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Culinaronyms in formatting linguocultural competence in teaching Russian as a foreign language

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Abstract

Linguocultural approach is the new teaching direction in teaching Russian as a foreign language (RFL). Based on this approach, students are aimed to form a linguocultural competence. Studying scientific research show that there is a lot of linguistic units that are suitable to help students in forming their linguocultural competence. The purpose of the research is to apply the topic "Russian culinaronyms" (known as the name of Russian food) in the formation of the linguocultural competence of Vietnamese students who are learning Russian as a foreign language. The research was conducted by surveying and interviewing 26 Russian teachers in Vietnam by verifying the applicability of theory and practice of the topic "Russian culinaronyms". The research results show that the teachers think that the application of this food topic in the formation of their linguocultural competence is appropriate with high survey results. Furthermore, it reveals the linguistic and cultural dimensions from Russian culinaronyms which can be used to form a linguocultural competence for Vietnamese students. The topic "Russian culinaronyms" can be applied in extracurricular sessions for language specialized students.

Key words: linguoculture competence, linguoculture, culinaronym, Russian, Russian as a foreign language (RFL)

1 Introduction

As is known, the process of globalisation contributes to linking the environment between individuals from different countries and languages. Today, imagining any activity of an individual without its integration into the 'world space' is impossible; individuals are forced to interact with the whole world, exchange experience, improve qualifications, and receive information from the outside. It is difficult to imagine this process without an intermediary language (Statsenko & Baskov, 2015). In addition, the goal of teaching a foreign language is not only the teaching of communication, but also the destruction of negative ethnic stereotypes by expanding and clarifying knowledge about representatives of other

ethnic groups. Moreover, expanding objective knowledge about another culture is an effective method of mitigating the cultural shock that often occurs in the process of immersion in a foreign ethnic culture. Therefore, the duty of teaching language, including teaching Russian as a foreign language (RFL), includes forming knowledge, ability, and skills for students.

The main purpose of foreign language teaching is to equip students with communicative competence. To meet this target, students need to develop other sub-competences to create communication skills. The Communicative competence includes the following skills: linguistic, linguocultural, cultural, strategic, conversational, and social competences (Statsenko & Baskov, 2015). Among these competences, lingvocultural competence plays an important role in contributing to success in communication.

According to Tomakhin (1996), 'acquaintance with the culture of the studied country language has been one of the main tasks since antiquity'. He also notes that the teaching of languages today is not developed without cultural commentary.

Many researchers note that language acquisition without the knowledge of culture is not enough to ensure effective contact between representatives of different nationalities and languages. In addition, the problem of taking into account the characteristics of students as a subject of learning is also important from the standpoint of anthropocentrism. As a result, attention to three factors – language, culture, and personality – make it possible to form and improve linguocultural competence, which is understood as knowledge of the entire system of cultural values expressed in the target language (Baturina, 2003; Kiseleva, 2004; Vorobyov, 1997).

Researchers emphasise that a deep and comprehensive study of a foreign language is impossible without the student's acquaintance with national traditions, and without immersing them in the historical and cultural context of the country of the studied language. Thus, the problem of the formation and development of LC of foreign students is one of the most relevant in modern methods of teaching a foreign language and, in particular, Russian as a foreign language (Chechik, 2019).

One of the topical directions in the framework of linguoculturological research is the study of the interaction of languages and cultures, which reflects the complex process of comprehension and acceptance by native speakers of another culture— understood quite broadly: there are folk traditions, a national mentality, religious attitudes, etiquette rules, and much more (Mikheeva, 2013)

The formation of a secondary linguistic personality in the course of learning a foreign language, including Russian, is closely related to the development of a foreign culture. Therefore, the problems of intercultural communication are becoming especially relevant for foreign students studying within the walls of a

modern Russian university. As these problems as manifested here are rather specific, it is appropriate to go from general theoretical provisions to the practical side of the issue.

The purpose of this study is to build quality for students' RFL based on basic teaching materials, such as the names of Russian food. On this basis, in order to achieve the purpose of the research, it is necessary to satisfy a number of requirements such as: researching LC trends in teaching RFL, studying the properties of culinaronyms in accordance with the application of LC teaching, and researching the benefits to the knowledge and skills of students after learning the subject of culinaronyms.

2 Literature review

2.1 Linguocultural competence and its role in RFL

Linguocultural competence is an integrative, multidimensional, social, and individual-personal cognitive phenomenon. To denote this concept, Gorodetskaya proposed the term 'linguocultural competence'. According to the philologist, the difference between cultural competence and linguocultural competence is the difference between a part and a whole: linguocultural competence is that part of cultural competence that determines the communicative behaviour of a person within the framework of another linguoculture (Gorodetskaya, 2009).

LC is considered as the possession of basic characteristics, including both reflecting knowledge and the knowledge of language and culture, which reflects the mentality, spirituality, and the national specifics of the given society (Khalupo, 2012). This definition is considered reasonable as it reflects the link between culture and language and is arguably the most basic before fully approaching other LC issues.

LC's role in foreign language teaching is seen as the key to successful communication in the foreign language being studied. Only through the conscious mastering and motivated use of elements of linguocultural competence in the communication process is it possible for a future qualified specialist to participate in the 'dialogue of cultures' both at the everyday level and at the level of professional communication. Linguocultural competence includes knowledge and skills related to the selection, assimilation, processing, transformation, and use of information about linguoculture in practice, as well as the experience of intercultural communication and personal qualities necessary for its successful implementation in a different linguistic culture. Its professional aspect is knowledge about a different linguoculture and the norms of interaction with its representatives within the framework of a foreign language professional society, the ability to effectively communicate, and individual professional qualities necessary for the implementation of professional activities.

LC acquisition is said to be a long process in developing the connection between culture and language that makes up the second linguistic personality, after the linguistic character background created by the mother tongue. V.A. Maslova in a textbook on cultural linguistics notes that it is necessary to solve specific problems concerning this science, namely 'is there, in reality, the cultural and linguistic competence of a native speaker, on the basis of which cultural meanings are embodied in texts and recognized by native speakers. As a working definition of cultural and linguistic competence, we take the following: it is the natural possession of a linguistic personality by the processes of speech production and speech perception and, most importantly, mastery of attitudes to culture' (Maslova, 2001). Furthermore, linguocultural competence is one of the most important for a specialist in the field of linguistics, that is, language from the point of view of their theory and practice. Linguocultural competence involves the formation of a knowledge base of educational culturological material among students, the mastery of a minimum of general literary vocabulary, the knowledge of language means (phonetic, lexical, and grammatical), allowing entry into the process communication, the construction of one's life in accordance with the spiritual and moral, ethical, aesthetic, and creative potential of the conceptual sphere of national culture deployed in the linguistic consciousness (Zakirova, 2011). It provides a process of linking culture and language to help teachers reach individual students, helping them to perfect each step in order to achieve LC skills. LC is also aimed at the formation of ethnic tolerance, which is one of the most important tasks of teaching foreign languages in modern conditions (Tereshchenko at. el, 2018).

One of the options for minimising culture shock and facilitating the adaptation of a foreign student is to introduce a model into the learning process that can be integrated within the framework of teaching various disciplines when teaching foreign students to form objective ideas about the linguistic consciousness of native speakers and the characteristics of the national linguistic personality; skills of joint activity and communication according to the rules of a foreign language society; verbal communication skills using foreign language means. Thus, we see that linguocultural competence is aimed at an activity approach, allowing the acquisition of the ability to use the knowledge gained in practice during intercultural communication and in international communication (Tereshchenko at. el, 2018).

2.2 Culinaronyms as a linguistic unit for formation of linguocultural compentence

The thematic based linguocultural units can be similar to the linguistic units of other nations and cultures, but often in essence and content, they will differ, since each culture and nation has its mentality, worldview, foundations, morals, customs, and traditions. This is due to various reasons such as historical

development, and the influence of political, social, cultural, and social factors. Basic linguocultural units should reflect both cultural, political, social, economic, educational, historical, and other aspects of life, as well as national consciousness, mentality, and a national idea of the modern society (Khalupo, 2012).

There are many ways of developing students' linguocultural competence, such as, for example, mastering speech etiquette and national stereotypes of speech behaviour; the study of linguistic units with a national-cultural component of semantics as sources of extralinguistic information; reading the original texts reflecting folk traditions, folklore, spiritual culture of the country of the target language; watching films in a foreign language, listening to radio broadcasts and reading articles from newspapers and magazines, performing linguistic and cultural tests, crosswords, conducting quizzes, and much more (Baskova, 2013). In fact, these theoretical issues can be found in some research which uses a linguocultural approach, such as: The study of toponyms in French lessons as a way of forming linguocultural competence (Kravchenko, 2018); Improving the linguocultural competence of Korean students in teaching Russian communication (Won Young, 2008); Forming linguocultural competence in the study of Russian literature (Krilova, 2015); Forming linguocultural competence in the study of the anthroponymicon of the novel Crime and Punishment by F.M. Dostoevsky (Vasilievna, 2012); The formation of linguocultural competence of foreign students on the basis of 'artistic culture' in St. Petersburg (Teremova, 2017); Music of Russian cinema as a means of socio-linguocultural adaptation of foreign students (Ignatiev, 2014); and Formation of linguocultural competence of foreign students by means of Russian phraseology (Ziryanova, 2014).

By the 'basic units of LC' (basic linguocultural units) we mean the main components of the language system (key words, phrases, phraseological units, and precedent texts) reflecting the national and cultural specifics of society, determined by the system values of society and allowing the individual to ensure the development of abilities, the formation of a worldview and spirituality, all worthy preparation for their life in society. Accordingly, the culinaronym is a suitable vocabulary unit to deploy in the next direction that requires LC, as it relates to history, culture, and cuisine.

In Russian linguistics, the term 'realities-words' is used, which means an object of material culture (Akhmanova, 1966; Ozhegov & Shvedova, 2000)As is widely known, the names of dishes refer to this layer of vocabulary, since each name of a culinary product is followed by a dish. Consequently, the culinary name itself is closely related to the culture of the people. We can say that the culinary name is adequate for the teaching of a foreign language according to a linguocultural approach, in particular, in teaching Russian as a foreign language.

According to Tursunov, realities, including culinary names, contain content such as geographical, ethnographic, socio-historical, mythological, and folkloric

elements (Tursunov, 2015). Culinary names, in turn, reflect such contents as follows:

Contents	Culinaronyms
Geographic	Origin of dishes (original, borrowed dishes)
Ethnographic	What holidays accompany each dish?
Socio-historical	Time of the appearance of traditional dishes; what events are associated with such dishes?
Mythological	What myths are associated with traditional dishes?
Folklore	Type of folklore: sayings, phraseological units. What are the semantic meanings of culinary names in phraseological units?

Tab. 1: Realities and their related fields

An important element of the methodology for the formation of linguocultural competence is the means of assessing its formation. At the same time, the means of assessing the level of competence formation can be used not only to determine the level of competence formation achieved by the student, but also as a teaching material that expands students' knowledge of the linguistic culture of English-speaking countries, and for the self-reflection of all participants in the educational process. Analysis of the results of the implementation of the methodology, and analysis of the level of competence formation can affect the teacher's choice of materials for use in the process of organising work with students to increase the level of their linguocultural competence (Shanina, 2016).

Based on the direction of building a language culture for students in an environment other than a foreign language, knowledge and skills in foreign languages and cultures need to be achieved through the culinaronyms topic lectures.

a) Traditions (or stable elements of culture), as well as customs and rituals: The dishes are associated with the culture of a specific festival
b) everyday culture, closely related to traditions, as a result of which it is often called the traditional everyday culture: Dining culture in Russia
c) everyday behaviour (habits of representatives of a certain culture, norms of communication adopted in a certain society), as well as the associated mimic and pantomimic (kinesic) codes used by bearers of a certain linguocultural community: Dishes that often appear in Russian meals; the order of the food in Russian culture
d) 'national pictures of the world', reflecting the specifics of the perception of the surrounding world, national peculiarities of thinking of representatives of

a particular culture: The role of traditional dishes in the Russian mind, the symbolic meaning of each Russian food name
e) artistic culture, reflecting the cultural traditions of a particular ethnic group: The value and meaning of the idioms in the names of Russian food

Tab. 2: Cultural knowledge and skills based on the material of Russian culinaronyms

The above tables shows that culinary names are closely related to the cultural values of the people, and also express cultural content in a multifaceted sense.

3 Methods

First stage: This phase investigated the linguocultural characteristics of "Russian culinaronyms" to provide the foundation for building questionnaires for lecturers. In terms of linguistics, the names of Russian food relate to theoretical aspects such as vocabulary origin, idiomatic meaning, inner meaning and the syntactic relationship between the elements in the name of a dish, all of which are developed into linguistic theories that can be communicated to students at the elementary level.

