit performative | <i>I order you to move!</i> |
| 3) Hedged performative | <i>I have to ask you to sit down.</i> |
| 4) Obligation statement | <i>Sir, you will have to move your car.</i> |
| 5) Want statement | <i>I really do want you to stop singing.</i> |
| 6) Suggestory formulae | <i>What about cleaning our room today?</i> |
| 7) Query preparatory | <i>Can you buy a pair of shoes for me, too?</i> |
| 8) Strong hint | <i>You have left the kitchen in a real mess.</i> |
| 9) Mild hint | <i>"I am allergic to sun." (says a girl to a friend who insists on sunbathing)</i> |

The results of the analysis have shown that the dominant strategy, among the answers we have collected, in both the languages, is *Query Preparatory*. This

strategy is characterised as a question, which should be understood as a request, by the hearer (mostly in the form of *Can I/Can you; Could I/Could you...*).

More than 90% of requests, in both the groups of examinees, expressed through the usage of the Query Preparatory strategy, were in the form of e.g. *Can you buy me...* In this form of question, we can clearly see that the request itself is oriented towards the hearer (*Can YOU buy ME...*), as opposed to the rest of the answers/requests from the data (only few of them), where the question was posed in the form of e.g. *Can I ask you...*, i.e. where it was oriented towards the speaker (*Can I ask YOU...*), which is a more polite way of addressing.

As it has been proved in previous research, there is a very productive metonymic mapping in the English language, when it comes to the usage of indirect requests; that is the so-called *potentiality for actuality* (Panther & Thornburg, 2003) mapping, the most obvious in a standard polite request: *Can you pass me the water?*

In this case the potentiality itself (i.e. the ability of the speaker to perform a part of a scenario) has been put in the role of the real request fulfilment; it, namely metonymically, represents the part of the concept, which is in the middle of the speaker's attention.

The same applies to the Serbian language, according to the results of the analysis of the data gathered for the purposes of this paper. Query Preparatory itself, actually, bears this type of metonymic mapping; namely, the metonymic relationship of this kind forms the basis for understanding of a speech act of this kind.

Regardless, we have to mention that the minority of answers, which were not in the form of Query Preparatory, were expressed through the strategy of *Mood Derivable*, with the usage of imperative, e.g. *Buy me...* In examples like these, the illocutionary force of speech acts is explicit — it is quite clear what the speaker wants from the hearer. According to the above-mentioned opinion of Marmaridou (2000), a speech act realised in this way is not a prototypical one, since it does not consist of a performative verb (to be more precise, only the strategies of *Hedged Performative* and *Explicit Performative* can be considered as prototypical ones; however, those were not found in the data analysed), but is, then again, far more peripheral than the dominant one of Query Preparatory.

Finally, the data analysis revealed the usage of one more strategy, which is the strategy of *Strong Hint*, in both languages were very rarely used (5 occurrences in Serbian and only 2 in English). In respect of this strategy, we found the patterns like: *I also need some supplies...* In this way, the speaker gives a hint to the hearer that he wants the hearer to do something for him. This strategy is actually the most distant from the illocutionary centre, thus its illocutionary

force is the least transparent, but, with the implementation of conceptual metonymy, the hearer can properly define the message sent by the speaker.

With regards to the above-mentioned notions, Panther and Thornburg (2003) introduced the *Action Scenario*, composed of three phases: *before*, *immediate result*, *after*. Each of the phases relating to the action (activity) bears a metonymic relationship with the whole, so that each phase alone, can stand for the whole scenario. In an utterance such as: *I can lend you some money, I have got plenty of it*, the possibility itself, in this case expressed by the verb *can*, stands for the speech act of offer (the *before* phase stands for the whole action scenario, i.e. speech act).

The Action Scenario can be applied to all speech acts. We can also find it in the answers we have collected and analysed. The examples which appeared in the form of *Can you/Can I...* (Query Preparatory) do not only represent the metonymic relationship *potentiality for actuality (realisation)*, but at the same time, they can be perceived as the *before* phase of the action scenario, which here, stands for the whole speech act of request. Analogically observed, the strategy of Strong Hint, which, nevertheless, did not prove to be productive in the data we analysed, does function as a part of the action scenario, e.g. the utterances like: *I also need some things from the supermarket...* can be seen as the *after* phase of the action scenario, which, again, stands for the speech act of request. At the same time, this strategy can be explained as a metonymic relationship *necessity for realisation*, where the verb *need* emphasises the need to perform the action that follows. For the examples using the strategy Mood Derivable, where the illocutionary force of the speech act is explicitly realised, though without the usage of a performative verb, we can see that they do represent the *immediate result* phase, which stands for the whole act.

4 Conclusion

The results of the analysis of the gathered data have shown that speakers of Serbian and English, in the realisation of the speech act or request, opt for conventional indirectness, in the vast majority of cases. Metonymic relationships form part of this kind of addressing, which would otherwise be impossible to understand. Namely, conceptual metonymy serves as the basis of scenarios, in the background of some indirect speech acts — here in the realisation of the speech act of request, and thus enables a faster interchange of information in the process of communication.

Since the majority of the answers provided were expressed in the form of Query Preparatory strategy, where the metonymic mapping *potentiality for actuality*, was applied, it can be said that this kind of mapping, on the sample of

English and Serbian, has proved to be a typologically universal and very productive. As we could also see throughout the analysis and discussion, other, less-used strategies, bore metonymic mapping, within themselves, as well.

From the abovementioned, we can see that the examinees have shown a high level of indirectness, in direct contact with the usage of metonymy, and a certain level of distance towards the hearer/interlocutor, regardless of the explanation, in the DCT itself, that the interlocutors are familiar with each other and that their social status is equal.

The metonymic effect used is a characteristic of many pragmatically framed semantic contents, and thus can be seen in the situations where it is necessary to introduce the so-called *politeness effect*. At the same time, it is typical that the distance of the peripheral element, within the concept, which is being metonymically mapped onto the target message (to be transmitted), is equivalent to the distance in the social surrounding, what makes the *face-saving* mechanism. It is sure that relations like these (conceptual metonymy — indirectness — politeness) are culturally and socially conditioned, and that the situation is not the same in all languages.

Then again, the subjects in this research, the speakers of English and Serbian, probably in a subconscious way, have shown that they, in the first place, share very similar patterns of addressing, when it comes to the speech act of request, and that they do pay attention to the notion face of their interlocutors, which leads us to the fact that we can perceive their communication as polite, and thus it becomes clear that a merely cognitive linguistics tool has been used for accomplishing indirectness and politeness, which are merely pragmatic phenomena. At this place we can conclude that pragmatics, basically, *copies* and applies the approach of cognitive linguistics, while, by choosing certain parts of a scenario, i.e. indirect speech act, transferring the key part of the information (indirectly), neglecting, at the same time, the principle of literality, as a possible basis of human interaction.

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Views on Translation by Selected Polish Writers of the Enlightenment

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Abstract

The article presents views on translation expressed by selected Polish eighteenth century writers. Debate on translation includes issues regarding translating prose and poetry. Polish writers provide guidelines how to render proverbs, borrowings or anachronisms, whether to focus on transferring the meaning or on following words. The notion of genius in translation is thoroughly discussed and the act of imitation severely criticised. Finally conclusions are drawn.

Key words

views on translation, Polish writers of the Enlightenment Age, translation of prose, translation of poetry, free translation method vs. word-for-word translation method.

1 Introduction

Nowadays, as the access to the Internet and various technological facilities such as a computer, has been so wide, a translator happens to be a person who can skilfully use his/her IT knowledge for the purposes of translation. Today, one can hardly imagine a translator who works without a computer relying exclusively on his own mental and dictionary capabilities. As far as dictionaries are concerned, paper ones are superseded by online dictionaries, which are far more convenient to use and, most importantly, need very little space. To confirm this statement, I can provide an observation I made among my students of the translation class as an example. During the translation classes, I usually encourage my students to bring dictionaries. As a result, the majority of students come equipped with electronic devices and a student with a paper dictionary is definitely in the minority.

It seems that a contemporary translator has to be an IT specialist and a businessman who is responsible for managing his/her own translation activity. He/she is the one to attract customers, to invest in advertising, to rent an office or set up his/her own freelance business.

When it comes to methodology of translation, there still lingers an erroneous view that the work of a translator is simple, easy and fun. This opinion is especially favoured by laymen who believe that there is absolutely no difficulty in

replacing one word in the source language for another word in the target language. On the surface, the work of a translator seems deprived of stress, although more often than not a translator works upon tremendous stress of meeting unfeasible deadlines. The world rushes forward, so are challenges and requirements imposed on translators.

What was the work of a translator like in the past? Was it any easier or more difficult then? How did translators cope without computers? This article is an attempt to provide answers to the above-mentioned questions.

2 Prose translation

2.1 Translation of meaning vs. translation word for word

In order to reproduce a portrait of the eighteenth century translator in Poland, one should turn to essays on translation drawn up in the 'Enlightenment Age'. Translation was the subject of discussion by contemporary writers who willingly shared their opinions in this regard. Debate among writers frequently oscillated on suitable/unsuitable translation methods. The main dominant tendencies were: translation word for word and free translation.

In the 18th century, the theory of translation was triggered and shaped just by views expressed by various writers and it can be said that thanks to their opinions on translation the theory emerged and started evolving. Although it was just a humble beginning, it is worth emphasising that the direction it was following was appropriate. Franciszek Bohomolec (1720-1784) was of the opinion that:

„(...)nie na słowa, ale na rzecz w tłumaczeniu oglądać się należy. To sztuka, to chwalebne tłumaczenie, kiedy ja myśl autora gładko i żywo wyrażę, choć innymi daleko słowy. (...) Tak tłumaczyć jest tłumaczyć mądrze i rozumnie; do słów zaś przywiązywać się jest tłumaczyć po dziecinnemu i niewolniczemu” [Eng: (...) not to words but to meaning one should turn in translation. This is the art and translation worth praising when I express the author's thoughts smoothly, although via completely different words. (...) Such translation is a wise translation; sticking to words too closely is childish and slavish translation] (translated by Agnieszka Kałużna) (Balcerzan 1977, p. 71).

Bohomolec understood that translation cannot be restricted to mere replacement of words and that words are not enough to transfer the meaning. He was far from slavish translation method in which the translator was a hostage to

the words. Words seem important on the surface, however, when one gets closer, it becomes obvious the most significant thing is the meaning. Such a translation that reflects the meaning of the original, according to Bohomolec, is wise, and clinging to words too much is childish.

Bohomolec was not alone in his opinions on the necessity to transfer the meaning, not the words. One of his protagonists was Ignacy Krasicki (1735-1801) who supported a free translation method in the following way:

„(...)do myśli, a nie do słów autora przywiązywać się powinien tłumacz” [Eng: to the author's thoughts, not words a translator should turn] (translated by Agnieszka Kałużna) (Balcerzan, 1977, p. 74);

Prawy tłumacz przeistoczyć się powinien w tłumaczonego (...) łatwiej to uczuć można niżeli wyrazić” [Eng: Righteous translator should transform into the translated (...) it is easier to feel than to express] (translated by Agnieszka Kałużna) (Balcerzan, 1977, p. 75).

Krasicki, apart from praising free translation method, provided guidelines how to translate in the right way. His view was that the translator should try to feel reality of the source text and transfer his feelings and emotions into the target text. Simultaneously, Krasicki strongly criticised the method of translating word for word and had no mercy for literal translators:

„(...) tłumacze albo naśladowcy przywiązujący się szczególnie do słów sprawiedliwie nazwani są od Horacjusza bydłęcą trzodą” [Eng: translators or imitators attaching particularity to words are fairly called after Horace the cattle herd] (translated by Agnieszka Kałużna) (Balcerzan, 1977, p. 75).

It is plain to see that translation was the issue that provoked extreme emotions in writers such as Krasicki. In a similar vein, Adam Kazimierz Czartoryski (1734-1823) expressed himself:

„Tłumaczyć literalnie to wokabularz spisywać; tłumaczyć mylnie jest to myśli przeistaczać” [Eng: Translating in a literal way equals listing words in a dictionary; translating erroneously equals transforming thoughts] (translated by Agnieszka Kałużna) (Balcerzan, 1977, p. 89).

Czartoryski explained where the catch was when translating word for word as follows:

„Dosłowni tłumacze i ich obrońcy najczęściej niesmaczność wykładów swoich starają się krasić i wymawiać wiernością nieodstępną oryginałowi; lecz nie zastanawiają się nad tym, że słowa też same we dwóch językach różnią się jednak między sobą, co do zupełności tożsamesgo znaczenia” [Eng: Literal translators and their defenders try most frequently to find suitable excuses to explain that they have to be faithful to the original. What they do not take into account is the fact that the same words do not equal the same meaning in two languages] (translated by Agnieszka Kałużna) (Balcerzan, 1977, p. 91).

Why was he not tolerant towards literal translators? Perhaps at that time, they happened too often? The question remains unanswered.

In the 18th century, incidents occurred in which a translator rendered a text not knowing the source language. For instance, someone who knew Latin decided to translate from Greek. As a result, the translator without the knowledge of the source language tried to be slavishly faithful to the words in translation, perhaps with the assistance of dictionaries simply because it must have been very difficult to express a meaning of the language the translator did not know. Today such an approach seems unbelievable, however the past witnessed such cases unfortunately. Perhaps that was the reason why Krasicki and Czartoryski were so critical towards literal translation method? To confirm the statement that such cases had taken place, let turn us to words by Bernard Domasławski: „Głupi (...) kto języka nie umie, a książkę tłumaczy” [Eng: Silly (...) is the one who does not know a language and translates a book] (translated by Agnieszka Kałużna) (Balcerzan, 1977, p. 81).

The problem of the literal and word-for-word translation method was discussed by Polish writers quite frequently. A similar view to Czartoryski was shared by the poet Euzebiusz Słowacki (1772-1814) who tried to explain why translating in a too-literal way did not add fame to the translator:

„Jedne języki w użyciu przenośni są śmielsze, bojaźliwsze drugie, każda mowa ma pewne przysłowia, pewne upoważnione zwyczajem, w których się wzajemnie rozumiemy: i dlatego niepodobna słownie tłumaczyć z jednego języka na drugi” [Eng: Some languages are bolder in using metaphors than other ones, each language has its specific proverbs and customs understood by the native people; that

is why, it is impossible to translate word for word from one language into another] (translated by Agnieszka Kałużna) (Balcerzan, 1977, p. 126).

Ignacy Włodek (1723-1780) was the writer who not only supported the idea of transferring the sense of the original and not particular words, but also provided guidelines how to translate in an appropriate way:

„Tłumaczenie powinno być rzetelne nie co do słów, ale co do rzeczy i sposobu opisanja, ile język ów, którym się pisze, przypuścić może. (...) do rzetelności jeszcze należy: nic nie przydać ze swego, nic nie ująć z tego, co się tłumaczy (...) ma uważać na rzecz i na wyrażenie rzeczy, żeby z tąż pięknoscią wydawało się w języku drugim jak i w pierwszym” [Eng: The translation should be reliable, not to the words, but to the meaning and the way of translating (...) reliance in translation means that the translator should not add anything from himself, not take away anything from the original (...) He should do his best to reflect the original beauty in an equivalent manner] (translated by Agnieszka Kałużna) (Balcerzan, 1977, p. 83).

An appropriate translation, according to Ignacy Włodek, is the one which does not embellish or impoverish the original but deftly expresses its intention and original beauty. Therefore, such a translation should not be featured as translation but the second original in which the reader could feel that he dealt with authentic text and not a mere copy.

Admittedly, eighteenth century writers set really high standards for translators. The Polish poet, literary critic and historian, Stanisław Potocki (1755-1821) paid attention to ‘sense’ in translation. According to him, a good translation is one that transfers the sense of the original:

„Tłumaczenie dobrym być może, byle dokładnie oddawało sens i myśl autora, byle nim mowa czystą i narodową była. Więcej wymaga przekładanie i w nim prawdziwa sztuka, i trudność tego rodzaju polega: jest ono, że tak powiem, walką między wzorowym pisarzem i przekładającym, który zdobyć na pierwszym wszystkie jego piękności usiłuje i przenieść w swój język, kiedy on zwykle tych piękności dzielnie broni, jak gdyby był ich zazdrosnym. Ta zaś obrona polega w różnym duchu i składzie języków: przemóc ja jest największą zaletą i zaszczytem tłumacza” [Eng: A good translation is such that it exactly reflects the sense of the original and the author, and such that it

preserves genuine, national language of the source text. The real art of translating consists of finding a balance between a brilliant writer and translator, just like in a fight when the translator strives to conquer all the beauty of the original and transfer it into the target language whereas the writer tries to defend all the treasure of the original as if being envious of its beauty. If the translator succeeds in overcoming the author's defence, he deserves the highest praise] (translated by Agnieszka Kałużna) (Balcerzan, 1977, p. 104).

Typical of the eighteenth century writers, Potocki used a metaphor to illustrate a phenomenon of translation. Potocki assigns translation human features, such as envy and then picturesquely describes the original as a defender or guard of its beauty. The primary role of the translator is to overcome and conquer the difficulties and if successful, deserves the highest praise.

2.2 Guidelines for translators to follow as regards proverbs, borrowings and anachronisms

As far as guidelines regarding translation of selected elements of culture are concerned, the above-mentioned Euzebiusz Słowacki (1772-1814) discussed this issue extensively. He warned translators against a reckless rendition of proverbs, which on the surface seem an interesting variety in translation, but in reality they can be a trap:

„Stąd te wszystkie przypowieści i przysłowia, które w pewnym względzie uważane, stanowią bogactwa i moc języka, w mowie poważnej albo nigdy, albo z wielką ostrożnością używane być mogą. Nadają one niekiedy mowie postać szczeroci i prostoty, ale częściej przez swoją błahość i niskość wyprowadzają czytelnika z potrzebnego omamienia, przerywają poważne działania jego rozumu albo strącają go nagle z wysokości, do której się wzniosła jego imaginacja” [Eng: All those allegories and proverbs which are regarded as pride and fortune of a language, should be used with care in translation. On one hand, they give a language a form of sincerity and simplicity but on the other, due to their trivial and insignificant character, they distract the reader, depriving him of imagination] (translated by Agnieszka Kałużna) (Balcerzan, 1977, p. 133).

Undoubtedly, Słowacki must have been aware of difficulty in translating a proverb in a manner that would be intangible and comprehensible to the reader.

Słowacki did not approve of using borrowings and anachronisms to excess. He was a proponent of language purity in translation, which he described in the following way:

„Tłumaczenia pism z obcych języków i znajomość ich rozszerzona w narodzie wzbogaca wprowadzie mowę ojczystą, ale uważać pilnie należy, aby przez naganne wprowadzenie cudzoziemskich sposobów mówienia czystość jej skażona nie była. W dawniejszych pisarzach polskich latynizmy, w teraźniejszych galicyzmy germanizmy często postrzegać się dają (...)” [Eng: Indeed, translations from other languages enrich the mother tongue, however, one should be very careful not to contaminate it by introducing foreign patterns, which is blameworthy. In the past, Polish writers exaggerated with Latin borrowings, nowadays, they overuse Galician and German patterns (...)] (translated by Agnieszka Kałużna) (Balcerzan, 1977, p. 126).

It seems Słowacki was an aesthete for whom beauty of his mother tongue in and beyond translation was of the greatest significance. He featured certain sensitivity to foreign elements in translation and did not tolerate exaggeration. His desire for harmony and ideal form of translation is predominant. Słowacki also paid attention to cohesion in translation and emphasised the necessity of consistency and chronology in translation, which is so often neglected by contemporary writers. To confirm his statements, he provided the following examples:

„Niektórzy z naszych, osobliwie dawniejszych tłumaczów, w przekładaniu nazwisk krajów i urzędów stosują się do czasów i zwyczajów teraźniejszych: tak Wargocki, tłumacząc Cezara, Gallów Francuzami, Germanów Niemcami nazywa lubo te nazwiska później, po nastąpiionych odmianach w posadzie narodów, używane być zaczęły: tak Kojałowicz w przekładzie Tacyta nadaje dawnym Rzymianom starostów, biskupów, a nawet konsulów burmistrzami mianuje. Takie anachronizmy oburzają ludzi znających nazwiska i obyczaje starożytne, tym zaś, którzy tych znajomości nie mają, dziwaczne i fałszywe nadają wyobrażenia” [Eng: Some writers, when translating names of offices and countries of the past, use contemporary equivalents, e.g. Wargocki, the writer, when translating Caesar, called Gauls the French and Germani called the German (...) Kojałowicz when translating Tacitus, entitled former Romans as foremen, bishops, consuls or even mayors. Such

anachronisms cause an indignant reaction in people who know ancient customs and traditions, and in those who do not possess that knowledge, a misleading image] (translated by Agnieszka Kałużna) (Balcerzan, 1977, p. 134).

Perhaps, the lack of coherence and cohesion, as featured by some writers, resulted from negligence and, presumably, hurry. Słowacki's remarks seem timeless and should not be underestimated in the difficult art of translating even today.