In terms of cultural knowledge, it is possible to introduce culinary and culinary related topics such as: traditional Russian festivals, culinary customs, and cultural concepts of the name of the dish.

From the linguistic and cultural theoretical foundation, teaching models were built including various implementation forms such as presentations, games, role-playing, watching videos and cooking to create an environment for students to develop their literary language skills on the basis of the theme "Russian culinaronyms".

Second period of research: the study explores the views of teachers of Russian language in Vietnam on the appropriateness of the topic "Russian culinaronyms" in the formation of linguocultural skills of students. To serve the design of highly effective extracurricular lessons, teachers' wishes about the contents of the future lectures were investigated. To this end, the questionnaire builds on similar previous studies on appropriateness determination when constructing a new learning topic for students, but with different subject topics. This questionnaire was then evaluated for content suitability by a linguist and an educator. The questions are logically organized, and designed according to the standards of sociology. The questionnaire consists of 2 parts (Appendix A). The first part contains a question related to the necessity of the topic (Need, Required, Normal, Not really necessary, Don't need). The second part consists of 16 questions divided into 4 themes (categories): theme A - the expectation of knowledge contents with 4 questions (Origin of word; Meaning of phraseology; Etimology of Russian

culinaronyms; Syntaxis relation between component's culinaronyms); theme B - cultural knowledge and skills (Russian traditional festivals; Russian etiquette; Reaction to every traditional culinaronyms); Theme C - forms of organizing an extracurricular course on food vocabulary (slideshow, discussion, games, quiz, cooking); theme D - desired goals (Linguistic knowledge; Cultural knowledge and skills; Atmosphere of class with a variety of form organizing; Communication with the others). The questions in the second part are only used on the audience. To objectively evaluate the suitability of the topic "Russian culinaronyms" in the formation of cultural and language skills, each question is evaluated by lecturers on a Likert scale of 5 points from 1 (very unlikely) to 5 (very likely).

Subjects participating in this study are 26 Russian lecturers from 4 major universities in Vietnam including Ho Chi Minh City University of Social Sciences and Humanities, Ho Chi Minh City University of Education, Danang University and Hanoi University of Foreign Languages. Participants were recruited through an online survey from July 7, 2020 to July 24, 2020 using an online questionnaire developed by the Google Form platform. Links to the online questionnaire will be sent to participants via email provided by the university, via messages on Facebook, or posts in student study groups in the above schools.

Collected data are processed via Excell version 2013 system. Descriptive statistics calculation includes mean value, standard deviation, and frequency to represent the inter-inverter of the study. In addition, over 26 lecturers among the trainers who responded to the survey were interviewed to gain a deeper understanding of the contents and reasons for their choices to help increase their credibility, and form a theoretical basis for the research results of the topic.

4 Results and discusion

4.1 The appropriateness of the topic "Russian culinaronyms" in the formation of linguocultural competence:

As noted above, forming LC for specialist language is a very important task in RFL training, in which the transmission of information towards personality formation in a second language is of particular interest. So what information is recommended to students in order to achieve the above aim? With the topic of culinaronyms, it is necessary to exploit in any aspect to achieve the purpose of this direction. The research results on the names of Russian food have shown two important areas: linguistics and culture.

In this way, the implementation of approaches and forms with linguistics and culture is specifically considered to indicate the appropriateness of the culinaronym topic in developing a second cultural capacity for foreign students.
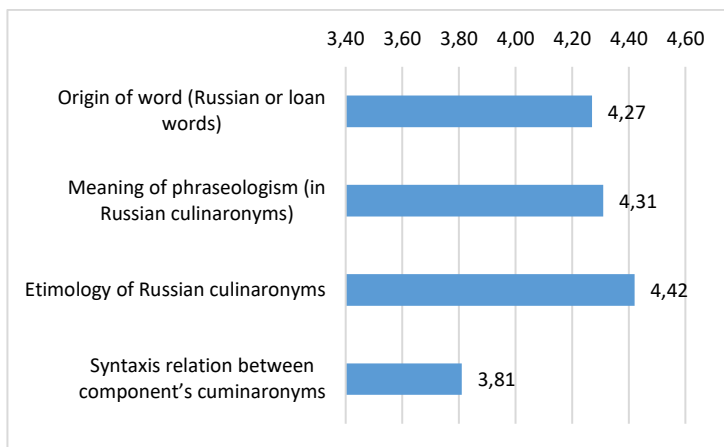
Fig. 1: Level of the adequation from language knowledge

The general average point of language ability formation through the topic "Names of Russian food" is appreciated by the teacher as high (overall mean: 4,2). The item "Etymology of Russian culinaronyms" is selected as the highest one compared to other items (Mean: 4.42). This explains that specialized knowledge appeals to students and it opens the closeness behind the complexity of the lexical meaning; students learn that the first meaning of traditional names is very closely associated with culinary content. Interviewee 10 thinks that "the inner meaning" is the most interesting part of the linguistic aspect, which can be reached by students since its peculiarities lie in the fact that every inner meaning of traditional Russian culinaronyms is related to the culinary field. This makes students aware that from lexical perspective a lot of words can not be understood by modern Russian language as long-time existence in language takes out their lexical meanings". Other items which follow closely behind are "vocabulary origin" and "idiomatic meaning" (Means: 4.27 and 4.31 respectively). These two contents are relevant, and easy to grasp to convey to students. The least expected point is "Syntactic relationship between the elements in the name of the dish" (Mean 3.81). Regarding teaching RFL, Baltayeva at el stated that syntax is the most complicated discipline. Introducing syntax aspects is under consideration in this context. Sharing the same idea about teaching syntax from Russian culinaronyms the interviewees responded as follows: Interviewee 10: "I think syntaxis relation between components' culinaronym is the less important dimension. It is not suitable to be introduced to students in the context of the lesson "; Interviewee 5: "The three first dimensions could get more attention from students while syntax may be skipped in the context of applying this topic to form LC".
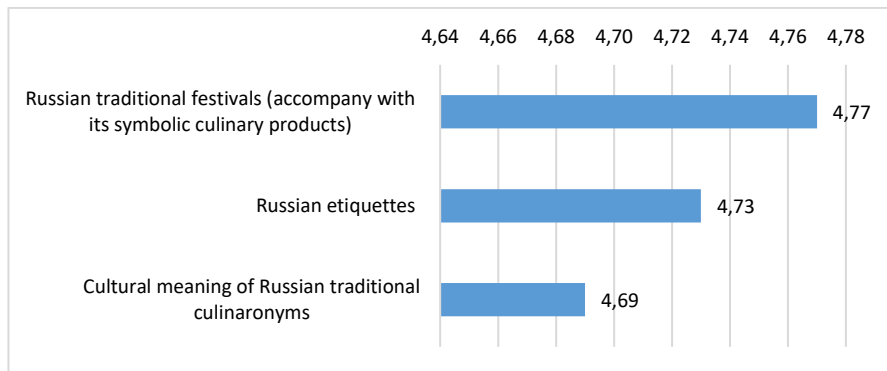
Fig. 2: Level of the adequation from cultural knowledge

The overall mean of cultural knowledge is exceptionally high (4.73), which indicates the teacher's desire to form students' cultural competencies in language communication. Terms of application of the topic show the importance level in the formation of linguocultural competence. Interviewee 8 said: "Extremely suitable! Cuisine is the crystallization of culture and through the name of a dish, we are introduced to and learn more about that culture, not just the ingredients, taste, and processing of that dish. Therefore, the introduction of cultural factors to students such as names of Russian dishes associated with traditional festivals, behaviors in culinary culture and cultural significance of the dishes' names are inseparable steps in the formation of cultural and linguistic competencies in Russian language students ". All 3 items of cultural dimensions obtained from Russian culinaronyms have high means with the first position occupied by "Russian traditional festivals" (4.77), following closely behind are "Russian etiquettes" (4.73) and "Cultural meaning of traditional food" (4.69). Interviewee 10 said: "In my opinion, the above contents are necessary to integrate into the lectures, making the lecture more lively and interesting. These contents provide students with knowledge about the country, people, culture, thinking, rituals, cuisine, and Russian traditions, which they can compare with Vietnamese culture to create meaningful and interesting arguments, seminars. In my opinion, all 3 contents above are attractive, important and practical". The content believed to be most likely to convey are "Russian cultural festivals". This is intriguing information that specialist language students should grasp. In terms of communication, students can easily exchange, grasp the situation and psychology and communication situations when mastering this cultural knowledge.

The other dimensions, namely "Russian etiquette" and "cultural meaning", represent behavioral capacity which is very important when students know

cultural information related to the topic of "cuisine" such as the culture of dining in the cafeteria, banqueting, and behavior when being invited as a guest. These knowledge foundations will help students to behave appropriately in different communication situations.

4.2 The ability to form cultural and linguistic competencies at the practical level
The important task of language culture direction is to create conditions for students to practice and create situations for students to apply knowledge of language literature, from which students will have more advantages in language communication with cultural and linguistic capacities formed through the content of the lectures applying the topic "Names of Russian food". Regarding the methods of transmitting information for the topic of culinaronyms, in addition to presenting vivid visual applications (such as projectors and videos), attention should be paid to combining this with other methods such as games and role-playing to increase classroom interaction and maintain the pace of the lectures, as shown in the table below:

Presentation	Linguistic and cultural knowledge
Games	-match the name of the dishes and the corresponding festivals; -match the name of the dishes and their original meanings
Role-playing	Organise seminars and role-playing situations so that students have the opportunity to use the knowledge of cuisine in communication, such as: + in a cafeteria + at a restaurant + while having dinner at a Russian house
Watching video	About cultural issues in Russian daily life
Cooking	Cooking simple, Russian traditional dishes in class

Tab. 3: Types of activity in the context of teaching culinaronyms

Therefore, one of the tasks of the initial learning process becomes overcoming communication barriers, that is, preparing students for effective intercultural contacts at the level of everyday interpersonal communication, in real speech situations (communication with teachers, employees of the dean's office, dormitory workers, classmates, etc.). It is no coincidence that at this stage a lot of attention is paid to oral speech methodological techniques such as role-playing games, and a variety of dialogues that stimulate students to have active speech activities. For the same purposes, periodically a lesson or part of it is held in the library, in the university museum, and even in the buffet. Also, Russian students

are sometimes involved in the work to create natural conditions for intercultural communication.
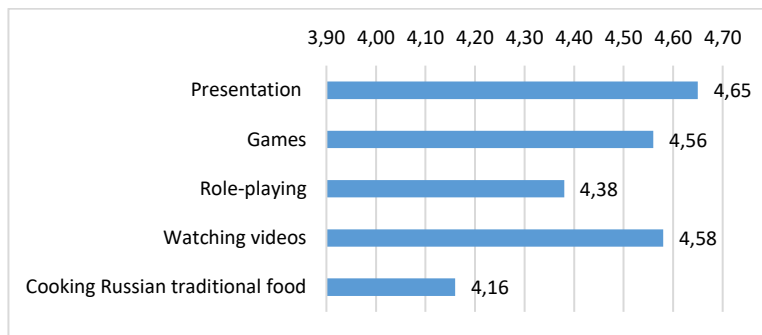

Fig. 3: Types of activity using in the lesson

The survey results show that the overall mean of "types of activity using in the lesson" is 4.47. Teachers' responses show that the most important form in organizing a lesson on the topic "Names of Russian food" is a presentation (Mean 4.65). They thought that presentation is a form that can convey all the content, helping students to use all skills to convey information. They assumed that watching a video is a less effective form because it takes up a lot of time, the teacher is very passive, and the information is wasted from the video.

In addition, in the framework of LC, students can experience theory and practice plans, of which practical skills are an important factor in forming linguocultural competence. This means that learners are allowed to participate in a real environment to experience the cultural values they are learning. After this process, learners will use the experience and knowledge to convey in their professional activities. Through the teaching model of Russian food names, students directly gain experience through communication activities in different situations related to cuisine. Familiar communication situations such as ordering food in the cafeteria, ordering food in a restaurant, being invited as a lunch guest at a native's house help students of RFL develop communication skills, behavioural integrating knowledge of culinary culture from the language learned. In addition to role-playing communication, the classroom should have the facilities to provide a real culinary experience, in other words, the organisation of cooking and enjoying traditional Russian dishes in the classroom space. The effect of this experience will help students to become acquainted with the Russian culinary worlds through their senses. The more senses involved in the perception of culinary phenomena, the longer the students are likely to remember the linguistic and cultural elements of the lesson (Shaklein, 2008).