2.3 Genius in translation

Nowadays, nobody expects a translator to be such a genius that the qualities of which should be vivid in translation. However, in the 18th century genius was an inseparable part of translation. Then, a translator was perceived as a spirited artist who could, by way of his unique talent and originality, enchant the reader. The translator was believed to possess superhuman qualities and to be, if not a creator of wonders in translation, then just a creator of translation whose role was to improve, embellish and add fame to the original, if necessary. One of the protagonists of such an approach in translation, among other writers, was Ignacy Krasicki (1735-1801) who defined translation as follows:

„Tłumaczenie w rodzaju nauk toż samo zdaje się być co kopiowanie w kunsztach; nosi więc na sobie jakoweś piętno upokarzające, iż nie mogąc być sami przez się działaczami, innych działania obwieszczają. Ale obrotna ku pożytkowi swojemu miłość własna umie z upokorzenia ukształcić chlubę: stwarza z uczniów mistrze, a takimi są ci, którzy tłumacząc, poprawiają dzieło i kształcą, a raczej chcą kształcić i poprawiać tych, których tłumaczą” [Eng: Translation, if understood as science, seems similar to a mere act of copying; thus it is just a humiliating activity in which a translator being unable to act independently, is forced to announce somebody else's activities instead of his own. However, a skilful translator can turn humiliation into pride by turning students into masters by means of improving and enriching the original in the form of translation] (translated by Agnieszka Kałużna) (Balcerzan, 1977, p. 78).

The notion of genius in translation was mentioned by Adam Kazimierz Czartoryski (1734-1823) who described the qualities of an ideal writer in the following way:

„Między przymiotami, które pisarza znakomitym czynią, liczyć należy zgodność geniuszu jego z geniuszem czyli umysłem języka tego, w którym pisze” [Eng: Among qualities a brilliant writer should feature is an ability to comply his own genius with the genius of the original author] (translated by Agnieszka Kałużna) (Balcerzan, 1977, p. 95).

Stanisław Staszic (1755-1826), the journalist and ideologist of the Enlightenment Age paid attention to challenges a translator is faced with:

„Jedną z największych trudności w dobrym tłumaczeniu jest dokładne rozróżnienie geniuszu języka od geniuszu autora” [Eng: One of the greatest difficulties in translation is to make a distinction between genius of a language and genius of the original author] (translated by Agnieszka Kałużna) (Balcerzan, 1977, p. 99).

Similar views were shared by Stanisław Potocki (1755-1821) who defined difficulties a translation brings accordingly:

„Przekładanie wielkiego pisarza jest walką stylu i zapaską jenuiszu” [Eng: translating a great writer requires conquering the original author’s style and competing the original genius] (translated by Agnieszka Kałużna) (Balcerzan, 1977, p. 101).

One of the Polish playwrights, critics and historians, Ludwik Osiński (1775-1838) expressed his opinions on creation as an integral part of translation as follows:

„Dobrze więc tłumaczyć jest to tworzyć (...), bez pomocy tworzenia, jaką w oryginale widzimy, przekład nie dostąpi chluby” [Eng: A good translation is such that the translator is a creator (...) without creation so typical of its original, a translation should not deserve honour] (translated by Agnieszka Kałużna) (Balcerzan, 1977, p. 111).

2.4 Translation vs. imitation

In the Enlightenment Age, translators-imitators were particularly criticised. As it seems, the act of imitating or copying the original was the reason for deprecation and calling a translator an imitator was offensive. According to Ludwik Osiński (1775-1838):

„Pisarze niezdolni dobrze tłumaczyć zwykle tę niedołężność pokrywają zamiarem „naśladowania”, dodając mu nawet niekiedy przymiot „wolnego”. Jak w malarstwie piękniejszy obraz twarzy nie zastąpi braku podobieństwa, tak w przekładzie naśladowanie może być poczytane za dowód, wsparty własnym wyznaniem tłumacza, że przekładać nie umiał” [Eng: Those writers who are incapable of good translation try to hide this infirmity by way of imitation which, they believe, is a kind of free translation. But as it is the case in painting, an image of a face painted in a prettier manner does not substitute for lack of its similarity in the original. In a similar vein, imitation can serve as evidence that the translator could not translate] (translated by Agnieszka Kałużna] (Balcerzan, 1977, p. 110).

Osiński calls the issue of translator’s incapability an infirmity (Balcerzan 1977: 110), and that infirmity can be associated with lack of skill, senility and disease. In other words, a translator-imitator unmasks the fact of lacking appropriate competence and, according to Osiński, such a person, deprived of translating qualifications, should not translate.

Imitation, from the critical point of view, was also presented by Franciszek Ksawery Dmochowski (1762-1808), who translated from French into Polish. His opinion in this regard is included below:

„Nie chodź ślepo cudzymi ścieżkami jak bydło,
Jeżeli w dobrym chwalebna, tedy w złym obrzydła
Rzeczą naśladowanie. Znajdzie kto wiersz nowy,
Już ma tłum naśladowców za sobą gotowy;
A gdy w nim każdy wyraz wiele zawsze znaczy,
Biedne naśladowniki zostają w rozpacz.
Rzadko uda się komu. Wiek świadczy wiekowi-
Nie zrównał naśladowca nigdy autorowi.
Ufajmy więcej sobie, znajmy swe przymioty” (Balcerzan, 1977, p. 88).

Dmochowski’s opinion leaves no illusions as through the expression „biedne naśladowniki” [Eng: poor imitators] (translated by Agnieszka Kałużna) (Balcerzan, 1977, p. 88) Dmochowski manifests pity towards imitators and believes that the act of copying does not pay any tribute to a translator and it rarely succeeds. His opinion surprises as, it seems, he perceived imitation as an issue of chance, and not as a deliberate action.

3 Translation of poetry

An eighteenth century translator was an artist and a spirited poet. Can a poet translate a poet? What were the views in this regard shared by Polish writers of the Enlightenment Age? One of the notions debated upon was a dilemma if a poem should be translated into verse or into prose. Opinion by Franciszek Karpiński (1741-1825), the poet and playwright, is provided below:

„Dbała o wymowę swoją, Francycja piękny nam z siebie podaje przykład: gdzie czyli co doskonałego w dawnych pisarzach było, czyli się u sąsiadów teraz pokaże, zaraz to na swój język przenoszą. Ani się tym zatrudniają, ażeby poetów dzieła wierszem koniecznie tłumaczyli: ale piękne cudzych autorów wiersze na ojczystą prozę przekładają, nie chcąc tym sposobem słowa jednego z wielkiego mówcy utracić. Tłumaczeniem zaś z wiersza na wiersz, spadków i liczby koniecznością przymuszony, poeta i słowa odmieniać, i od myśli autora często odstąpić musi” [Eng: France gives us a good example: wherever there was anything brilliant in ancient writers, it transformed this into French. They were not bothered to translate verse into verse] (translated by Agnieszka Kałużna) (Balcerzan, 1977, p. 85).

Karpiński pointed out that some writers who translated verse into prose, did it in a way that did not harm the original at all, as they were able to transfer the author's intentions in an accurate way, although via completely different words. Assuredly, they did their best to maintain similar number of syllables and rhymes as in the original. Yet, it was not always possible to reconcile a sense of the source text with such a challenging style of language.

During the Enlightenment, there was a belief that poetry was sweetness to the ear and the translated poetry should be forgiven imperfection, as its predominant role was to educate, advise and communicate the truth. Such an opinion was shared by Maciej Grzegorz Garnysz (1740-1790), who admired the manner in which Jan Kochanowski (1530-1584) translated poetry. For Garnysz Kochanowski's translation was: „pieszczenie ucha wieku osiemnastego” [Eng: caressing the ear of the eighteenth century] (translated by Agnieszka Kałużna) (Balcerzan, 1977, p. 87). Garnysz's view on Kochanowski's translation methods is included below:

„Chcąc, aby nowemu tłumaczeniu ususzył się stary Kochanowski, należy podobno na dopełnienie braku nagrodzić wdziękiem i powagą, a przywabić słodczą pieśczone ucho wieku osiemnastego i pisząc

dla narodu – ulegać nawet narowom narodowym, inaczej nawet na wstępie zrażony któżkolwiek reszty nie dosłucha. Zbieganie się chropowate jednozgłoskowych wyrazów, (...) obrotów niezupełnie przyswojonych przysada – zdaje się uchybiać celu gładkości szlachetnej poezji, której szczególna od innych umiejętności jest cecha, aby nauczając wmawiała prawdę wdziękiem i słodyczą w umysły nawet odporne i twarde” [Eng: To enrich Kochanowski’s translation, it could be completed by charm and seriousness and sweet caress of the ear of the eighteenth century so that it could reflect national impulses. The role of poetry is to communicate the truth even to resistant and hard minds in a charming and sweet way] (translated by Agnieszka Kałużna) (Balcerzan, 1977, p. 87).

Poetry was compared to music the chords of which should feature harmony and be pleasant to the ear, both in the original and translation. The success of this project lay in the hands of a conductor-translator who tried to meet this difficult challenge. Adam Kazimierz Czartoryski (1734-1823) emphasised that poetry was far more difficult to translate than prose:

„Poezji tłumaczenie nierówne staje się (jak każdy przyzna) pracowitsze niżeli prozy, bo daleko jest więcej trudności do przełamania: lecz za to na pokonaniu owych trudności zasadza się doskonałość roboty. (...) Urok poezji wynika z połączenia siły w myślach z trafnością, wytworu bez przesady i naciągania z niepospolitością w rzeczach samych i w wyrazach, tudzież dowcipu z niezawodnością gustu; węzeł tego połączenia zaciskać i nierozzerwalnie utrzymywać powinna harmonia. Wdzięk zaś i harmonia tak mało być mogą tłumaczonymi jak muzyka i własnorodności charakter nosić na sobie mają koniecznie” [Eng: Translating poetry is more industrious than translating prose as there are far more difficulties to break. But the success of breaking those difficulties is the essence of the work. (...) The charm of poetry results from linking the power of thoughts with accuracy, creation without exaggeration, exceptionality, humour and infallibility of taste; this knot should be tightened by harmony. And harmony translates like music recognised by its unique charm] (translated by Agnieszka Kałużna) (Balcerzan, 1977, p. 91).

The eighteenth century expectations as to how poetry should be translated were very ambitious. It was believed that a translator should intercept the author's thoughts, transfer the form of the original as close as possible and enchant the reader with harmonious melody of his translation. The work of a translator was compared to that of a sculptor. Such an opinion was featured by Ludwik Osiński (1775-1838), which is provided below:

„Tu kunszt poddaje się lęklawie powtórzeniu rysów, kolorów, stosunków, kształtów i postaci oryginału; tłumacz zaś mówcy lub poety, jeżeli mógł mieć udział w tym porównaniu, uważać by go raczej należało jak rzeźbiarza, chcącego z malowania posąg utworzyć, lub przeciwnie” [Eng: The art gives way to repeating features, colours and shapes of the original; the translator of a speaker or poet should be regarded as a sculptor who attempts to transform his sculpture into a brilliant painting] (translated by Agnieszka Kałużna) (Balcerzan, 1977, p. 110).