4.3 Targets student can get in the context of this topic

The overall average rate of the will to achieve goals for language knowledge, cultural and interpersonal skills, and classroom space experience is 4.58 (instructors). This rate is relatively high, demonstrating the ability that the title "Russian food names" brings to students through the formation of cultural language skills. Teachers believe that students will gain more cultural skills than others (4.86). It has been proved that the material "Names of Russian food" will bring appropriate cultural knowledge and skills to help staff meet the requirements in forming language skills in the subject context of cuisine.
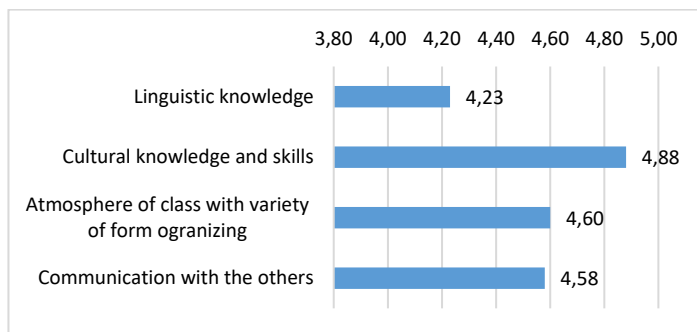

Fig. 4: Targets of students' achievement

Interviewee 11 said: "With the topic related to the names of the dishes, in my opinion, the knowledge that students gain most will be related to culture, because often with this topic, teachers will use images to make students remember the characteristics of the dishes, which is easier than remembering the names of those dishes. Thus, after acquiring cultural knowledge, students can acquire vocabulary items related to the topics, make conversations or presentations, improve listening and speaking skills (mainly to achieve the purpose of communication without paying too much attention to grammar) The least optimal solution is reviewing language knowledge. The reason, in my opinion, is that with the mentality of Vietnamese students, for such interesting topics, cultural knowledge will be more easily accepted than language knowledge, and this topic is more oriented towards cultural knowledge"

The teachers thought that reviewing foreign language knowledge is the least desired goal (4.19). Therefore, it is necessary to design the linguistic and cultural content arrays appropriately for this model to be implemented effectively. The allocation of time and content should be studied on the development of cultural knowledge and skills from the topic "Russian culinaronyms".This section may be

divided by subheadings. It should provide a concise and precise description of the experimental results, their interpretation as well as the experimental conclusions that can be drawn.

Conclusion

The approach to language culture is considered to be a new, practical trend in foreign language teaching methods, especially the teaching of Russian as a foreign language. The approach aims to equip students with cultural knowledge and skills on the linguistic basis of that culture so that students can understand the second personality of that foreign language. It is not just language theory and basic communication; it seeks to create an understanding of thinking, and the worldview of the language created by native speakers. This helps to reach other cultures without any barriers. Based on the topic "Names of Russian food", the cultural and linguistic arena? is conveyed through the Russian culinary cultural space, creating a premise for the development of other topics in the process of teaching Russian as a foreign language, thus promoting the exploration and discovery of cultural aspects based on language materials, asymptotic to new foreign language teaching methods. The results of the study provide one more topic that can be applied to the teaching of the Russian language to help students form linguocultural competence.
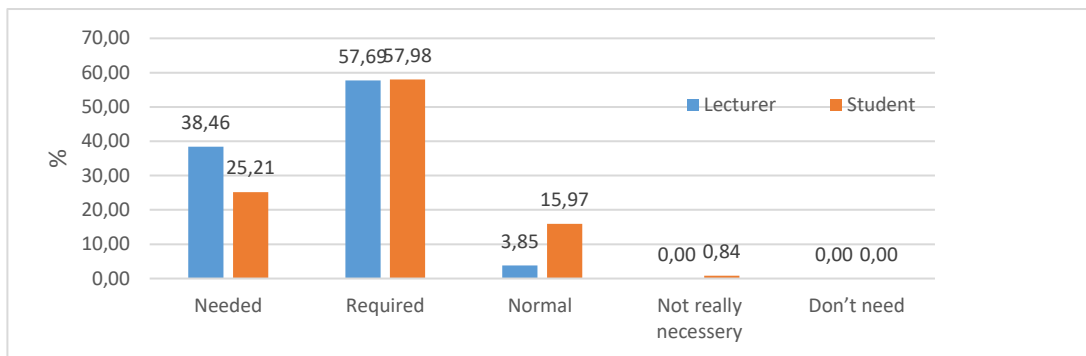
Recomendations:

Fig. 5: The necessity to develop the topic

The results of the survey show that there is a negligible difference in the opinion that the topic "Names of food" is suitable to develop in the direction of developing cultural and language skills for students. 95.25% of lecturers and 83.19% of students confirmed that the level "very necessary" and "necessary" to

hold the lesson with the topic "Russian culinaronyms" in Vietnamese audience. Only 4.76% of faculty members and 15.97% of students said that at the "normal" level. At the "not really necessary" and "unnecessary" levels, no teacher and only 0.84% of students chose this category. It shows that from a pedagogical perspective, lecturers think that the topic "Names of Russian food" should be organized and this topic is necessary to develop to form students' cultural and linguistic skills. In addition, the majority of surveyors see the compatibility level of this topic with the deployment of the linguistic culture model and find that the theoretical basis of this topic is suitable for implementing the linguistic culture model.

Limitations

In this study, we only survey the opinions of Russian language teachers in Vietnam about the appropriateness of the topic "Names of Russian food". If possible, in future studies, we will investigate the appropriateness of this topic when being taught face-to-face at language-specific students' classes.

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Appendix A: Questionnaire

Using culinaronyms for forming linguocultural competence in teaching Russian as foreign language.

Please fill the blanks below. This questionnaire includes 5 questions.
Question 1: Choose the most suitable answer.
Questions 2 to 5:
Very unlikely 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 very likely

Question 1: Which degree do you think is necessary to develop the topic "Names of Russian food" to form cultural and language skills of RFL students?
- Needed
- Required
- Normal
- Not really necessery
- Don't need

Question 2: What level of the following language knowledge do students want to achieve through the topic "Names of Russian food":

Origin of word (Russian or loan words)	1	2	3	4	5
Meaning of phraseologism (in Russian culinaronyms)	1	2	3	4	5
Etimology of Russian culinaronyms	1	2	3	4	5
Syntaxis relation between component's cuminaronyms	1	2	3	4	5

Question 3: To what extent do students want to achieve the cultural knowledge and skills below:

Russian traditional festivals (accompany with its symbolic culinary products)	1	2	3	4	5
Russian etiquettes	1	2	3	4	5
Cultural meaning of Russian traditional culinaronyms	1	2	3	4	5

Question 4: To what extent do students want the following types of class organization to develop

Presentation	1	2	3	4	5
Games	1	2	3	4	5
Role-playing	1	2	3	4	5
Watching videos	1	2	3	4	5
Cooking Russian traditional food	1	2	3	4	5

Question 5: What goal can students achieve in the lesson with the topic "Russian culinaronyms" and to what extent?

Linguistic knowledge	1	2	3	4	5
Cultural knowledge and skills	1	2	3	4	5
Atmosphere of class with a variety of form ogranizing	1	2	3	4	5
Communication with the others	1	2	3	4	5

The perceptions of intermediate EFL learners to the lexical instructional intervention

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Abstract

This study investigated the perceptions of high school EFL learners to the lexical instructional approach intervention in the contexts of learning vocabulary and grammar. Besides, an attempt was made to explore what difficulties the participants encountered during the experimentation. The data collected through the questionnaire were analyzed using a one-sample t-test, and the results showed that the estimated sample perception mean score was significantly higher than the hypothesized population perception mean score. This implies that EFL learners had positive perceptions towards the lexical instructional approach in the contexts of learning vocabulary and grammar. The data collected through interviews were analyzed qualitatively and the findings showed that students enjoyed and were interested in learning vocabulary and grammar through the lexical instructional approach. Students realized the importance of lexical chunks in learning vocabulary and grammar. In this regard, the interview results corroborated the results obtained from the questionnaire. Students encountered difficulties like lack of lexical awareness, lack of clear and adequate instructions on some activities, the lack of deliberate attention from some students during discussions, the lack of making some activities more interactive and engaging, and some classroom managerial problems. Finally, it was recommended that EFL teachers at high school should design their lexical approach-based activities systematically by considering their students' interests, feelings, perceptions, levels, norms, cultures, and psychological setups.

Keywords: lexical instructional approach intervention; perceptions; vocabulary components; grammar components; difficulties encountered

1 Introduction

The ever-growing need for good communication skills in the English language has created a huge demand for teaching this language around the world. Millions of people today take different opportunities such as formal instruction, study abroad, media, etc. to improve their command of the English language. From these

opportunities, the first one is highly required to target an enormous ultimatum for quality language teaching and language teaching materials (Richards, 2006). Concerning formal instruction, there are different teaching approaches and methods which have been used to teach the English language in different contexts and settings. For instance, from the grammar-translation method to the communicative approach, there had been situations in which many English language teaching methods and approaches have been used in EFL/ESL classrooms. The lexical approach is one of the communicative approaches that is being practiced these days.

There have been theoretical reasons that clearly show how the lexical approach becomes real in ELT world. Firstly, the development of corpus linguistics theory, for instance, different corpus-based pieces of evidence began to state the major role of lexis in languages. These computer-based research findings also began to show how to treat lexis and grammar together in ESL/EFL contexts. Some innovative developments took place in lexicography which involved, as Carter (2001, p. 43) puts it, "extensive corpora of spoken and written language and the creation of sophisticated computer-based access tools for such corpora" in the late 1980s and 1990s. Examples of such developments are the Collins Birmingham University International Language Database (COBUILD) project at the University of Birmingham, UK, in the late 1980s which influenced all other subsequent researches in EFL lexicography, Cambridge International Corpus, British National Corpus, etc. There are rich examples of authentic, natural language use with which corpora provide us evidence of what native and non-native speakers of English use the language. Besides this, these corpora show an effectual description of the English language to be the basis of the lexical syllabus. The empirical data offered by these corpora studies enabled researchers to study the behaviour of words and expressions which in turn led them to question the traditional notions about the primacy of structure in language and language pedagogy.

Secondly, there is a good psycholinguistic basis for believing that the mind stores, retains, and processes lexical chunks as individual wholes; there is less demand on cognitive capacity when lexical chunks are processed (Schmitt & McCarthy, 2000; Nation, 2001; Nation, 2005; Junying & Xuefei, 2007; Lewis, 2008; Bircan, 2010; Tremblay et al*.,* 2011). These psycholinguistic assumptions, stating on the role of chunks to process information with fewer efforts, were examined through practical interventions. Thus, based on the theories of corpus linguistics and psycholinguistics, the notion of the lexical approach became a groundbreaking issue worldwide. Then, the dominance of structure and/or the relegation of words was highly opposed by Lewis (1993) who put forward his lexical approach-- focusing on developing learners' lexical proficiency as an alternative to grammar-based approaches that focus on structures. Briefly speaking, the lexical approach, in second language acquisition, is an approach that concentrates on the role of lexis

in English language learning rather than a focus on structure (Lewis, 1993; Barcroft, 2004). Lexical approach as an approach considers the use of chunking and collocations at the center of language teaching; it assumes that students learn bundles of words and collocations to improve their language proficiencies (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Scrivener (2011) points out that this approach also emphasizes that learners need to have more exposure and experimentation with the language rather than following the more traditional methodology of "Present-Practice-Produce paradigm" (p. 32). This does mean that with the combination of chunking, exposure, and experimentation students can improve their target language through lexical items, for example looking at groups of words instead of individual word meaning (Scrivener, 2011).

What is more, the Lexical Approach introduced a new paradigm for second language education, claiming that language consists of grammaticalised lexis, not lexicalised grammar (Lewis 1993). More clearly, grammaticalized lexis refers to a word grammar approach in which the learner moves out from a word to discover its collocations and dominant grammatical patterns. For example, take this utterance: My mother holds very strong views on the subject of marriage. From this sentence target language learners notice that we can 'hold a view' that 'a view can be strong' and the word view is followed by the preposition 'on'. This leaves the learner with a chunk of a language: to hold very strong views on (something). Grammaticalized lexis which is sometimes referred as Word grammar approach tends to dissolve the strict dichotomy that we draw between grammar and vocabulary. Whereas, lexicalized grammar refers to the traditional 'slot and filler' approach in which prominent structures such as the tenses are highlighted. For example, in a typical lesson on the present perfect tense, the target language is presented with: I have been to ..., but I haven't been to ...yet. Here, the learner is encouraged to complete this frame with suitable vocabulary items. For example, I have been to America, but I haven't been to Italy yet. Thus, the lexicalized grammar which is sometimes referred to as the slot and filler approach enables the target language learner to produce huge amounts of grammatically well-formed language.