In the light of the above quotation, translation was perceived as an art, and the translator was expected to manifest his artistic expression to the highest degree, not transgressing the original at all. Ludwik Osiński described this phenomenon accordingly:

„Ważnym rymotwórstwa tryumfem będzie zawsze trudność zwyciężona, i to znamię jest wszystkim sztukom właściwe. Cóż nas najwięcej uderza i zadziwia w obrazie, w posągu, w poemacie? To zapewne, iż sztuka zdolną była nadać marmurowi miękkość kształtów żyjących, płótnu wszelką miąższość postaci i łudzący pozór przestrzeni, wierszowi zaś, mimo więzy miary i rymu, tę samą wolność i swobodę, jaka byłaby piszącego zwyczajnym językiem, którym on bez musu i bez trudu zmysły i serce zniewala” [Eng: The important aspect of translation consists in a triumph of creating rhymes, so typical of the art. What amazes us most in a painting, statue or poem? Assuredly the fact that the art was able to endow a piece of marble softness of shapes characteristic of living creatures, a piece of canvas an illusionary shell of space, a poem the same freedom and ease as in the original, despite bonds of rhymes] (translated by Agnieszka Kałużna) (Balcerzan, 1977, p. 123).

Metaphorical frame in the approach of translation seems typical of the Enlightenment Age. The norm was to compare the translator's work to that of a

painter who does his best to express similarity of the original via slightly different colours, if necessary. Euzebiusz Słowacki (1772-1814) provided his opinion in this regard in the following way:

„Tłumacz, który nie przelał w siebie duszy oryginalnego pisarza i który mechanicznej prawie oddany pracy, mniej na moc myśli niż na liczbę wyrazów daje baczenia, taki, mówię, tłumacz jest w przypadku wspomnianych malarzy. Obce są dla niego piękności wzoru, bo ich nie czuje: wielkie obroty wymowy, uniesienia czułości, górne obrazy imaginacji, giną w jego przekładzie; bo na jego umyśle i sercu nie uczyniły wrażenia: wszędzie on same tylko widzi wyrazy i kształty mówienia” [Eng: A translator who does not transfer the soul of the original author and works mechanically, focusing more on counting words than on power of thoughts can be compared to a painter. Such a painter does not care for beauty of the original because he does not feel it; his imagination is resistant to its charm, which makes no impression on him. All he can see is just words and language shapes] (translated by Agnieszka Kałużna) (Balcerzan 1977: 129).

The above fragment makes us realise how sensitive eighteenth century writers must have been. Their sensitivity referred to beauty, art and harmony in translation. Presumably, they believed that by way of sensitivity, they could accomplish perfection in translation. And, as it was then, this ideal has still remained unattainable today.

4 Conclusion

Nowadays, nobody expects a translator to be a poet, painter or sculptor of the source text. Is contemporary translation associated with harmonious melody of the original? Has not the profession of a translator been dominated by commerce? Perhaps our down-to-earth, contemporary translators-IT specialists could do with a little fineness? Was the Enlightenment Age particularly abundant with translators-geniuses who were so sensitive to beauty? What were the features of the 18th century translators-geniuses? Could contemporary translators be patterns to imitate by those from the Enlightenment? Maybe those translators were more writers and poets than experts in translation? Let's allow these questions to remain unanswered.

When it comes to my personal opinion, I would like to believe that translation heritage of the past epochs could serve as inspiration for contemporary translators because such excellent patterns are definitely worth imitating and

one could learn a lot from our wiser ancestors. In the 18th century, the work of a translator must have been very challenging, much more difficult than today. This exceptional activity was restricted to talented poets only. Nowadays, a translator can avail of computer assistance, which makes his work easier but, at the same time, tempts and encourages the contemporary translator to imitate and copy various materials rather than to create his/her own masterpiece.

In an era of progress and modern technologies, one cannot help but notice that contemporary translators gazing into the distance seem to search for treasure that his ancestors had already found ages ago. Therefore, perhaps it is a good idea to appreciate the knowledge that the past still offers us today and thus, save it from oblivion.

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Arabeasy: A Readable and Typable Arabic Transliteration System, and Its Application in Learning Arabic Online

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Abstract

Mastery of Arabic script represents a steep learning curve to any student of the language. By bypassing this step with the aid of a romanised system mapping to Arabic in a one-to-one, reversible way, i.e. transliteration not transcription, learning of the Arabic language and spelling further down the track can be facilitated.

A readable, typable and usable mapping, named Arabeasy, which is optimised for easy input on smartphones and Western keyboards is proposed. Automatic conversion tools that render content of the Arabic language web “visible” to Roman alphabet natives are presented, including some practical applications and didactic workflows.

Key words

Arabic, romanisation, transliteration, transcription, learning process, vocabulary, visual memorisation, didactic methods, foreign language teaching, readability, input method, smartphone

Introduction

The standard student of Arabic directs most of his or her effort to learning Arabic script at the start of their language study. For some students, the barrier of Arabic script hampers vocabulary memorisation, and access to stimulating cultural web content that is often a significant motivator in language acquisition.

Most romanisations of Arabic that are used for teaching new students are transcriptions, which add vowels that are voiced, but not written, in Arabic. While this helps by indicating phonetics, it introduces ambiguity because the transcriber chooses from among several different ways to represent these missing vowels, e.g. “o”, “ou” or “u”, “al” or “el”, Mohammed/Muhammad/Mohamed/Mahomet (Whitaker, 2002). For an extensive treatise on the complexities involved in transcribing Arabic, the reader is invited to consult Gorgis (2009). Furthermore, many systems use two Roman letters for one Arabic letter, e.g. “sh” for the Arabic letter “sheen”, which adds further confusion, as one does not know whether this represents “sh” or “s” followed by “h”.

A new system is put forward, which also fulfils criteria of readability and typability on smartphones and Western keyboards. An argument is also made for the use of transliteration in the learning process, instead of the traditionally used transcription.

Method

Criteria of the desired romanisation system:

Readability: The transliterated word provides some cognitive correspondence to the way the word sounds. Nevertheless, this depends on which regional or colloquial dialect is used, so no system can be perfect.

Reversibility: One can recover the original Arabic text from the romanised text (this also implies no ambiguity and also teaches Arabic spelling), i.e. a transliteration and not a transcription, one letter per Arabic letter.

Typability: Frequently used letters should be non-numeric, non-symbol (e.g. not * or &) and easily typed on standard Western keyboards and smartphones. All letters must be standard 8 bit ASCII letters (also known as Windows-1252 or ANSI) not UTF-8 or other Unicode letters (e.g. not ħ or š), and again one letter per Arabic letter.

Usability: XML friendly, i.e. does not include < or > characters. Also copy/paste friendly, i.e. does not include apostrophe, single quote, left quote or right quote which are often used as a diacritic symbol in other mappings. These symbols are particularly problematic as they are often transformed automatically during copy/paste into another symbol, and are visually very hard to differentiate from each other. Copy/paste issues also plague non-standard ASCII or Unicode letters, and in the online age, this must be taken into account.

What about the existing Arabic romanisation systems?

See Appendix I for a table of comparison for Arabic romanisation systems. None of the existing systems meet the above criteria. The SATTS (Standard Arabic Technical Transliteration System) and Buckwalter systems are the best candidates providing the desired characteristics of a 1-for-1 substitution, which introduces no more phonetic information than the original Arabic orthography (ISO 233:1984; see table Pedersen, 2008). The downside of SATTS is its readability for the ASCII version, which uses : ; ? and “ and these letters are neither readable nor easy to enter on some smartphones. The non-ASCII version is more readable, but uses letters such as “ħ” that are even harder to input and require keyboard remapping or shortcuts. This disadvantage is also present in the Hans Wehr system (Wehr, 1961). A system that can be typed on a smartphone and standard Western keyboard with no extra setup required was

sought. The Buckwalter system performs very well according to the criteria, except for the use of '\$ ~ and *, and non XML-friendly < and >.

Many other systems such as Qalam (Heddaya, 1985) use two keystrokes for one Arabic letter, this detracts from typability and introduces ambiguity e.g. do th and sh represent two separate Arabic letters or one single one?

The case for transliteration in Arabic studies

To learn correct spelling, a direct one-to-one mapping to Arabic letters removes confusion about how to write the missing vowels. These are highly regionally dependent, and probably a factor preventing the easy adoption of any single romanisation system. By leaving out unwritten vowels altogether and transliterating Arabic directly as it is written, not how it sounds, a simpler uniform result is obtained, which also enables efficient searching (e.g. one search mHmd instead of Mohammed/Muhammad/Mohamed/Mahomet).

The Arabeasy mapping

Arabeasy is the name given to the system found to best meet the desired criteria. A play on the word Arabizi which is another word for Arabic chat, it is intended to be easy to type and help learners of Arabic write in a consistent, uniform way, minimising that nagging ambiguity of "Is this the best way to write this word?" that inevitably comes when using traditional transcription systems.

Arabeasy uses a case sensitive solution to represent Arabic letters as follows:

أ | ؤ | آ | ء | *ي | و | ه | ن | م | ل | ك | ق | ف | غ | ع | ط | ض | ص | ش | س | ز | ر | ذ | خ | ح | ج | ث | ب | ا |
a b t v g H x d z r j* s c* S D T Z w* G f q k l m n h u i y p* e* 4* A* o* E* Y

Legend:

* novel mapping, also shadda = - fatha = a), damma = u) kasra = i)

گ = K, چ = X, ژ = J, پ = P, and ق = V

**In Egypt, Sudan and sometimes other regions, the final form is always ع (without dots).

Rationale behind mapping

For backward compatibility and ease of learning, novel mappings were minimised. The hamza ء is represented as p, not 2 and ain ع as w, not 3 as often done in Arabic chat, as numbers mixed with letters can be off-putting and slower to input on smartphones. w also resembles the letter ain ع rotated 90 degrees. ن

is likewise mapped to j for visual similarity, and to avoid the use of z' (z with diacritic). An exception to not using numbers is made for 4 as 4 looks visually similar to A and is much less frequent than hamza and ain. v is used to map to theh ث ala Qalam (Heddaya, 1985), and c was used for sheen ش as it is close to ch which is used by some existing systems. Hyphen (-) is used for shadda, and a) for fatha u) for damma and i) for kasra as they visually imply their function (respectively doubling and explicitly including the preceding letter). i is preferred for yeh ي instead of y, as it is visually simpler. y is used for ى because although it usually has the "a" sound, it also represents the "y" sound in some regions. Upper-case i was deliberately not used to avoid confusion between upper-case i (I) and lower-case l (l), as was the pipe symbol (|).