Generally, as Lewis (1993, 2008) indicates, Lexical Approach emphasizes grammaticalizing language from words to sentences which is a reaction to the traditional grammar-based approach (structural syllabus). From a lexical theory point of view, in our contexts, we believe that the current grade nine EFL textbook and the methodology lack the notion of grammaticalizing lexis (Addisu, 2020). According to the findings he obtained, the Ethiopian grade nine EFL textbook and the syllabus were devoid of the features of lexically-based teaching and learning. The no attention paid from the part of material developers, syllabus designers, educators, etc. for the lexical chunks including collocations, lexical grammar, colligations, or in general word grammar shows how the English language is

viewed and taught unnaturally in Ethiopian contexts, as the findings of the preliminary study demonstrate. Arising from this gap, we assert that it needs to prepare lexically-based teaching material and implement it so that to examine the perceptions of EFL learners towards the lexical instructional intervention. Thus, this study intends to study the perceptions of learners towards the lexical instructional intervention in the contexts of learning vocabulary and grammar and the difficulties that learners would probably encounter during the intervention. In Ethiopia, we believe that studies on perceptions of learners to the lexical approach in relation to teaching language skills need to be accustomed because this instructional approach is a novel way of teaching language. In line with this, provided that the notion of lexical chunks has been established in theories of language and second language acquisition, empirical research into the most effective ways of teaching formulaic sequences/chunks remains limited (Boers & Lindstromberg, 2012). Studying the perceptions of EFL learners towards the lexical instructional approach is not paid due attention as well. This means, although lexical chunks are recognized in second and foreign language contexts, studies were not carried out on the roles of the lexical chunks and their teaching could contribute to students' English language learning and what perceptions learners would have towards the instruction in the Ethiopian contexts. Therefore, the current study is an attempt to bring a new paradigm shift in terms of viewing and teaching language in general and vocabulary and grammar in particular.

The paradigm shift might be a remedial action to EFL learners' problems as regards lexis and grammar. In this regard, therefore, different scholars state that grammar and vocabulary are not emphasized in EFL/ESL classrooms, particularly in unison as per the theory postulates. For instance, Nunan (1989) reveals "the status of grammar in the curriculum was rather uncertain for some time after the rise of CLT" (p.13). Again, Lewis (1993) describes, "There have been changing trends - from the grammar-translation to direct method to the communicative approach - but none of these has emphasized the importance of learners' lexical competence over structural grammatical competence" (p. 115). Lewis reveals that functions without lexis are no better than structures without lexis. Harmer (2001) shows "Activities in CLT typically involve students in real communications, where the accuracy of the language they use is less important than the achievement of the communicative task they are performing" (p.85). Likewise, Schmitt (2000) explains that the communicative approach focuses on message and fluency rather than grammatical accuracy; it also gives little guidance about how to handle vocabulary.

Therefore, we argue that the way grammar and vocabulary are treated is not enough in communicative approaches. For instance, Burn (2009) indicates that CLT downplays the role of grammar in language learning-it is dangerous to teach grammar. Norris and Ortega (2000) also indicate that a focus on meaning alone is

not sufficient; instruction that includes a focus on form is required too. In communicative approach, vocabulary and grammar are not yet treated in the required manner. In relation to this, Meara (1980), for example, called vocabulary a neglected aspect of second and foreign language (L2/FL) learning. Yet in recent research in various types of ESL classes, Folse (2010) concluded that vocabulary is indeed still neglected by many teachers, as the amount of "explicit vocabulary focus in a week of classes he observed was surprisingly low" (p. 139). The advocates of the lexical approach state that the central basis of language is lexis, so there needs to raise in the awareness of learners concerning the importance of lexical chunks; nevertheless, in the case of Ethiopian EFL classroom contexts, this is not the reality (Addisu, 2020). Because of this, we claim that Ethiopian EFL learners have lexical and grammatical problems in their receptive and productive skills. This might have come from the distorted perceptions of learners to the instruction. Even though not from lexical approach perspective, previous local studies on vocabulary (e.g. Minda, 2003; Hailu, 2007; Ismael, 2007; Gebreegizabiher, 2016) and grammar (e.g. Kidist, 2007; Abebe, 2013; Bayissa, 2013; Yemeserach**,** 2015**)** reported that EFL learners do have the lexical and grammatical problems.

However, internationally, there are research works that were conducted on the impact of lexical approach/lexical chunk instruction on the learners' vocabulary and grammar knowledge. For instance, to mention some of them, Seyedrezaei and Ghezelseflou (2015) found out that collocational instruction had significant effects on learners' vocabulary learning and retention. Furthermore, Reza and Ashouri (2016) reported that teaching vocabulary through collocations could improve learners' vocabulary learning. Again, Xu et al (2012) and Rahimi and Momeni (2012) reported that using lexical approach and collocations (respectively) have positive effects on learners' English language proficiency in general. Therefore, what makes the current study different from the international studies is that it intends to examine the perceptions of EFL learners to the lexical instructional approach intervention regarding learning vocabulary and grammar components and the difficulties that learners probably encounter during the intervention that would be conducted at Fasilo General Secondary and Higher Education Preparatory School found in Bahir Dar City, Amhara Region, Ethiopia. Likewise, this research work is dissimilar from local studies on its perspective (i.e. from lexical approach outlook). To the best of our knowledge, there is no research work conducted on this area in Ethiopia, and it is the first reason why we became motivated to investigate our study on it.

The second reason that inspired us to do our work in this area is because of different research findings that previous international researchers found so that the issue is still unsettled. For instance, Rahimi et al (2012) conducted their experimental study on the impact of lexically-based language teaching on Iranian

high school students' achievement in learning English as a foreign language, and they found that there is a significant difference between the two groups' achievement in favour of the experimental group in learning vocabulary and reading but not in grammar. Besides this, Yu (2013) investigated from memorized chunks to rule formation: a study of adult Chinese learners of English, and found out that the participants in the memorization groups had difficulty in inducing rules successfully based on the initial memorization of unanalyzed chunks in contrast to their counterparts in the instruction group. On the other hand, Hyun-Jeong (2013) implemented the lexical approach to teach grammar for Korean students, and the findings show that there is a positive effect of the Lexical Approach on Korean L2 learners' grammar learning. The third reason that pushed us to focus on this topic is the scholarly suggestions which come from known vocabulary expert, Nation. He added that: "From a vocabulary learning point of view, we need research into collocation to tell us what the high-frequency collocations are, to tell us what the unpredictable collocations of high-frequency words are, to tell us what the common patterns of collocations are where some examples of that pattern would need special attention but where others could be predicted based on this previous attention, and to provide dictionaries or information for dictionaries that help learners deal with low-frequency collocations" (Nation, 2001, p. 529).

Thus, even if the Lexical Approach plays a part in enhancing target language learners' vocabulary and grammar acquisition, it is not known and investigated yet in Ethiopia. Then, we understand that conducting a study on the perceptions of learners to the lexical instructions in the contexts of teaching and learning the lexical and grammatical components of the English language, like the case of the current research work, may alleviate the problems that EFL learners have. In this regard, theorists in CLT advocated that using lexical items as a starting point and then "showing how they need to be grammatically modified to be communicatively effective" is vital (Widdowson, 1989, p. 95). The lexical approach is the middle ground for what the communicative approach lacks or gives less value for vocabulary and grammar (Lewis, 2008). Thus, the present research work intends to examine how the lexical instructional approach intervention affects the perceptions of EFL learners towards learning the vocabulary and grammar components.

2 Literature review
2.1 General overview of the lexical approach

During the 1990s there was an increased interest in vocabulary teaching and learning. Vocabulary teaching aspects like meanings uses, and forms (spoken and written) were considered (Nation, 1990, 2001). At the same time, the advent of corpus linguistics and the COBUILD project of John Sinclair (1987) gave new

impetus to theories on language acquisition. The studies then put forward a theory that is almost contrary to Chomskyan theory of language which holds the view that native speakers have a capacity of creating and interpreting unique sentences which they have never heard or produced previously. Moreover, Chomskyan theory believes … "linguistic competence consists solely in the ability to deploy an innate rule-governed sentence-making capacity" (Thornbury, 1998, p. 8).

However, with the advent of corpus-based analyses, many linguists departed from the Chomskyan view to uphold the new theory of language i.e. lexically-based instruction. According to Lewis (1993), the lexical instructional approach focuses on developing learner's proficiency with lexis, or word and word combinations. The Lexical Approach as a way of teaching language is devised by Lewis who views that language consists not of traditional grammar and vocabulary but often of multi-word prefabricated chunks. His idea is that an important part of language acquisition is the ability to comprehend and produce lexical phrases in such unanalysed 'wholes' – chunks (any pairs or groups of words which are commonly found together or in close proximity).   If the lexical approach is all about lexical chunks and/ or collocations, it is better to elaborate on the meanings of such concepts. Many attempts have been made to define lexical chunks. A chunk is "…a unit of memory organisation, formed by bringing together a set of already formed chunks in memory and welding them together into a larger unit" (Newall, 1990, p. 124-125). Becker (1975) defines lexical chunks as a particular multiword phenomenon and presented in the form of formulaic fixed and semi-fixed chunks.

Nattinger and DeCarrico (1992) describe them as chunks of the language of varying length and each chunk has a special discourse function. Biber et al (1999) define them as "recurrent expressions regardless of their idiomaticity and regardless of their structural status" (p. 990). Yet again, Wray (2000, p. 465) added a mental explanation to the definition saying that: "a lexical chunk is a sequence of prefabricated words that are stored and retrieved as a whole from memory at the time of use." It is possible to put and generalize all these definitions as lexical chunks are a group of word combinations that frequently occur in a language with special meaning and function. As to Lewis, language is first about meaning, and meaning is primarily connected with the lexis. His term – lexical chunk – covers all the other terms connected with parts of language: words, collocations, fixed expressions, prefabricated phrases, multi-word phrases. Lewis's theory follows from the language research that was based on the large computer–based corpora (collections of natural written and spoken text).

2.2 Lexical approach to teaching vocabulary and grammar

Lewis (1993) states in his book that the lexical approach aims to cultivate target language learners' communicative competence, the same as the communicative approach. Hence, the advocates of the lexical approach argue that

a large proportion of language is composed of meaningful lexical phrases that, when combined, produce coherent and idiomatic texts (Pawley & Syder, 1983). As to them, the lexical approach focuses on developing learners' proficiency through lexical chunks. Consequently, EFL/ESL teachers should concentrate on fixed or semi-fixed expressions that occur frequently in the language. From a lexical approach perspective, learning and teaching lexical chunks can cultivate the sense of language and improve language skills. Lexical chunks play central roles in language acquisition and teaching; lexical chunk instruction is beneficial to raise the students' vocabulary learning efficiency and strengthening their grammatical knowledge (Lewis, 2008).

What is more, lexical chunk teaching has always been one focus of this study, as Lewis (1993) put forward the so-called "lexical approach" centered on vocabulary, he argues that the emphasis should be put on such multi-word chunks as collocation, fixed expressions, and sentence builders, etc. and advocating the direct teaching of prefabricated lexical chunks in the classroom. Yazdandoost et al (2014) reveal that knowledge of collocation, for instance, can be a predictor for all four language skills; it is proved to be a prerequisite for successful language learning. Tenets of the lexical approach indicate that lexical chunks/lexical items play central roles in the teaching of vocabulary and grammar. Gries (2008 cited in Ziafar, 2015) maintains that corpus linguistics, from which the lexical approach has been based, refutes the separation of syntax and lexis, i.e. syntactic and lexical development are not as independent from each other; they are connectively treated.

2.3 The interconnectedness of vocabulary and grammar
Different studies show the unions between vocabulary and grammar since they are inseparable by their nature. There are arguments for this. For example, corpus studies, based on large collections of authentic text from a range of different sources, have provided massive evidence for the interdependence of lexis and grammar (or vocabulary and syntax). These studies have demonstrated that two areas that have traditionally been kept apart, both in language pedagogy and in linguistic theory, are inseparable. The study of large-scale language corpora, for example for the Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English by Biber et al. (1999), has revealed that syntax and the lexicon should not be regarded as independent components. Empirical investigations of large amounts of texts have shown that particular structures of English grammar tend to co-occur with restricted lexical classes because both the structures and the lexical classes serve the same underlying "communicative tasks or functions" (Biber et al., 1999, p. 13). As an example illustrating their point, they show that say and other verbs from the same semantic domain (such as declare, recall, note, or warn) introducing reported speech, in particular, occur with that clauses.

Furthermore, as far as linguistic theory is concerned, "there are two opposing views concerning the relationship between syntax and the lexicon" (Rome & Schulze, 2009, P. 70). The first group, formal, post-structuralist approaches, generative grammar in particular (of Chomskyan tradition), regard the vocabulary and grammar as different and separate components of the language faculty. Even, in the standard version of generative grammar (i.e. Minimalism), grammar and lexicon are strictly distinguished: grammar consists of principles and rules that account for the systematic or general properties of language, whereas the lexicon contains all idiosyncratic information, i.e. information that cannot be derived from general rules (Chomsky, 1995, 2000).