Letter frequency

Madi (2010) analyses letter frequency from general Arabic sources, which was also taken into consideration by attributing more frequent letters to lower case when both were used (h H a A z Z s S e E t T d D).

Arabic letters in order of frequency: a 13%, l 12%, n 7%, m 7%, i 6%, u 6%, h 5%, b 5%, r 4%, w 4%, A 3%, f 3%, q 3%, d 3%, t 3%, s 2%, k 2%, H 2%, e 1%, y 1%, g 1%, S 1%, E 1%, z 1%, v 1%, x 1%, c 1%, j 1%, T 1%, D <1%, G <1%, p <1%, Y <1%, Z <1%, 4 <1%, o <1%

Before arriving at this mapping, many different combinations were tried and this is the current stage of the evolution.

Unusual letters and use beyond Arabic

Propositions for less frequent letters (note all upper-case) are: گ = K, چ = X, ج = J, پ = P, and ق = V. Ideally this system could be extended to be used for Persian and Urdu, though that ambition is beyond the scope of this paper.

Evaluation against criteria

Readability

Being a native user of the Roman alphabet implies certain preferences for a particular transliteration scheme and a specific set of aesthetics and cognitive associations. One notices straight away that Arabeasy is very compact and uncluttered to read compared to some schemes. The first paragraph of the Declaration of Human Rights appears as follows:

يولد جميع الناس أحراراً متساوين في الكرامة والحقوق، وقد وهبوا عقلاً
وضميراً وعليهم أن يعامل بعضهم بعضاً بروح الإخاء

iuld gmiw alnas Ahrara mtsauin fi alkrame ualHquq, uqd uhbua wqla uDmira
uwlihm An iwaml bwDhm bwDa bruH alExap

*All human beings are born free and equal in dignity and rights. They are endowed
with reason and conscience and should act towards one another in a spirit of
brotherhood.*

Here is part of an article in Arabic from aljazeera.net automatically
converted to Arabeasy:

كانت الإخفاقات في الرياضات الجماعية والفردية على حد سواء العنوان الأبرز للرياضة
الذي يضع أوزاره اليوم، وهو أمر أرجعه البعض للأوضاع الأمنية 2013 التونسية خلال عام
والسياسية غير المستقرة في البلاد، والتي ألقت بظلالها على مردود الرياضيين وساهمت في
تردي النتائج.

kant alExfaqat fi alriaDat algmawie ualfrdie wly Hd suap alwnuan alAbrj llriaDe
altunsie xlal wam 2013 alzi iDw Aujarh alium, uhu Amr Argwh albwD llAuDaw
alAmnie ualsiasie Gir almstqre fi alblad, ualti Alqt bZlalha wly mrdud alriaDiin
usahmt fi trdi alntaYg.

وشكل خروج منتخب تونس من تصفيات كأس العالم إثر الهزيمة المذلة أمام نظيره الكاميروني
في إياب الدور الحاسم للتصفيات، صدمة للجماهير التونسية التي لم تستسغ فشل "نسور 4-1

قرطاج" في التأهل لأكبر محفل رياضي عالمي بتلك الطريقة.

uckl xrug mntxb tuns mn tSfiat kAs alwalm Evr alhjime almzle Amam nZirh
alkamiruni 4-1 fi Eiab aldur alHasm lltSfiat, Sdme llgmahir altunsie alti lm tstsG
fcl "nsur qrTag" fi altAhl lAkbr mHfl riaDi walmi btlk alTriqe.

وفتحت خيبة تصفيات المونديال أبواب الخلافات على مصراعيها بين اتحاد الكرة ووزير
الرياضة طارق ذياب الذي طالب بضرورة استقالة الاتحاد، واصفا نتائج الكرة التونسية
2013 بالفضيحة الكبرى خصوصاً أن زملاء عصام جمعة ودعوا أيضاً كأس أمم أفريقيا
بجنوب أفريقيا من الدور الأول.

uftHt xibe tSfiat almundial Abuab alxlafat wly mSrawiha bin atHad alkre uujir alriaDe
Tarq ziab alzi Talb bDrure astqale alatHad, uaSfa ntaYg alkre altunsie balfDiHe
alkbry xSuSa An jmlap wSam gmwe udwua AiDa kAs Amm Afriqia 2013 bgnub
Afriqia mn aldur alAul. (Al Jazeera, online)

For comparison with other systems, the following table (from Romanization of Arabic, online) may be consulted:

| | | |
|----------------------------------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| Arabic | قَصْر لَهُ كَانْ أَمَجْد | المَغْرِبِيَّةُ الْمَمْلَكَةُ إِلَى |
| Arabic with diacritics (normally omitted) | قَصْرٌ لَهُكَانْ أَمْجَدٌ | المَغْرِبِيَّةُ الْمَمْلَكَةُ إِلَى |
| IPA | /ʔamdʒad ka:na lahu qasˤr/ | /ʔila l mamlaka al maʕribijja/ |
| DIN 31635 | Amğad kâna lahu qaşr | ʾIlâ l-mamlakah al-Mağribiyyah |
| Hans Wehr | amjad kân lahu qaşr | ilâ l-mamlaka al-mağribīya |
| ALA-LC | Amjad kâna lahu qaşr | Ilâ al-mamlakah al- Maghribīyah |
| UNGEGN | Amjad kana lahu qaşr | Ily al-mamlakah al- maghribiyyah |
| BATR | amjad kaana lahu qaSr | ilaaa almamlakat' almagribiyyat' |
| ArabTeX | am^gad kAna lahu qa.sr | il_A almamlakaT alma.gribiyyaT |
| Arabeasy | Amgd kan lh qSr | Ely almlke almGrbie |
| English | Amjad had a palace | To the kingdom of Morocco |

Typability and usability

Once the novel features of Arabeasy are assimilated, all of the advantages of this mapping can be appreciated. It can be argued that systems using non-ASCII letters are more readable, but they are less typable and problems arise from copy/paste, hence an ASCII solution is considered the best trade-off between readability, typability and usability.

Advantages of Transliteration vs Transcription

- learners are forced to listen to Arabic, to remember which vowels are missing, which results in good pronunciation (this could also be considered a disadvantage);
- less visually cluttered texts, compact and faster to read/type;
- one uniform way to write a word, which facilitates searching, e.g. Mohammed/Muhammad/Mohamed/Mahomet can only be written one way, mHmd, hence all possible combinations no longer need to be searched for;

- vowels a, u, i can be explicitly inserted if desired (followed by “);
- teaches Arabic spelling, easing the transition to reading and writing Arabic script.

Disadvantages of Transliteration

- exact pronunciation cannot be deduced from text alone (the same with written Arabic);
- some words are identical, this is also the same with Arabic.

A final point should be made that the use of Arabeasy is not intended to replace Arabic script, but rather to facilitate rapid immersion into the Arabic language by enabling its “visualisation” or easy recognition in one’s native alphabet. Cultural, news and entertainment content online is often a stimulus to new students of a language to keep going, so by making this more readily “visible” to new students via automatic tools, a valuable incentive to persevere with the language study is created. Arabeasy also eases the eventual transition towards Arabic script, as it is a pure one-to-one transliteration.

Practical applications

Automated Arabeasy Conversion of Arabic webpages

A useful Firefox add-on, Transliterator (Benenson, 2007) already has the Arabeasy mapping configured for use. Once installed, a hotkey shortcut can transliterate any selected Arabic text on a webpage. Another hotkey shortcut toggles between normal keyboard input and Arabeasy Arabic input.

For Chrome, an extension exists for transliterating Arabic webpages into Arabeasy (Hahne, 2013). It currently leaves the original Arabic in place in case the learner wishes to translate any words or sentences using extensions such as Quick Translate or Nice Bubble Translate, as there is currently no translator extension that converts Arabeasy into English. This is also helpful for students learning Arabic script. For both web browsers, an Arabeasy script exists (userscripts.com) which converts Arabic webpages with the ALT-A combination, and converts with some translations added using ALT-C.

Integration of Arabeasy into Arabic study workflow

Writing and regularly consulting lists of vocabulary in Arabeasy reinforces memorisation visually, and by writing or typing one is forced to reproduce the word. Furthermore, one usually replays the sound in one’s mind as one writes or types. By using Arabeasy, which is a direct map to Arabic, one learns the correct spelling of a word from the start as it is written in Arabic.

Automatic Arabeasy transliteration of webpages enables instant “visualisation” of the latest news or articles of interest to the learner in their native alphabet (for those whose native language uses the Roman alphabet). Any unknown words or sentences can be translated by selecting the Arabic text and using a translation add-on or extension such as Quick Translator for Firefox or Nice Bubble Translate for Chrome.

The importance of pronunciation

As Arabeasy does not contain complete phonetic information, which is exactly the same situation as with Arabic, listening to spoken Arabic while reading the corresponding Arabeasy transliteration should be an integral part of the didactic workflow. This can be achieved in several ways:

Vocab Lists

By adding a new word to a vocabulary list when it is heard (not read), the word is associated more strongly with its correct pronunciation. For new words encountered in reading, translate.google.com can be used to hear the word as it is spoken by clicking on the speaker button for text-to-speech, which pronounces the Arabic text aloud.

Subtitles

Arabic subtitles for many Arabic movies can be found on the website opensubtitles.org, and they can be automatically converted from Arabic to Arabeasy as instructed on the arabeasy.net website. Movies in Arabic can then be watched with Arabeasy subtitles, aiding memorisation of how words are voiced and which vowels are missing from the written form. The same can be done for movies or series in one's own language to increase vocabulary.

Transcripts

Some websites such as alarabiya.net provide online Arabic transcriptions and translations of video news journals and interviews. These transcriptions converted into Arabeasy can be read while watching or listening to the Arabic original, again strengthening the connection between how the word is written and how it sounds.

Song Lyrics

Using songs with their lyrics is an entertaining and extremely helpful way to enhance language learning. The structure of many Arabic songs repeats each verse twice with exactly the same lyrics, making them an excellent reinforcement tool for memorisation. A pleasant voice or melody to the ears of the listener also motivates learning and encourages repeated exposure to the same song and

vocabulary. There is a youtube channel that has some Egyptian songs with Arabeasy lyrics (<http://www.youtube.com/user/talkegypt/videos>).

Inserting missing vowels

Missing vowels can even be inserted manually for learning purposes, if desired. The Arabeasy convention is to follow the vowel (a, u or i) by a right parenthesis “)”. Arabic also has this function with the fatha “a)”, damma “u)” and kasra “i)” symbols, which are used for learners, and to disambiguate some words.

Typing Arabic script using Arabeasy keyboard mapping

As shown above, typing Arabic text using the Arabeasy mapping for input is currently possible in Firefox with the Transliterator add-on. Once Arabeasy is mastered, using its keyboard map to input Arabic script is an excellent way to learn Arabic letters.

Conclusion

The ultimate test of this system is its adoption and popularity for non-native Arabic speakers. As it fulfils criteria of readability, typability and usability for users more comfortable or familiar with the Roman alphabet, it enables easy and uniform writing and memorisation of vocabulary, teaches Arabic spelling, facilitates access to online Arabic web content and provides immediate visual knowledge of Arabic language structures and patterns.

By postponing the task of studying the Arabic writing system and with the availability of automatic transliteration tools, Arabic web content, transcripts and subtitles become “visible” to natives of the Roman alphabet, further stimulating and maintaining the language learner’s motivation by relatively easy exposure to Arabic entertainment and culture.

Arabeasy letters were chosen to be easy to input, and either 1) visually representative of the underlying sounds, 2) similar to a pre-existing mapping, or 3) visually similar to the Arabic letter.

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APPENDIX

Arabic Romanisation comparison table

(modified from http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Romanization_of_Arabic#Comparison_table retrieved 27 December 2013)

| Unicode | Name | IPA | UNGEGN | ALA-LC | Wehr | DIN ISO | SAS -2 | BATR | ArabTeX | Arabeasy | chat |
|---------|------------------|--------|--------|--------|------|---------|--------------|--------|---------|----------|----------------|
| أ | 621 hamzah | ʔ | ʔ | | | | | | | p | 2 |
| ا | 627 alif | a: | ā | | | | ā aa | aa / A | A | a | a/e/é |
| ب | 628 bāʾ | b | b | | | | | | | | |
| ت | 062A tāʾ | t | t | | | | | | | | |
| ث | 062B thāʾ | θ | th | | t | | ç t | c | _t | v | s/th |
| ج | 062C jīm | ʤ ~g~ʒ | j | | ǧ | ǧ | ȳ j | j | ^g | g | j/g/dj |
| ح | 062D ḥāʾ | ħ | ḥ | ḥ | | | | H | .h | H | 7 |
| خ | 062E khāʾ | x | kh | | k | ḫ ḥ | j x | K | _h | x | kh/7/5 |
| د | 062F dāl | d | d | | | | | | | | |
| ذ | 630 dhāl | ð | dh | | ḏ | | ḏ | zʼ | _d | z | z/dh/th |
| ر | 631 rāʾ | r | r | | | | | | | | |
| ز | 632 zayn/zāy | z | z | | | | | | | j | z |
| س | 633 sīn | s | s | | | | | | | | |
| ش | 634 shīn | ʃ | sh | | š | | | x | ^s | c | sh/ch |
| ص | 635 šād | sˤ | š | š | | | | S | .s | S | s/9 |
| ض | 636 ḍād | dˤ | ḍ | ḍ | | | | D | .d | D | d/9' |
| ط | 637 ṭāʾ | tˤ | ṭ | ṭ | | | | T | .t | T | t/6 |
| ظ | 638 ẓāʾ | ðˤ ~zˤ | ẓ | ẓ | | | ḏ | Z | .z | Z | z/dh/6' |
| ع | 639 ʿayn | ʕ | ʕ | | | | ʕ | E | . | w | 3 |
| غ | 063A ghayn | ɣ | gh | | ġ | ġ | g | ġ | .g | G | gh/3' |
| ف | 641 fāʾ | f | f | | | | | | | | |
| ق | 642 qāf | q | q | | | | | | | | 2/g/q/8 |
| ك | 643 kāf | k | k | | | | | | | | |
| ل | 644 lām | l | l | | | | | | | | |
| م | 645 mīm | m | m | | | | | | | | |
| ن | 646 nūn | n | n | | | | | | | | |
| ه | 647 hāʾ | h | h | | | | | | | | |
| و | 648 wāw | w, u: | w | w; ū | | | w; o | w; uu | w; U | u | w; o; ou/u/oo |
| ي | 064A yāʾ | j, i: | y | y; ī | | | y; e | y; ii | y; I | i | y; i/ee; ei/ai |
| أ | 622 alifmaddah | ʔa: | ā | ā, ʾā | | ʾā ʾā | ā ʾaa | eaa | ʾA | 4 | 2a/aa |
| ة | 629 tāʾmarbūṭah | a, at | h; t | | —; t | h; t ī | —; t t | tʼ | T | e | a/e(h); et/at |
| ى | 649 alifmaqṣūrah | a: | y | á | ā | ā | ā | aaa | _A | y | a |
| ال | alif lām | var. | al- | | | ʾal | al- al-; ál- | Al- | al- | al | el |

Our Mobiles Shall Play the Materials for Us: Strategies for Improving Speaking and Listening Competencies Using Mobiles

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Abstract

The presented paper bases its prominence on the ways of teaching how to speak and listen, using mobile phones as the medium. Mobile learning, or m-learning, is an attractive way to motivate students to acquire speaking and listening competencies. The teaching of English as a second language has witnessed a lot of changes over the years. Teaching English requires planning, monitoring and assessing students' development as speakers and listeners with effective tools and methods. M-learning is an authentic and easily accessible way that encourages students to learn unconsciously. There are activities such as narrating the video files, which students have already recorded, explaining the pictures they have etc. The recorder app in most mobile phones can also be used to record their own voice while indulging in a mock interview with other students. Individual short presentations of around one minute can also be made, which the mobile can record and can be watched afterwards to correct any mistakes made. Listening activities such as to trailers of movies, songs in English are also possible to develop interactive skills, speaking and listening. Listening to their mobiles really appeals to them and they are exposed to pronunciation in reality, without their realising. The paper is an experimental study done in classroom avenues. The paper also presents the issues come up during mobile learning.

Key words

m-learning, teaching English, teaching speaking, teaching listening

Introduction

English language teachers adopt various languages teaching methodologies e.g. Audio Lingual Method, Direct Method, Grammar-Translation Method, Community Language Learning, Natural Approach, Total Physical Responses, Communicative Approach etc. But what is more important for teachers is to decide what the most appropriate approach to teaching the language in that particular environment is and what activities are suitable for a given group of learners. The methods in an English classroom link the thoughts and the actions of the teacher to the students. As Larsen-Freeman (2000) points out, there are always 'thought-in-action links.' The author continues that as a teacher of

language, she has thoughts about the subject matter – what language is, what culture is – and about the students; who they are as learners and how they learn (Larsen-Freeman, 2000, p. 37). Hence, it is important for a teacher to become aware of how thoughts guide the actions in the classroom. This awareness examines what should be done differently, so that learners can perform better in their communicative English.

Acquiring English language is undoubtedly a result of exposure and practice. Teaching and learning become a hard task unless we choose suitable material for practicing. A constant effort is required to produce and manipulate the materials in accordance with the interests of the learners. Otherwise, it becomes frustrating and demotivating for teachers and learners as well. An agenda for exploring and supporting classroom management is the need to learn and mobile learning unveils alternative ways of learning, which can be extremely helpful when educating students. Teaching and learning through m-learning optimises the learning experiences for students and teachers alike.

Mobile learning methods, such as CALL (Computer Assisted Language Learning), can be a very effective tool in the teaching-learning process. Though technology in the field of ELT is the most explored, there is always a search for strategies in order to satisfy learners' needs. Mobile learning paves the way for a unique bank of resources to be at the students' fingertips and moves students towards language fluency in English. In today's world, millions of students use a mobile phone, which is a readily available tool to assist with improving language skills. Teachers today need to be technically equipped to be able to fulfill the demands of the learners. The students have high expectations and different experience and the teachers are expected to facilitate and support teaching to their satisfaction.

Teaching speaking and listening

Speaking and listening skills are perceived as vital communication during interviews and the importance of these skills cannot be underestimated in the present globalised job market. Employers consider that speaking and listening abilities are the measure of knowing a language and fluency is meant as the ability to converse with others, which involves both the skills of speaking and listening.

The teaching of English as a second language in India has witnessed a lot of changes over the years. Teaching English requires planning, monitoring and assessing pupils' development as speakers and listeners with effective tools and methods. However, it has failed to develop the speaking and listening competencies of learners, both at secondary and tertiary levels. The reason for

this is due to the fact that from the lower classes onwards, we test the learners' language proficiency only through conducting written examinations. Despite the importance given to speaking and listening skills the teaching of such skills is the least developed.

Only very recently, the CBSE schools and the higher secondary schools of the state boards introduced practice in oral communication. Universities and autonomous institutions introduce books for developing the communicative competency of the learners. The recent boom in the globalised job market in India has led to issues and concerns for the pedagogy involving speaking and listening skills in colleges. To enhance the status of speaking, the teaching profession needs to address these issues along with acknowledging the classroom procedures which foster interaction.

Speaking and listening through MALL

Mobile Assisted Language Learning enhances collaborative, cooperative and active learning. The learning optimises interaction among learners and critical components like speaking and listening can be effectively done by allowing mobiles to be used in classrooms. Pictures and photos are wonderful things to share among friends. Students can take photos of parts of their homes, colleges or the places they have visited and they can share the pictures with other friends for discussion. Different pictures of streets involving parts which students like or do not like can be considered for learning expressions of comparison and contrast. In pair work, two students can work on a short movie clip. One student plays the movie clip in mute mode and the other one plays the voice recorder in which the two students have already dubbed their voices. This activity particularly enables the students to pick up pronunciation and phrases of day to day life. Students can use the mobile phone camera to record role-plays and when it is played back, it is really funny for the students.

Conclusion

Mobile learning is experiencing exponential growth as it is an effective platform for the teaching-learning process. Bill Gates said "Technology is just a tool. In terms of getting the kids working together and motivating them, the teacher is the most important thing." As the saying goes teachers need to successfully integrate mobiles and strategies in teaching and learning processes. Mobile learning has been proved to be a student-centered teaching. As mobiles are easily accessible, all students can be exposed to technical advantages in learning the language. Students who do not have exposure to sophisticated technology can have their access to mobile learning. However, teachers should be

careful that mobiles are used in classrooms with utmost safeguards. Students are generally very excited about using mobile phones and they should be kept under control.