The second group, cognitive linguists working in the various offshoots of construction grammar propose a syntax-lexicon continuum. This group argues that words and complex constructions are both combinations of form and meaning and differ only in internal symbolic complexity. In this concern, Construction-based theories have abandoned the categorical division between lexicon and grammar (Langacker, 1987a; Goldberg, 1995). Since both words and grammatical constructions are considered symbolic units (i.e. form-function pairings) they are uniformly represented in this approach. Specifically, grammar is seen as a continuum ranging from isolated words to complex grammatical assemblies (Langacker, 1987a). Idiomatic expressions are part of the grammar-lexicon continuum; in fact, idioms (one of the fixed expressions in the lexical approach) have played a key role in the development of this conception of grammar (Fillmore, Kay, and O'Connor, 1988). According to Halliday (1966), language is organized in terms of lexicogrammatical features, rather than independent lexis or grammar. This perspective emphasizes the idiomatic nature of language, especially the dependent relationship between vocabulary and the grammatical system. Vocabulary items are not always single items or simply 'Content words'. They can involve multiword units, such as idioms, clichés, or fixed expressions that have both consistency of form and meaning (Cruse, 1984).

From the perspective of lexicographers, it is indicated that dictionaries do not only provide grammatical information at the level of individual entries in the form of part of speech specifications, but especially pedagogical dictionaries also include information on phrasal verbs, idioms (and other set phrases), and above all, collocations. Grammatical information is particularly relevant in English learners' dictionaries. Thus, all the aforementioned ideas support the notion of Lewis who claims that the grammar/vocabulary dichotomy is invalid: much language consists of multi-word chunks. Depending on this view, we would generalize that it is better to teach both vocabulary and grammar in unison rather than as presented in traditional course books.

2.4 The needs to chunking

The concept of chunking has played a major theoretical role in cognitive psychology (Miller, 1956). This scholar introduced the concept of 'chunking' in his paper entitled "The magical number seven, plus or minus two". Chunking refers to a strategy for making more efficient use of short-term memory by breaking down large amounts of information into smaller chunks. Chase and Simon (1973 cited in Moeller et al, 2009) suggested that the capacity of short-term (working) memory is limited to seven items or chunks that are the formula 7 ± 2. Yet, chunking had been used to model a wide variety of memory phenomena (memory organization); however, in recent years, chunking has also been proposed as the basis for a model of human practice (Newell &Rosenbloom, 1981; Rosenbloom & Newell, 1987a).

Mainly, Newell and Rosenbloom (1981) changed this concept into a model of practice by describing how performance could be improved by the acquisition of chunks that represent patterns of objects in the task environment. Even though it is believed that short-term memory is limited to seven items only, the notion of vocabulary items or chunks varies. According to Moeller et al (2009), chunking can mean both the breaking down of large amounts of information as well as grouping small chunks into larger categories. The main reason for the need for chunking vocabulary items is that the ability to break large language chunks into smaller ones and to group small chunks into larger ones extends the process of retention of information and allows for greater compression of information in working memory (Kalivoda, 1981).

2.5. Major approaches for the chunking

There are three major approaches to help learners chunk known components of words and word combinations (Nation, 2001), including *chunking through fluency development*, *chunking through language-focused attention*, *and memorizing unanalyzed chunks*. To explain each briefly, the first and most important strategy is to help students develop the skills and knowledge that make it more efficient for them to chunk language items in larger units. This fluency development is likely to some degree skill specific so that learners would need to have fluency practice in listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Schmidt (1992) presents a comprehensive survey of a wide range of theories which can be used to explain fluency development. The most accessible theory that describes the development of chunking through fluency development is McLaughlin's (1990) *restructuring theory*. The second major approach to help learners to chunk is through deliberate language-focused attention. This attention can involve practice in chunking text containing familiar items, and the deliberate teaching and learning of collocates of known items. This can include "the use of concordances, matching activities, and the development of collocation tables" (Nation, 2001 p. 542). The third one that Nation (2001) indicates is memorization of unanalysed

chunks which is an important learning strategy. This strategy can be applied to both regularly formed and irregularly formed chunks.

2.6 The relationships between an instructional approach and students' perceptions

The concept of perception can be defined by different scholars in different ways. For instance, the Collins Essential English Dictionary (2006) describes perception as an insight or intuition and/or it is a way of viewing. According to Woolfolk (1995), perception can be defined as "an interpretation of sensory information" (p. 245). She elaborates that the word perception is defined as an opinion or belief which is held by people on how they view something; this means that people can have different perceptions based on their individual views. Perception is the process by which the sounds of language are heard, assimilated, and understood (Allotte, 2001). According to this expert, advanced research studies in cognitive neuroscience show that what our eyes see and what our brain interprets of that sight are entirely two different things. The Merriam-Webster Online Thesaurus (2009) defines the word perception as it is the ability to understand inner qualities or relationships. Besides this, it defines the concept of perceptions: it is the knowledge the individuals gained from the process of coming to know or understand something. Therefore, it can be generalized that perception is a uniquely individualized experience towards something.

Therefore, from all these, perception can be explained as the sensory experience of the world and it involves both the recognition of environmental stimuli and actions in response to these stimuli. In the context of this study, perception can be defined as the students' opinions, beliefs, feelings, and understandings about the lexical instructional intervention. Language acquisition or learning happens through the efficient efforts made and by imbibing data through different perceptions Allott (2001). It is a known fact that the teaching approaches and methods can affect the attitudes, beliefs, and perceptions of EFL learners positively or negatively. If they influence the learners' perceptions positively, for instance, learners may like to learn the required language components in a good manner since their interests and motivations are already increased. If the opposite exits, the learners may not like to learn. Therefore, this study attempted to answer the following two research questions and one hypothesis:

Q1: What perceptions do EFL learners have towards the lexical instructional approach intervention as regards learning vocabulary and grammar?

Q2: What difficulties do EFL learners encounter concerning learning vocabulary and grammar through the lexical instructional approach intervention?

H0: There is no statistically significant difference in the perception mean score of students to the hypothetical value.

3. Method
3.1. Mixed methods design

We adopted an explanatory sequential mixed methods design which consisted of first collecting quantitative data and then collecting qualitative data to help explain or elaborate on the quantitative results (Creswell, 2012). In the context of the current study, the first research question was answered with the questionnaire and the second research question was answered with the interview. Because we placed a priority on quantitative data (QUAN) collection which was followed by the qualitative data (qual) and analysis (Creswell, 2012), an explanatory mixed methods design was the best fit. As was the case in the current study, the intention of using the qualitative data was to refine the results obtained from the quantitative data; this refinement results in exploring a few typical cases, probing a key result in more detail, or following up with outlier or extreme cases (Creswell, 2012). More elaborately, the qualitative data (i.e. gathered through an interview) were employed to explore the experiences of the experimental group on the lexical instructional approach during the intervention. By taking nine student samples from the treatment group consisted of 48 students, the participants' perceptions, problems they encountered, and their overall suggestions on the intervention were probed. The overall procedures of using the explanatory mixed methods design is displayed in the following figure.
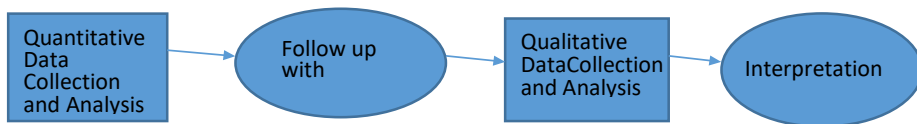
Fig. 1: Explanatory Sequential Design (adapted from: Creswell, 2012)

3.2. Research setting and participants

The study was carried out at Fasilo General Secondary and Higher Education Preparatory School, found in, Bahir Dar City, Amhara Region, Ethiopia. The participants of the study were at intermediate level (grade nine), Amharic native speakers. Their ages ranged from 15-19. The number of participants of the study consisted of 48 students. Concerning the process of choosing the participants, there were 16 sections for grade nine students at this school. From these sections, two sections (Section H and Section F) were selected by using a simple random sampling technique. However, the participants of this study were only one section (Section H) which was randomly assigned to the experimental group after we checked the homogeneity of the two sections with pretests. Then, this group was the exclusive group exposed for the intervention. The control group (Section F) was not considered in this study because it did not receive the treatment. This

group was not instructed through the lexical instructional approach intervention, so it was excluded from this study. Thus, this study emphasized on investigating the students' perceptions towards learning vocabulary and grammar through the lexical instructional approach and the difficulties that the treatment group encountered during the experimentation.

3.3 Data gathering instruments

To collect data for the study, a questionnaire and interview were employed. A questionnaire was administered at the end of the treatment to have the participants' perceptions towards the lexical instructional approach. Such a tool is common in investigating both the attitudes, motivations, and perceptions or beliefs of a certain group towards something. In this regard, Mackey and Gass (2005) indicate that questionnaires are commonly used in language learning research to investigate perception, beliefs, and motivation concerning classroom instruction from a large number of participants. This questionnaire was prepared after critically looking at the literature related to this topic. The questionnaire consisted of 20 items. It was prepared by systematically adapting procedures from Jiemin (2006). Even though it was adapted from this researcher, reliability analysis was conducted. It was found that the Cronbach's Alpha value was 0.762. The items were formulated as statements about English language vocabulary and grammar teaching and learning through lexical instructional approach, and respondents (i.e. the experimental group consisted of 48 students) were requested to respond to the statements using a Likert Scale comprising from 1 to 5 which means 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Undecided, 4 = Agree, and 5 = Strongly Agree. Regarding to the nature of the student questionnaire, the items included in it were detailing about what the respondents' experiences looked like on the lexical approach instructional intervention during the experimentation. The items requested the respondents to put a tick on one scale from the given five ones (scales). These items were about the perceptions that the participants held regarding lexical approach intervention provided during the experiment. The questionnaire prepared in English language was translated into the students' native language that is Amharic for the sake of avoiding the linguistic barriers that the respondents possibly face.

Another data gathering tool was an interview. Interview is a bilateral conversation initiated by the interviewer for particular purpose of obtaining relevant information for research objectives (Cohen et al., 2005). It involves data gathering through direct verbal interaction between researcher and informants, usually serving three purposes. It could be used as the principal means of gathering information having direct bearing on the research objectives by providing access to measure what a person knows, likes or dislikes, and thinks; to test hypotheses or to suggest new ones, or to help identify variables and

relationships; and to validate other methods, or to go deeper into the motivations of respondents and their reasons for responding as they do (Cohen et al., 2005).

We employed a semi-structured interview. We conducted such an interview in order to gain a deeper understanding of issues that the questionnaire may not investigate in detail. Therefore, the data gathered through student interviews were supposed to complement the questionnaire and to obtain more in-depth information on the students' (experimental group's) views of the experiences of learning vocabulary and grammar through the lexical approach. In using a semi-structured interview, a set of pre-prepared guiding questions and prompts are used, but the format is open-ended and the interviewee is encouraged to elaborate on the issues raised (Dornyei, 2007). We had reasons for using a semi-structured interview. The first reason was that this kind of interview offered participants the opportunities to freely elaborate their perceptions and feelings. The second reason was that it enabled us to supplement the designed interview guides with various inquiries so that rich and deep information about the issue under investigation would be obtained. Thus, for an interview purpose, nine students were randomly selected from the experimental group which consisted of 48 students. Such types of selected students were interviewed to know their perceptions on the lexical instructional approach (i.e. implemented during an intervention and the difficulties they encountered).

3.4 Preparation of intervention material

We prepared the intervention material with the viewpoint of the lexical approach. The material prepared for the intervention reflected the pedagogical importance of chunks in EFL/ESL classrooms. According to Lewis (1993), pedagogical chunking should be a frequent classroom activity, as students need to develop an awareness of language to which they are exposed and gradually develop ways, "not only assembling parts into wholes but also identifying constituent bits within the whole" (p.195). We adapted and incorporated different activities from Lewis (2008) such as *intensive and extensive listening and reading in the target language*; *first and second language comparisons and translation--carried out chunk-for-chunk, rather than word-for-word--aimed at raising language awareness, and repetition and recycling of activities*.

Besides this, we focused on the activities like *guessing the meaning of vocabulary items from context*, *noticing and recording language patterns and collocations*, *working with collocation dictionaries and other reference tools*, and *working with concordance programs created by the teacher for use in the classroom or accessible on the Internet,* etc. while preparing the intervention material. The primary purpose of incorporating such activities in the teaching material was to raise students' awareness of lexical chunks, rather than teaching different ways of constructing sentences. We depended on different sources to prepare the material

like*: The Lexical Approach: The State of ELT and a Way Forward* by Lewis (1993), *Teaching collocation: Further Developments in the Lexical Approach by* Lewis (2000), *Implementing the Lexical Approach: Putting Theory into Practice* by Lewis (2008*), Rules, Patterns and Words: Grammar and Lexis in English Language Teaching by* Willis (2003), *Oxford Collocations Dictionary: for Students of English* (2003), *Teaching lexically: Principles* and *Practice* by Dellar & Walkley (2016), etc.

3.5 Intervention

The intervention lasted for sixteen weeks. The experimental group students were instructed by using the new teaching method (the lexical instructional approach). The intervention was carried out starting from October 14, 2019 - February 8, 2020. The time taken for one session was about 45 minutes and four days in a week. After we trained the teacher experimenter about the techniques how to implement the newly designed intervention material, the intervention went on. To avoid artificiality and bias, we believed that the teacher experimenter was the best fit to conduct the intervention. To proceed with the intervention, the teacher experimenter together with us prepared lesson plans. Unlike the PPP (Present –Practice -Produce) teaching methodology which is being practiced in the conventional teaching method, the study followed the OHE (Observe - Hypothesize- Experiment) teaching methodology. Thus, the teacher experimenter was advised in the training to follow the observation-Hypothesis-Experiment model which was adapted from Lewis (1993). The diagram is designed as shown below.
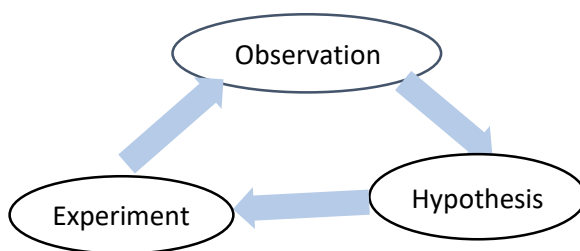

Fig. 2: Intervention Framework (Lewis, 1993)

To describe each of the phases, in the observation stage, students were presented with oral and written input. In the second phase students compose a hypothesis about principles based on the perceived linguistic behavior, and in the experiment phase, learners test their theories in a communicative context.

4 Findings

In this section, the data collected through student questionnaires and interviews were analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively respectively. The questionnaire consisted of 20 items with a five-point Likert Scale rating system as Strongly Agree = 5, Agree = 4, Undecided = 3, Disagree = 2, Strongly Disagree =1. Following the completion of the lexical approach instructional intervention, the questionnaire was administered to the experimental group only since it was this group that was taught the vocabulary and grammar lessons lexically or with the lexical approach-based teaching. The questionnaire took 45 minutes to complete. Then, the data gathered through the questionnaire were transformed from Likert Scale Data type to Continuous Data type. Since presenting the results of the data collected through this tool (i.e. questionnaire) with frequencies and percentages could not help us to statistically infer something from the overall population, the categorical data (a five-point Likert Scale) were transformed into continuous data.

There are arguments between experts about the necessity of converting the Likert Scale Data into Continuous Data. The first group argues that as ordered categories, the intervals between the scale values are not equal, any mean, correlation, or other numerical operation applied to them is invalid. Thus, according to this group, the only opportunity that researchers can do is to conduct non-parametric statistics on Likert scale data (i.e. Jamieson, 2004). Whereas, the second group argues that while technically the Likert scale item is ordered, using it in parametric tests is valid in some situations. In this regard, Lubke and Muthen (2004) indicate that it is possible to find true parameter values in factor analysis with Likert scale data, if assumptions about skewness, number of categories, data distribution normality, etc., are met. Furthermore, this group rationalizes that the fact that Likert or ordinal variables with five or more categories can often be used as continuous without any harm to the analysis the researchers plan to use them in (Norman, 2010; Sullivan & Artino, 2013; Zumbo & Zimmerman, 1993). Therefore, the present researchers hold strong views in that converting Likert scale data into continuous ones is an enabling technique to generalize something arising from the given findings. Following the transformation of Likert Scale data into continuous data, the one samples t-test was an appropriate analysis technique to run. While researchers were doing this, all the assumptions of the t-test were taken into account. Thus, the purpose of transforming Likert Scale data into continuous data was to examine whether or not there were statistically significant differences between the estimated sample mean and the population mean concerning the perceptions of EFL students toward the lexical approach as an instructional intervention.

However, there are no research works which could show the population mean on perceptions of EFL/ESL students towards the lexical instructional approach in the contexts of vocabulary and grammar learning. That means, the population

mean was not known, but we postulated it depending on literature. The procedures of hypothesizing the population mean were as follows: The rating system of the five-point Likert Scale included Strongly Agree = 5, Agree = 4, Undecided = 3, Disagree = 2, and Strongly Disagree =1. Then, each of the scales were computed and divided by the number of scales (five) which results in (5+4+3+2+1)÷5 = 15÷5 = 3.00**.** Therefore, the population mean was hypothesized as 3.00. Considering this, the following tables show the one sample t-test results of the analysis of the questionnaire.

Before the analysis of the data collected through the questionnaire, the assumptions of one sample t-test were checked. The first assumption, sample drawn from the population should be random, was considered based on the nature of the design of this study. From the 16 sections of grade nine students at Fasilo General Secondary and Higher Education Preparatory School, two sections (Section H and Section F) were selected using a simple random sampling technique even though the respondents of this study were the experimental group students (Section H) only. Thus, the assumption was met. The second assumption of one sample t-test was that the dependent variable should be continuous. In the case of this study, the perception scores ranged between 20 and 100 were obtained by multiplying the total number of the items of the questionnaire (i.e.20) by the minimum (i.e. 1) and the maximum (i.e. 5) scales that the participants tick respectively. Hence, the assumption was met. The dependent variable should be normally distributed, was the third assumption of the one sample t-test. Concerning the perception score distribution, the following table shows tests of normality.

Tests of Normality					
	descriptives			Shapiro-Wilk	
	Skewness	kurtosis	Statistic	df	Sig.
Perception score	-0.301	-0.342	0.982	48	0.657

Tab. 2: Tests of normality for one-sample t-test results of the Questionnaire
*. This is a lower bound of the true significance.
a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

As shown in the above table, the values of skewness and kurtosis were -0.301(SE = 0.343) and -0.342 (SE = 0.674) on students' perception scores respectively. The Shapiro-Wilk results of tests of normality showed that the distribution of students' perception scores were not significant (i.e. df = 48, p>

0.05) with the p-value of 0.66 approximately. Furthermore, data (perception scores) were inspected by using the following histogram.
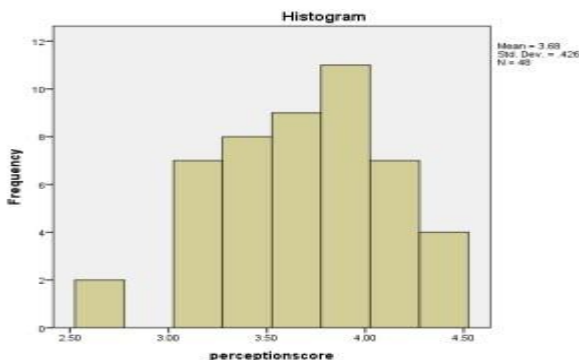
Graph 1: One sample t-test, test of normality of the distribution for the students' perception scores on questionnaire

As the above graph shows, the distribution of students' perception scores seemed to be normal, and the shapes of the curve was approximately symmetric and normal. Therefore, the assumption was not violated. The other assumption of one sample t-test, there should not be outliers, was checked using the following boxplot.
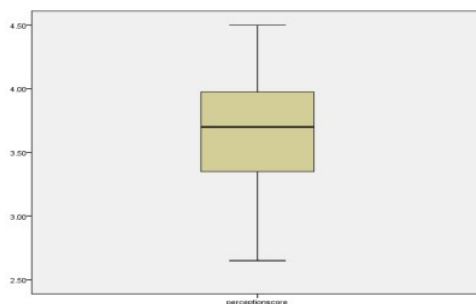
Graph 2: Checking the t-test outliers for the students' perception scores on questionnaire

The boxplot illustrated in the above indicates that there were no significant outliers and extreme scores located. Thus, the assumption, there should not be outliers, was met. After checking all the assumptions, one sample t-test was run in order to analyze the data gathered through the questionnaire so as to answer the first research question: "*What perceptions do EFL learners have towards the lexical instructional approach intervention as regards learning vocabulary and grammar?*"

The results obtained from the student questionnaire concerning the perceptions of the students were presented by using table 3 below.

One-Sample Statistics				
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Perception score	48	3.6771	0.42614	0.06151

Tab. 3: The descriptive statistics results of student questionnaire

One-Sample Statistics table in above indicates that the students (N =48) approximately registered the mean and standard deviation of 3.68 and 0.43 respectively in terms of the perception scores. The perception score mean (i.e. 3.68) was mathematically higher than the hypothesized population mean (i.e. 3.00). However, the descriptive statistics results obtained from student questionnaire could not show us whether there were statistically significant differences between the population mean hypothesized and the sample mean so that one sample t-test was performed to verify this. The table below illustrates this.

One-Sample Test					
	Test Value = 3.00				
					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Lower Upper
Perception score	11.008	47	0.000	0.67708	0.5533 0.8008

Tab. 4: The one-sample t-test results of the student questionnaire

As presented in table 4 above, the perception score was statistically significantly higher than the hypothesized population mean score, with $t(47) =$ 11.008, $p = 0.000$. The Sig. (2-tailed) value is 0.000. Therefore, from this, it can be concluded that there was a statistically significant difference between the estimated sample mean and the hypothesized population mean concerning students' perceptions scores. The participants had higher perception scores which impliedly meant that their perceptions were positive, or they had positive

perceptions towards the lexical instructional approach through which they were taught vocabulary and grammar.

Likewise, the data gathered through the semi-structured interview from nine participants were analyzed qualitatively. The interviews were performed in Amharic with the interviewees' presence one by one. On average, each of the interviews lasted about 12 minutes. Regarding the process, the interviews were audiotaped, transcribed for further analysis, translated into English versions and then put thematically. During the process, follow-up questions were asked in order to gain more insights into participants' responses (Lai et al., 2016). Students from the experimental group were interviewed how they experienced the lexical approach intervention like how they perceived the instruction provided, whether it was interesting for them, and if they have brought about a change due to their exposure for the instruction. What is more, they were interviewed on what difficulties they encountered while they were learning and so on. For the sake of clear understanding, the interviewees were simply designated as Student 1, Student 2, Student 3, Student 4, Student 5, Student 6, Student 7, Student 8, and Student 9.

Concerning the interview question, "How do you perceive the techniques that you have been taught vocabulary and grammar (during the experiment)?" student1 (she) was opinionated that the techniques that she has been taught these language components were better and interesting for her. As she explained, she herself could search for things like grammar components from texts and dialogues as well as new lexical chunks without much help of the teacher in recently implemented techniques unlike the previous classes in which she had expected much from her teacher. Impliedly, the way vocabulary and grammar lessons presented for the students seemed to be practical for them to learn independently. Therefore, an independent learning appeared to be reflected in their EFL classrooms during the delivery of the lexical instructional approach. However, in the recent classes (i.e. during the experiment), this student revealed again that there were some shortcomings from the teacher side; for instance, the teacher did not pay due attention for all students. This student intended that the teacher experimenter did not catch the attention of those students who were poor in their achievements.

Student 2 (she) believed that the techniques were interesting since she has been taught vocabulary and grammar lessons with examples and texts. What is more, when she was discussing the activities in the group, she was happy and were not afraid of saying something. However, corresponding to what student 1 revealed, student 2 (she) confirmed that some students were not paying attention to the lessons while the teacher was teaching them. At that time, the teaching was not participatory because only some actively participating students were engaged. As to her, even though the teaching techniques that she has been taught vocabulary

and grammar were interesting for her, she claimed that the teacher looked ignorant to manage and enable all the students to be engaged. Likewise, another interviewee (she) replied: The language components have been presented for us in a good manner, and they have been interesting (student 3). This student seemed to have no clear idea on the instruction provided vis-à-vis the previous ones.

For the same question, how the participants perceive the teaching techniques that they have been exposed for, Student 4 (he) thought that the techniques were likable for him; for example, the more he learned plenty of words, the more his lexical knowledge became expanded. This participant believed that learning vocabulary and grammar in this manner helped him to express himself like what he speaks in Amharic, without serious difficulties. He affirmed that he has been taught plenty of typical vocabulary and grammar examples during the instruction. He elaborated his ideas in that the teacher gave the students much time to identify grammar points and collocations from the texts based on a certain context. As he stated, unlike the previous classes, in which the teacher spent all the time without providing the students with the opportunities to discuss activities in group and individually, the presently implemented methods (i.e. carried out during the experiment) helped him to discuss and share ideas and understand the lessons easily. Indeed, the implication of the idea stated by this student (4) was that the teacher had seemed to practice the teacher-centered method before the implementation of the lexical instructional approach. However, as he explained, the student-centered method was being practiced during the experiment.