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Reviews

New Perspectives on Using Digital Technology in Inclusive Language Education

Beltrán, E. V., Abbott, C., & Jones, J. (Eds). (2013). *Inclusive Language Education and Digital Technology*. Bristol, Buffalo, Toronto: Multilingual Matters, 182 p.
ISBN: 978-1-84769-972-5

The volume edited by Elina Elina Vilar Beltrán, Chris Abbott and Jane Jones is a recent publication bringing together experts from around Europe who deal with the issue of using digital technology in inclusive language education. The work is aimed at all interested in the field of teaching modern foreign languages (MFL), special educational needs (SEN) and digital technology.

The book is divided into two parts. The first one, consisting of three chapters, outlines key issues of inclusive education, languages and digital technologies. The second one, comprising six consecutive chapters, presents a set of case studies of practices in a range of cultural contexts.

Jane Jones, Senior Lecturer in MFL Teacher Education at King' College London, opens the first part of the book with the chapter entitled *Modern Foreign Languages as an Inclusive Learning Opportunity: Changing Policies, Practices and Identities in the Language Classroom*. She reviews the changing attitudes and classroom practices regarding children with special educational needs, also referred to as children with additional support needs (ASN).

Chris Abbott, Reader in e-Inclusion at King's College London, is the author of the second chapter being his *Personal View* on and a historical outline of *Technology Uses and Language* even before the arrival of classroom computers. He particularly focuses on the response of teachers and schools to various technological developments.

The last chapter of the first part by David Wilson, *Meeting Special Educational Needs in Technology-Enhanced Language Teaching: Learning from the Past, Working for the Future*, is devoted to challenges met by teachers who differentiate their modern foreign language lessons to engage learners with special educational needs through the use of information and communication technology (ICT). Wilson's paper highlights key points to be considered when introducing ICT-assisted MFL teaching. The researcher is now retired but still

works as a volunteer in the Equal Opportunities Department at Harton Technology College in South Shields in the North East of England.

Chapter 4, the first chapter of the second part of the book, *The 21st Century Languages Classroom – The Teacher Perspective* is co-written by Elina Vilar Beltrán, a language instructor at Queen Mary University of London, and Auxiliadora Sales Ciges, Senior Lecturer in the Department of Education at Universitat Jaume I in Spain. The academics share their English and Spanish school experiences, exploring language teachers' perceptions of differentiation and modification in response to heterogeneity.

Chapter 5, by Ewa Domagała-Zyśk, a Researcher and Lecturer at the John Paul II Catholic University of Lublin in Poland, focuses on *Using Technology to Teach English as a Foreign Language (EFL) to the Deaf and Hard of Hearing*. The scholar explores the way in which technology, being also an opportunity for alternative communication, can support the process of learning EFL by students whose sense of hearing has been impaired.

Lynne Meiring, working at University of Wales and Swansea Metropolitan University, and Nigel Norman, formerly Senior Lecturer in Education (MFL) at Swansea Metropolitan University School of Education, are the authors of Chapter 6. They present *Information and Communication Technology as An Instrument for Developing Inclusive Practice in the Training of Modern Languages Teachers*. The most valuable part of this section is called *Distinctive Characteristics of ICT for all Learners* in which practical classroom examples illustrating how some student teachers have applied ICT in the classroom are presented. The examples include different types of students' needs, such as speech and learning difficulties, visual impairment, or most able and talented/gifted.

The issue of *Foreign Language for Learners with Dyslexia – Inclusive Practices and Technology* is addressed in Chapter 7 by Margaret Crombie, an Educational Consultant with specialism in Literacy Difficulties and Dyslexia and an Associate Lecturer with the Open University. Crombie highlights the areas in which learners with dyslexia find difficult and how these problems can be dealt with using appropriate technologies in order to reach a satisfactory level of communicative abilities in a foreign language.

Creative Engagement and Inclusion in the Modern Foreign Language Classroom by John Connor constitutes Chapter 8. The former head of a language faculty and local authority adviser examines the extent to which interactive Web 2.0. resources, such as websites, blogs and wikis, can be motivating for children with learning difficulties.

The final chapter by Andreas Jeitler, a specialist in the field of universal accessibility at Klagenfurt University's Library, and Mark Wassermann, Head of

the Department for the Support of Students with Disability and Commissioner for Persons with Disabilities at the University of Klagenfurt, investigates the *Conflicts between Real-Time Resources and the Storage of Digitized Materials: Issues of Copyright*. The authors consider different aspects of the process of creating accessible digital documents, taking legal solutions into consideration. They also discuss why printed media represent a barrier for the visually impaired and try to answer the question whether digital media could be a solution for such people.

To sum up, the book offers a variety of articles written by European contributors from different research establishments. Owing to this fact, Beltrán, Abbott and Jones balance the enthusiasm for technology-enhanced foreign language learning with the recognition of the inevitably existing constraints. Undoubtedly, information and communication technologies are the teaching and learning tools of this age, and thus should not be undervalued. Today's children, whether typically developing or manifesting special educational needs, are digital natives. They use computers and other inventions on a daily basis. It seems natural to them. Having understood this phenomenon, the book under discussion offers new perspectives on using digital technology in inclusive language education.

Since this volume, apart from relating to theoretical and policy framework issues, suggests practical ideas, I believe it can be a good companion to language teachers, especially inclusive ones, who would like to use digital technologies in their work with SEN children. As suggested on the back cover, *Inclusive Language Education and Digital Technology* also aims to promote discussion and collaboration within international community so as to ensure a more effective MFL learning. Likewise the editors, I hope that this publication can inspire language experts, special educational needs professionals and technology specialists to further investigate the issue of MFL teaching in inclusive classrooms.

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An Innovative, Communicative Approach to Teaching Modern Standard Arabic

Al-Absiová, E. (2013). *Arabský jazyk I. (Spisovná arabčina pre začiatočníkov)*.

Nitra: Univerzita Konštantína Filozofa, 168p.

ISBN 978-80-558-0545-0.

Eva Al-Absiová's recently published textbook, *Arabic Language I (Modern Standard Arabic for Beginners)*, written in Slovak and Arabic, represents a new and innovative approach to both teaching and learning this world language. It provides a comprehensive grounding for beginners who have an aim of achieving elementary writing skills and communicative competence. Before discussing the book both from methodological and linguistic perspective, I find it appropriate to briefly review the linguistic "state of affairs" in the Arab world.

The current linguistic situation in Arab countries is often discussed in terms of Charles A. Ferguson's *diglossia*; an umbrella term referring to the existence of two forms of language - the formal (*al-fushā*) and the vernacular (*al-'amēya*). While the former constitutes the high variety of the written, standard Arabic; the latter is considered the low, colloquial form of language. This "two-in-one" language system has significantly complicated the question of both teaching and learning Arabic. Arabic language teachers have to decide whether to take a "standard-only approach" or whether to expose their students to both standard and vernacular simultaneously. Should they take the second stance, they need to determine which of the multiple vernacular forms they want to teach (Egyptian, Syrian, Iraqi, etc.). The students, on the other hand, need to realise that if they want to be both literate and able to converse, they must learn both forms (which are often mutually unintelligible). Consequently, the question of appropriate textbooks and teaching materials has posed a dilemma for Arabic language teachers worldwide.

The textbook *Arabic Language I* represents an innovative and refreshing communicative approach to teaching this Central Semitic language. From the point of view of "al-fushā or al-'amēya dilemma", the author takes the Modern Standard Arabic (MSA) approach, imparting MSA which is to serve as a foundation for learning dialects after the learner has acquired a sufficient command of the standard forms. The primary focus is placed on teaching standard grammar and reading. However, the book places attention on the oral component of MSA as well since it includes practical dialogues simulating various

communicative situations that students might encounter in the Arab world (greetings, introducing people, communicating at the airport, at the hotel, etc.). This dialogic component is to practice learners' communicative competence and enhance their vocabulary in the respective area as the sentence structures and vocabulary is partially adapted to colloquial discourse. The prospective recipient of the book is a complete beginner who has not yet been exposed to Arabic language alphabet, which is discussed in the first unit of the textbook. The book is not intended for the students of linguistics who mostly focus on studying classical Arabic and Arabic language literature, but for those who aim at acquiring practical, up-to-date vocabulary which can be used in modern writing and an everyday working environment. Since current Central European employers demonstrate a growing interest in graduates that are fluent in Arabic, the book is a clear answer to the market demands.

This first of the three-book series is divided into 12 units. All units (excluding the first one, dedicated to Arabic script) are further subdivided into four parts – a grammatical part, a textual part, some exercises and a dictionary. The initial grammar section represents a step-by-step guide to mastering the most important aspects of MSA, including the article, number, equational and verbal sentence, perfect and imperfect tense of the strong verb forms, the genitive construction (*idāfa*), etc. The grammar presented in this initial part of the unit is further demonstrated in the textual part and practiced in the exercises. The second part provides learners with multiple texts and dialogues which provide information on Arab and Slovak geography, customs, traditions and consequently, they prepare students for future intercultural encounters. The exercises not only provide a wide variety of grammar practice but they also contain vocabulary drills enhancing the vocabulary presented in the textual part. A small number of exercises focus on the translation from Slovak into Arabic. The concluding part of the unit is a dictionary, arranged in alphabetical order. The book draws on the long-term pedagogical practice of the author who methodically and unequivocally underscores and explains the differences in meaning between the words and syntactic constructions which are very frequently confused and perceived as problematic by Arabic language learners. The appendix at the end of the textbook contains notes on writing *hamza* and specialised vocabulary lists. The alphabetically arranged Arabic-Slovak and Slovak-Arabic dictionary embraces the whole vocabulary presented in the book.

Arabic is a world language, currently spoken by approximately 220 million people. In 1983, UN adopted Arabic as its sixth official language. The European Union supports numerous projects focusing on Arab-European cooperation (e.g. EUROMED - Euro-Mediterranean Partnership). The Central European working

market demonstrates a clear-cut interest in fluent Arabic language speakers. Despite all of the above, the Slovak (and Central European) market still lacks appropriate teaching materials which would be an answer to the market demands. The new textbook is, therefore, a great contribution to Arabic language teaching. It offers a fresh, communicative approach which provides prospective learners with a step-by-step exposure to both linguistic and cultural encounters between Slovakia (Europe) and the Arab world. Having mastered the book, the learner will be able to read and understand simple Arabic texts; to translate and to write short compositions and to hold a simple conversation on everyday topics. Thus, the book prepares students for mastering not only the linguistic difficulties of MSA, but it also paves the way for them to become autonomous and self-possessed intercultural mediators between European and Arab culture.

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New Contribution to the Survey of Discourse Analysis

Bhatia, V. K., Flowerdew, J., & Jones, R. H. (Eds.) (2008). *Advances in Discourse Studies*. London and New York: Routledge.
ISBN 978-0-415-39809-1.

The publication *Advances in Discourse Studies*, edited by Vijay K. Bhatia, John Flowerdew and Rodney H. Jones, published by Routledge in 2008, brings together contributions from top scholars in the field of discourse. It is intended for academics dealing with linguistics, sociology, psychology, cultural and translation studies. as well as a source for students who can consider major approaches to the study of discourse and see its interdisciplinarity. Its main focus is on varying aspects of language use that covers conversation analysis, ethnographic-based discourse analysis, corpus-based and multimodal discourse analysis, as well as genre analysis, critical discourse analysis and mediated discourse analysis. Although in some sense these distinct approaches to discourse analysis differ from each other in terms of the objectives they serve, they are not developing in isolation, as all of them pay some attention to text and the social context. The book has a sophisticated composition providing a clear introduction to each section, followed by particular contributions and suggestions for further work, including recommended reading and case studies.

In the first approach, conversation analysts Paul Drew and Traci Curl explore the connections between syntactic form and interactional circumstances which are considered important to open up significant aspects of the interface between CA and core linguistic areas. The following study of the same approach by Maurice Nevile called “Being out of order” deals with overlapping talk that can cause trouble with airline pilots’ work. They are concerned with the sequential organisation of actions, and turn-taking, they work with their concept of the adjacency pair and view context as constructed through conversational moves.

Editors themselves explain why they start their approaches with conversation analysis and point out that “the approach to analysis and the theoretical principles of CA have been extremely important in the development of other approaches to discourse.” (2008, p. 19)

In the second section Ethnographic-based discourse analysis, the analysts consider conversations as part of a wide range of data including interviews with participants and the researcher’s subjective impressions. Their analysis relies less on actual analysis of linguistic data and more on text-external social and contextual factors. Graham Smart demonstrates how ethnographic approaches can be applied to the study of discourse use in a large financial organisation (the Bank of Canada). Together with his colleague, he also examine tertiary educational settings to understand the students’ shifts from the discursive practices expected of them at the university to those expected of them in the world of work. Based on their results, they suggest an investigation of environmental discourse. In her contribution, Angel Lin concentrates on using ethnography in the analysis of pedagogical practice.

The following three contributions dealing with reactions to criticism of corpus-based discourse analysis discuss various topics. David Y. W. Lee points to the gaps between corpus-based linguists and those who consider themselves as discourse analysts. He suggests the creation of specialised corpora designed around genres. Douglas Biber introduces his multi-dimensional analysis, then presents a study which investigates variation within a restricted discourse domain. He shows how corpus linguistics can identify discursive features in large texts. Lynne Flowerdew responds to the issue of context (lack of contextual features), examines the relationship between corpora and context through a study of a specialised corpus of environmental reports.

The following approach to discourse analysis, which is rapidly developing at present, is that of multimodal discourse analysis. The two chapters discussing this emphasise a recent shift in multimodal discourse analysis away from the abstract concept of text and towards understanding it in connection with concrete social actions. The writers explore the relationship between multiple

and interacting semiotic modes used in particular concrete settings. Singrid Norris discusses the topic of personal identity construction and illustrates what a multimodal approach can offer to understand such a complex notion, while Carey Jewitt and Ken Jones show how multimodal micro-descriptions of how discourses are realised in the classroom and can contribute to discourse theory and to educational processes.

A gradual movement away from purely textual analysis of academic and professional genres towards critical genre analysis has been given by Vijay K. Bhatia. In his chapter, he suggests the notion of “generic versatility” and underlines the integration of “discursive practice” of professionals with their “professional practices”, thus providing the real context for enactment of genres. Carol Berkenkotter points to “the importance in genre analysis of the relationship between structural properties of institutions and individual communicative actions”. Both of these writers focus on interdiscursivity and relevant aspects of professional culture and neglect lexico-grammatical aspect, which is useful in pedagogical applications.

New directions for critical discourse analysis are offered by John Flowerdew and Lilie Chouliaraki. The former claims that as CDA emphasises language power, it may focus on strategies of resistance and how these may challenge inequality and discrimination. The latter deals with the connection between media texts and social action. She outlines the “analytics of mediation” a discourse analytical methodology that helps study how the media text is put together in language and image, thus showing how CDA is moving towards multimodal discourse.

In this book, mediated discourse analysis is presented as the newest approach to discourse. It shares with many other approaches to discourse an interest in intertextuality, the ways texts are dialogically connected with other texts. Ron Scollon illustrates how the concept of intertextuality has become elaborated in nexus analysis with a relatively simple problem. He identifies nine processes of transformation or resemiotisation through which the discourse can be transformed: action, practice, narrative, authorisation, certification, metonymisation, remodelisation, materialisation and technologisation. Rodney H. Jones explores the relationship between discourse and the historical body (Scollon’s “a compost heap of social practices”) and suggests how analysts can better understand not just how discourse is transformed into social practice within the historical body, but also the historical body itself becomes a discursive tool in social interaction. He attempts to explain that people “write” their historical bodies onto situations through their mediated actions, and how people “read” through their behaviour, their speech and bodily movements the

narratives of their past experiences, their present intentions and their future plans.

The editors of the book show different approaches to discourse analysis so that readers can understand the main questions upon which these approaches diverge and what they have in common. The publication is a unique survey of the most recent advances in methodology and approach to discourse analysis.

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East, West – What is Best?

Gáfrik, R. (2012). *Od významu k emóciám. Úvaha o prínose sanskritskej literárnej teórie do diskurzu západnej literárnej vedy* (From Meaning to Emotions. A Reflection on the Contribution of Sanskrit Literary Theory to the Discourse of Western Literary Scholarship). Trnava: Universitatis Tyrnaviensis, 115 p.
ISBN 978-80-8082-527-0

Western literary theory and criticism have never been so heterogeneous and multifaceted. The twentieth century brought intense concentration on the uniqueness of literature as well as its almost total dissolution in non-literary realities, purely formal or utterly ideological engagements, local or global representations. In addition to a long and steady growth of national canons, there were also attempts to see literary works as displaying and representing larger wholes. Robert Gáfrik's work is one of these attempts – exploring literary values in the transcultural or globalising contexts, rather than in narrower national or ethnic settings. Even a passing glance at its contents will show us that what he discusses really lies in the heart of current scholars' hopes and anxieties – globalism, orientalism, comparative poetics, world literature, as well as something which may appear rather different, but, upon closer inspection, also substantially contributes to the attempts mentioned to invent a new outfit for literature – the cognitive literary studies.

In his introductory chapter, "Literary Scholarship in a Global World", he points to the fact that the content of the concepts of "literature" and "world literature", as we know them in the Western world, cannot be taken to have a universal meaning, since they "originated at the end of the 18th century in Western Europe" (p. 9) and therefore they reflect the Western thinking on literature. The existence of other cultures also means the existence of other ways

of thinking on literature. However, multiculturalism is, according to the author, also associated with relevant questions of the end of European hegemony, cultural relativism or loss of aesthetic nature at the expense of cultural contents. On the other hand, though it brings variability, realisation that the theory of literature is not restricted to Plato or Aristotle and, that in our world, there “exist literary-critical traditions which developed independently of the Western literary scholarship” (p. 11-12). The chapter provides examples especially from Indian cultural area (Sanskrit thinking on literature), which are further developed in the following chapters. However, Gáfrik suggests that the study of foreign (Eastern) literary traditions through Western terminology is problematic, and has to be done on a more sophisticated level.

The problematic nature of inter-cultural comparisons is documented on the two approaches to the concept of “orientalism” – which are elaborated by Edward Said and Wilhelm Halbfass. Gáfrik claims that the problem lies in the projection of our own (Western) expectations of a foreign culture, as is the case of Said’s work. Unlike Said, Halbfass discusses the issue on a more complex level, since he tries to avoid one-sided solutions and enters into a dialogue with the analysed culture, not seeing it just as research object. In spite of this, however, Gáfrik does not forget to draw the reader’s attention to Halbfass’s conviction that Western and Eastern cultures are no longer in an equal dialogue, since they meet “in a westernised world, under conditions imposed by a Western way of thinking” (p. 26).

The chapter “Thinking on Literature in India” is a central one, discussing the Sanskrit thinking on literature and its comparison with European literary scholarship. For a non-indologist, the chapter is undoubtedly interesting, but also quite confusing, especially because of a flood of Indian terms and concepts. Gáfrik maintains that Sanskrit literature is not associated with a written word, but rather with speech, and that the Sanskrit concept of literature is not primarily based on aesthetics – as in the West. His presentation of various opinions of Sanskrit scholars on the substance of literature shows basic differences from Western thinking, of which most important is probably the fact that the nature of literature in India lies in its power of suggestion, not being just a function of the text. The author then presents apparently the most influential Indian theory of literature – the so-called *rasa theory* based on the emotional experiencing of a literary work.

In the chapter “Sanskrit Literary Theory and Comparative Poetics”, Gáfrik tries to analyse a possibility of comparative poetics potentially able to characterise several works of literature across cultural and civilizational borders. He particularly analyses the work of Earl Miner, reflecting on his identification of

Aristotle's mimesis and its defining role in the creation, through drama, of basic concepts of Western literature, and on the confrontation with the Sanskrit identification of literature mainly with the lyric.

In the chapter "Sanskrit Literary Theory and the Concept of World Literature", Gáfrik discusses, among other things, the work of the Slovak comparatist Dionýz Ďurišin and his analysis of the concept of world literature, which was, for Ďurišin, the ultimate stage on a line progressing through the concepts of national literature and interliterary communities. It is possible to agree with Gáfrik's drawing attention to a close immersion of Ďurišin's theory in Marxist literary scholarship, as well as with his suggestion of closer affinities of Marxism with the approaches to literary study based on cultural studies. The author also, correctly in my opinion, pointed to the dynamism of the concept of world literature in the David Damrosch's *What is World Literature?* In addition to this work, however, there is another influential systemisation of the concept in the book by Pascale Casanova *The World Republic of Letters*, which is not mentioned by Gáfrik. The chapter also deals with genres and an issue of transcultural history of literature based on Anders Pettersson's *Introduction: Concepts of Literature and Transcultural Literary History*.

The chapter "Sanskrit Literary Theory and Cognitive Literary Scholarship" is concerned with an analysis of the relation of some new approaches to literature in the West, especially cognitive studies of literature drawing on defining the nature of literature through emotions, to the Sanskrit ideas of the nature of literature in which emotions also have a significant role.

In general, one can say that the work is written in a sophisticated language, showing that its author is very well informed about the latest problems facing literary studies - both in the West and in the East. In spite of the fact that there have already been attempts at interpretations using Eastern philosophical thinking, e.g. in the work of Lubomír Plesník, Gáfrik's work is unique in his emphasis on a comparative approach, which is, at the same time, aware of a danger of overgeneralisations and overinterpretations.

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