Similarly, student 5 (she) perceived that the teaching techniques were interesting and she liked them because she learned important vocabulary lessons (e.g. collocations). She replied that she has understood how to combine words to make collocations in the current classes (during the experiment) whereas, in the previous classes, she did not learn such things, but she was learning words by looking for their definitions simply from dictionaries. Student 6 (he) confirmed that the techniques that the teacher employed to teach them (i.e. participant students) vocabulary and grammar were somewhat new. He assured that the techniques used by the teacher in EFL classrooms helped him to learn better than the previous ones, so he found them more important. Another participant (student 7) revealed that the instruction as interesting for her because the examples given could help her to understand the vocabulary and grammar points easily. As to her, there were no such techniques used in the previous lessons. The ways that vocabulary and grammar lessons presented were understandable and retainable (student 8), and they were interesting. He was probed to explain more about the understandability and retainabililty of the lesson by comparing the instructions with the previous ones as: "*I mean, I can now retain words which I have learned in chunk/collocation forms, but I cannot remember words which I had learned before this (before the experiment began), words in isolation. The reason I said this is that I*

can remember the word which can co-occur with other words, I think. However, I think the grammar lessons we learned (during the experiment) using texts was difficult, but the grammar lessons that we were taught in accordance with what is presented in the textbook were easy for me because they were in sentence forms. Sentence forms could be good to save time" (student 8).

Thus, concerning vocabulary lessons, this participant has similar feelings to what other participants replied. Nevertheless, he believed that exploring grammar components from texts depending on certain contexts was difficult for him. Basically, teaching grammar in isolation seemed to be suitable for him since he was perhaps accustomed to learning grammar in sentence forms which lacks contexts. The reason why this participant preferred learning grammar in isolation (like what he had been taught in the previous classes) seemed to be because the teacher deviated from this practice and focusing on the context-sensitive grammar teaching by using texts as has been delivered during the experiment. Like other participants, student 9 explained that the techniques, which were used in the lexical instructional intervention, were interesting for her. She perceived that the techniques enabled her to understand the vocabulary and grammar lessons easily.

The student participants were asked whether they thought they have brought about a different change due to the instructional intervention they have been exposed to and they responded almost similarly. For instance, student1 revealed that she has brought a change to her knowledge in terms of different collocations. She elaborated that she realized how to chunk, group, and associate words with one another because of learning through these techniques. Besides, this student explained that she found the grammar lessons better than the previous ones since the lessons were presented with texts and examples. Therefore, this student participant viewed the vocabulary and grammar lessons as peculiar since she had not been taught the lessons in this manner, and she seemed to be aware of what she learned during the experiment. Student 2 responded that the instruction was more helpful than ever before, and she brought about a change in terms of how to chunk/combine words. She was also requested to explain more about the uses of combining words in general, and she supposed that chunks might help her understand any text written and/or spoken in English. As she said, when she wrote something in the English language, she believed that the chunks/collocations would be important to get her writing interesting. This student told that the truth that she did not learn such things before and that is why she said she brought about a change in her collocational awareness

For the same question, about whether student 3 thought she brought about changes due to her exposure to the new instruction, she responded to it by contrasting with the previous instruction as: "*Yes, there has been a change in my understanding. When I was learning through the recently used techniques (i.e. to mean, during the experiment), I realized grammar components and different*

collocations. Besides, these techniques enabled me to read more and understand how grammar and chunks were used in the texts. The vocabulary and grammar lessons were presented for us in a better way than what had been presented in our textbook."

This student became conscious of identifying the ways how she had been taught vocabulary and grammar before the implementation of the new method. Following the exposure the student got from the new instruction, she appeared to be clear on how to identify lexical chunks and grammar components from texts and examples, along with becoming clear about the practices how to chunk them. Student 4 illustrated that he got learning experiences, particularly in retaining words by noticing the nearest words that could go together with them. What he supposed as a change, brought about owning to the opportunity he got to learn with this instruction, was in terms of developing his vocabulary knowledge. With the same insight, student 5 explained the change he brought about in terms of being able to identify, for instance, tense types from texts and examples. In addition, she replied that her vocabulary knowledge developed since her awareness about how to combine words to make collocations and/or chunks was raised, during the experiment. However, student 6 expressed that there was no particular change he brought about, but he got good understandings of how to use words simply. He seemed to be not clear on the differences between the previous and present instructions that he learned the vocabulary and grammar components with. Because the ways the lessons presented were understandable, I would not forget them, and I can now use them without difficulties (student 7). Therefore, this expression indicated that she viewed the change in terms of retention and usage. Similarly, student 8 assured that the techniques with which he was taught vocabulary and grammar components enabled him, at least, to do his home works without the help of others, unlike the previous experiences. He looked not clear with the change. Student 9 again explained the same thing. She could not reveal the importance of the lessons she learned. She only confirmed that she knew a lot of things as a result of learning vocabulary and grammar through this instruction.

Generally, the responses given by the student participants indicate that the newly implemented method (in this case the lexical instruction) was practical. Even though the extent differs from participant to participant, the lexical approach-based teaching enabled the students to have awareness concerning the importance of lexical chunks including grammar. They seemingly recognized the role of collocations and/or chunks in English language teaching and learning contexts. As their replies witnessed, except student 6, student 8, and student 9, the vocabulary and grammar lessons that the students were taught during the experiment enabled them to develop their lexical competence. Since their lexical awareness became growing as a result of the exposure, as they confirmed, it is fair to say that the lexical approach looked to be feasible and practical for the targeted group that is intermediate level, as the case of this study. However, the

aforementioned three students deemed that the lessons they learned with this instruction were interesting and easily understandable, but they could not explain the type of change and/ or improvement they made because of the lexical instruction they were exposed to. The lack of ideas about the role of the lexical instruction, which was implemented during the experiment, for their language component developments might occur on account of different factors, as the responses of these participants show.

It is known that difficulties might arise during the teaching-learning process. The difficulties that students might encounter have their roles for hindering students not to grasp the required knowledge appropriately. Based on this conception, participants were asked what difficulties they faced while learning vocabulary and grammar lessons (i.e. during the experiment). They were requested to reply to what difficulties they encountered while learning vocabulary and grammar during the experiment and they gave almost similar responses. For example, student 1, student 4, student 5, student 7, and student 9 were asked what difficulties they encountered while learning vocabulary and grammar with the lexical instruction, and they replied that they were sometimes in a position not to understand the meanings of some words. Lexical difficulties arose when students were reading a certain text.

Besides, these participants seemed to be in a difficulty to be clear about the collocates and even about the nodes; for example, student 4 (he) confirmed that he couldn't understand the definitions of some words when he tried to look for collocates for the main word and vice versa. For the same question, student1 explained that the teacher paid less attention to all students while he was teaching. The teacher did not sometimes give sufficient explanation (student 2); what is more, student 7 confirmed that there were the lack of possible explanations from him. The other difficulties that participants faced were the lack of giving attention to their lessons (as witnessed by student 3, student 5, and student 6), unable to listening one another in group discussions (student 3), and not capable of understanding the lessons or the given activities at the time (student 8).

Therefore, it is possible to conclude that there were factors which affected students not to learning the lexical and grammatical components of the language during the experiment. For instance, the lack of adequate and reasonable explanations from the teacher experimenter might have led students to be less attentive in their classes. In addition, the teacher paid less attention for non-participating students, as the participants perceived. This in turn, maybe, led some students to be not deeply interested to learn. The other factor that affected students to learn vocabulary and grammar through texts and chunks was, possible to say, lack of awareness on some lexical items.

5 Discussions of the results

This study aimed to examine what perceptions that EFL learners had towards the lexical instructional approach intervention, carried out for 16 weeks, in the contexts of vocabulary and grammar learning. It mainly aimed at answering two research questions and one research hypothesis. The first research question was to find out what perceptions that EFL learners had towards the lexical instructional approach intervention which was done in terms of vocabulary and grammar. Another way of expressing this in terms of the null hypothesis was that there was no statistically significant difference in the perception mean scores of students to the hypothetical value. The second research question was on what difficulties that EFL learners encountered while learning the vocabulary and grammar components during the experimentation. To answer the two research questions, a questionnaire and interview were employed. The purpose of using the interview was to answer the second research question and to complement the questionnaire so that to obtain in-depth insights. More succinctly, the first research question (Q1) "What perceptions do EFL learners have towards the lexical instructional approach intervention as regards learning vocabulary and grammar?" was checked by using both descriptive and inferential statistics. The descriptive Statistics results indicate that there was a big mathematical difference between the hypothesized population mean (in this case, 3.00) and descriptive statistics (3.68) in terms of perception score, as stated under the findings section, table 2. Besides, the one-sample t-test results indicate that there was a statistically significant difference between the hypothesized population mean (i.e. 3.00) and the estimated sample mean (i.e. with a mean difference of 0.68 approximately) in their perception scores. Students' (N = 48) perception scores were statistically higher, with $t(47) = 11.008$, $p = 0.000$, than the hypothesized population mean score. This impliedly indicates that the students, who were exposed to the lexical instructional approach intervention, had positive perceptions towards learning vocabulary and grammar components during the experiment.

Therefore, it is fair to say that the lexical instructional approach intervention was positively perceived by the students in the contexts of learning vocabulary and grammar since the sample mean obtained from one sample t-test was significantly higher than the population mean hypothesized. Again, the null hypothesis stated in above was rejected since a statistically significant difference was found between the hypothetical value and the estimated mean. This conversely meant, the alternative hypothesis was accepted. These results, the quantitative data, were substantiated with the other results obtained from student interview, qualitative data, which was actually beheld during the processes of the intervention carried out during the experiment.

The qualitative results demonstrated why and how the perceptions of students tended to be positive towards the intervention. The results obtained from

interview corroborated the results found from the analysis of the data gathered through questionnaire. The students perceived the lexical instructional approach intervention positively as the findings of the interview show. For instance, almost all the participants were happy, as they replied, with learning vocabulary and grammar components through the lexical instructional approach intervention. They liked the mode of teaching that the teacher implemented during the experimentation, and they raised the salient insights they beheld from the intervention. To mention some of the benefits they got, as they affirmed, from such instructional intervention that the teacher experimental delivered, the teacher provided the students with plenty of examples taken from authentic texts which enabled students to learn the lexical chunks and/ or collocations and grammar components independently, without much efforts exerted from the teacher part. Furthermore, in contrast with the previous teaching techniques that their teacher had implemented, the newly delivered modes of teaching were much helpful for students as they claimed. The way vocabulary and grammar were taught for students during the experiment was interesting and participatory for them since they thought they learned such language elements lexically which they believed new and novel. Because of learning vocabulary with chunk forms and grammar with plenty of texts, as they made certain in the interview, students' retainability and understandability improved. Again, the interviewees assured that learning the language components through authentic texts develops their independent learning which resulted in fearlessness for some introvert students. As the informants' replies indicate, they became aware of the importance of collocations and /or chunks to learn words. Additionally, their awareness was raised in terms of how to look for collocates for the key words and vice versa, and their learning strategies on how to explore grammar components from texts were raised, according to their responses. Generally, all these fruitful points that the informants mentioned were important elements to complement and triangulate the data gathered through a questionnaire.

Also, some difficulties arose as factors which influenced the students negatively, which means, not to learn the selected language components, vocabulary and grammar, properly. This leads us to the second research question (Q2), "What difficulties do EFL learners encounter concerning learning vocabulary and grammar through the lexical approach intervention?" and some factors were found in this regard, as the interviewees witnessed. Therefore, the first difficulties that the participants claimed as factors were lexical problems. Lexical difficulties, like not able to understand the meanings of some words, occurred while learners were trying to look for collocates for a given word and keywords for a certain considerable collocates. Again, the lack of lexical awareness as difficulties arose when the students were exploring lexical and grammatical components from the texts. The second factor that hindered students not to learn the referred language

components sourced from the teacher part. The teacher sometimes gave inadequate and non-reasonable explanations for students during the experiment which led them to be sometimes less interested. The other factor that affected students sourced from the peers. Some students sometimes give less attention for their group and individual discussions. This might occur due to the managerial problem arisen from the teacher experimenter. The other factor was the lack of making the activities more engaging from the teacher part to enable learners more attentive, as the responses given by interviewees' confirmed.

The findings of this study were in congruent with some previously conducted relevant studies and the theories as well. Jiemin (2006) did research on the attitudes of university students, in China, toward teaching and learning as well as strategies used to discover and consolidate phrases and expressions, which provides a practical and meaningful experience to lexical teaching. This researcher found out that the two semesters experiment on a new lexical approach prove satisfactory and fruitful. According to this researcher, the most successful aspects of the lexical project are that students' positive attitudes toward lexical learning comes to form after nearly two semesters of training and they gradually gain good awareness of the importance of a lexical approach. Besides, Norman (2017) conducted his study on the impact of a lexically-focused approach in comparison to a more traditional grammatical one and the teachers' attitudes towards lexically-focused teaching. He found out that the lexically-based instruction helped students make more progress than the control group instructed through the traditional grammatical one, and the teachers' attitudes, though not from learners' point of view, to lexically-focused teaching were explored and a mix of opinions was found, with most regretting a perceived paucity of grammatical focus. Mousavi and Heidari (2018) investigated the effect of collocations as language chunks on Iranian female intermediate English as Foreign Language (EFL) learners' writing skills. One of the intentions of the study was to find out the attitude of learners towards writing skills after collocations were taught. The results obtained from an attitude questionnaire showed that the learners' attitude boosted in the course of this experiment, indicating that using collocations had a significantly positive impact on the attitudes of Iranian EFL learners towards writing skills. Therefore, the findings of this study were in line with the present study although these researchers focused on one element of the lexical approach. However, the results obtained from the current study did not confirm earlier findings of the study by Dokchandra (2019) who carried out the collocational competence of undergraduate students of English at a university in northeastern Thailand and their perceptions of collocational difficulty and found out that the participants perceived collocations as fairly difficult.

Philosophically, different theories and/or approaches assure the relevance and efficiency of teaching vocabulary and grammar lexically, as is the case of the lexical

approach-based teaching. For instance, a corpus linguistics theory states that there needs to treat vocabulary and grammar components in unison not individually, which is also the focal point of the lexical instructional approach (Sinclair, 1991; Hoey, 2000; Hunston, 2002; Lewis, 2008; Romer & Schulze, 2009). Furthermore, the Cognitive Linguistics approach to vocabulary learning promises to be a worthwhile complement to what is established practice in the matter of helping learners remember words (Boers & Lindstromberg, 2008). Therefore, there are reasons why there need to focus on the teaching of words and phrases, that is, on adopting a lexical approach (Lewis 1993) including phrase-teaching (Boers and Lindstromberg 2005 as cited in Boers & Lindstromberg, 2008). Another approach which is compatible with the lexical instructional approach, which has distinctive features for texts, is the text-based approach. The social purposes of texts, according to this approach, is to focus on the analysis of lexico-grammar which is also the emphasis of lexical approach (Halliday & Matthiessen 2004). Besides, text-based approaches are of importance in providing co-textual information, allowing learners to deduce the meaning of unfamiliar grammatical items, words, and word-combinations from the co-text; everything in language, from lexical items and grammatical constructions to whole texts, has evolved to express very specific discourse functions, in the form of situational 'registers', the lexico-grammatical resources (Firth, 1957; Martin, 2001; Lewis, 2008).

6 Conclusions and recommendations

Based on the discussions of the results obtained from the questionnaire and interview, it was possible to draw some conclusions. To begin with, the results obtained from the questionnaire, the statistical analysis indicated that the learners' perceptions (i.e. sample mean score) was significantly higher than the hypothesized population mean. This indicates that EFL learners had positive perceptions to the lexical instructional approach in the contexts of learning vocabulary and grammar. The findings of the study demonstrated that EFL learners enjoy learning the referred language components during the implementation of the lexical instructional approach. The implication is that their positive perceptions in turn could encourage them to learn more independently. Besides, students' awareness about the importance of learning vocabulary and grammar with chunks and/or lexical approach-based activities was raised because of the intervention they were instructed with. As the results obtained from student interviews indicate, students liked the mode of teaching that the teacher experimenter implemented during the experiment, and they became interested to know more about how to combine/chunk words which could go together by consulting collocation dictionaries. Learning the vocabulary chunks and grammar points from texts was helpful for students to promote their independent learnings as well. Therefore, all these interview results were supplementary indications that

could complement and confirm as the learners positively perceived the lexical instructional approach intervention. According to the interview results found, there were some difficulties that students encountered during the intervention. To concisely mention some of the main difficulties arisen during the intervention, the first ones were the lack of lexical awareness particularly on how to look for collocates for some words which resulted in lexical difficulties. The second was the lack of adequate and reasonable explanations from the teacher experimenter part on some lexical chunks in some activities which caused students to misunderstand some elements. Thirdly, the lack of deliberate attention from some students during individual and group discussions affected students' not to learn the selected lexical and grammatical components fully. Fourthly, the incapability of the teacher to make some activities more interactive and engaging in the classroom even though he was trained how to implement the newly practiced mode of teaching was another problem. Last but not least, some managerial problems from the teacher part arose during the intervention. Thus, all these causes affected the teaching-learning process during the intervention.

Based on the conclusions arrived at, it was recommended that EFL teachers should be given the opportunities to participate in awareness-raising trainings in terms of the importance and roles of the lexical instructional approach in EFL teaching and learning contexts. Then, they should systematically design their own lexical approach-based activities by considering their students' interests, feelings, perceptions, levels, norms, cultures, and their psychological setups. Besides, students could promote their independent learning by using electronic devices like mobiles and computers which can be helpful for them to identify both lexical and grammatical patterns. It was better suggested that collocation dictionaries should be uploaded to students' electronic devices so that learners can enhance their autonomous vocabulary learning. Also, investigations of the impacts of teaching writing, speaking, listening, and reading skills through the lexical instructional approach need to be conducted to gain more insights regarding the efficiency and the appropriateness of the lexical approach for Ethiopian EFL learners at all levels. Because the present study was conducted on a small scale context, with only 48 students, investigations should be carried out on a large scale nature, a large number of participants, with the same type of topic so that a big picture can be made.

7 Limitations

This study has some limitations. The first limitation is concerning the duration of the intervention provided. As the study lasted for sixteen (16) weeks only, we admitted the insufficient time. We claim that it needed, at least one year, to carry out the lexical instructional approach intervention because of its vastness. The second limitation is relating to the nature of the sample. In this study, the size of

the sample taken was quite small and thus, the reliability of the findings might be limited too. The participants of this study were taken from only one high school which could not lead it to represent all schools found in the city. Thus, a large sample of participants should have been considered for the study to obtain more factual data. The other limitation of the study was that it was conducted on EFL learners' perceptions of the lexical instructional approach interventions in the contexts of learning vocabulary and grammar so that it could not inform the readers about the perceptions of learners to the instruction concerning learning the other language skills.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Student Questionnaire

Dear Students:

This questionnaire is designed to gather information about your perceptions towards the learning of vocabulary and grammar through the lexical approach. Therefore, you are kindly requested to critically read and indicate your appropriate responses for both parts. Your answers should be based on what you practically did in learning English as a foreign language vocabulary and grammar during the experiment. The worth of this study completely depends on how true and factual answers you provide in terms of what you feel and know with regard to learning vocabulary and grammar.

I would like to inform you that the information you provide is completely confidential and is used by the researcher only. Thus, **do not** write your names. Thank you for your cooperation!

Direction: Please read the following statements about your perceptions of learning vocabulary and grammar through lexically-based instruction during the intervention. Then, on the following pages, mark with a tick (✓) what your opinion is with respect to every statement **ONLY** one of the five spaces.

Strongly Agree, Agree, Undecided, Disagree, and Strongly Disagree.

- If you strongly agree to the statement, mark with a tick (✓) the fifth space (**Strongly Agree)**

- If you agree to the statement but not strongly, mark with a tick (✓) the fourth space **(Agree)**

- If you have no opinion on the statement, mark with a tick (✓) the third space (**Undecided)**

- If you do not agree to the statement, mark with a tick (✓) the second space (**Disagree)**

- If you do not agree to the statement but strongly, mark with a tick (✓) the first space (**Strongly Disagree)**

Items on students' experiences on learning vocabulary and grammar through lexically-based instruction

No.	Item	Scales				
1	How I do perceive the learning of vocabulary and grammar with lexical instruction now (i.e. given during the experiment)?	Strongly Agree	Agree	Un decided	Dis agree	Strongly Disagree
		5	4	3	2	1
1	I like the way our English teacher taught us mainly how to explore grammar from text examples during the experiment.					
2	Our English teacher often asked us to repeat lexical chunks/phrases after him during the experiment.					
3	I am now clear to use chunk for chunk translation in and out of English classrooms.					
4	My ability to chunk English language lexically and grammatically improved after my English lessons (after the experiment).					
5	The way our teacher got us to make use of language chunks from the reading passages was very interesting during English lessons.					
6	My English improves more quickly if I practice grammar by using lexical chunks like what our teacher taught us.					
7	I think I can now learn from my lexical and grammatical mistakes/errors I probably make while producing and comprehending something in the target language.					
8	What I learned during the experiment helped me to like and learn more grammar rules from chunks, examples, and texts in my English class.					
9	My vocabulary and grammar knowledge develops easily if our teacher teaches us with lexical chunks from onwards now.					
10	Using chunk for chunk translation from target language to mother tongue and vice					

	versa in English lessons (like what our teacher taught us during the experiment) does not help me learn the English language better					
11	Learning vocabulary grammatically and learning grammar lexically helped me acquire both simultaneously during the experiment.					
12	Learning vocabulary and grammar as we did during the experiment is boring for me.					
13	I like using English word chunks rather than single words while comprehending and/or producing something in and out of English classrooms.					
14	I understand that learning grammar lexically (like what I learned during the experiment) is less helpful than learning it structurally.					
15	Learning words by grouping with other words, for example, looking for the nodes for the given collocates and vice versa (like what our teacher taught us) in English has helped me acquire them more easily in the English lesson.					
16	I don't like to learn vocabulary and grammar in a way our teacher taught us during the experiment.					
17	Mostly, I realize that learning English means learning lexical chunks construction/collocations.					
18	Learning English language vocabulary and grammar lexically (like our teacher taught us) is waste of time.					
19	I like the way our English teacher reformulated the errors we made while we were learning vocabulary and grammar during the experiment.					
20	I think I will be effective in learning grammar without analyzing the rules (e.g.					

like the teacher taught us by using chunks) in my English class.					

Appendix B: Interview Question Guidelines

1. How do you perceive the techniques (i.e. lexical instructions) that you have been taught vocabulary and grammar during the lexical instructional intervention (experiment)?
2. Do you think you have brought about a different change due to the lexical instructional intervention you have been exposed to? Why?
3. What difficulties did you encounter when you were learning vocabulary and grammar (during the experiment)?

Online interaction descriptors:
A tool for the development of tasks
for language competences and language use

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Abstract

The study focuses on a new scale of the framework introduced by the CEFR Companion Volume. Slovak and Maltese teachers were invited to participate in the training sessions in which they were exposed to lists of descriptors related to online interaction. The goal of familiarisation activities related to indicating reference levels was to prepare teachers for constructing tasks designed for practicing online communication in language classes, relevant to the proficiency levels of their students. The data on teachers' judgements are clearly displayed and analysed in order to find out similarities and differences between teachers' perceptions of language proficiency in two countries. Workshop sessions stimulated in-depth discussions the conclusions of which are reflected in the recommendations for language educators and teachers.

Keywords: CEFR descriptors, online interaction, familiarization, teachers' judgements, task construction

Introduction

There are several studies related to a new vision for education. A large number of them address competences and skills that learners require to succeed in the information age (Lamb, Marie, & Doecke, 2017; Bellanca & Brandt, 2010). Modern technologies have significantly changed both private and professional life in society. Following a detailed analysis of the research literature, the World Economic Forum (2015) defined the 16 most critical '21st century skills' that enable learners to acquire the knowledge they require to succeed in society. These include foundation literacies (how individuals apply core skills to everyday tasks), competencies (how individuals approach complex challenges) and character qualities (how individuals approach their changing environment). Language learning is considered as central in helping learners improve their reading literacy, scientific literacy, cultural and civic literacy (foundation literacies), critical

thinking/problem-solving, communication and collaboration (competencies), and curiosity, initiative, social and cultural awareness (character qualities). "Languages competence" is noted as one of the eight key competences for lifelong learning (Key Competencies for Lifelong Learning, 2018, p. 38).

Philosophies and concepts that underpin the CEFR embrace principles of social constructivism and active engagement in learning (Vygotsky, 1962). Social construction of knowledge implies that the learner is actively engaged in the construction of knowledge with others. The CEFR Companion Volume (2018) refers to an action-oriented approach or a learner-centred approach. While the former emphasises that learning a language focuses on what a learner is able to do with the language in real-life situations, the latter regards learners as individuals who have their own needs and aim at becoming autonomous in the development of communicative language competencies. The 'can do' statements present a 'clear shared roadmap for learning' (CEFR CV, 2018, p. 25). Furthermore, the CEFR draws attention to the various communicative needs and situations for language use through the focus on plurilingual competences.

The potential of modern technologies in language learning is unlimited. Currently, the access to the Internet provides language learners with a vast number of materials (either authentic or modified) and naturally enables learners to be exposed to one or several languages, which supports the development of plurilingualism and pluriculturalism. Language classes can be enriched by electronic discussion such as online forums (bulletin boards, lists, and real-time conversation) that provide a written record of all correspondents' contributions), which supports the development of electronic literacies such as reading and writing practices in online environments.

Consequently, it seems that the focus on online interaction requires specific attention due to the way it differs from face-to-face interaction. Great headway has been made by the authors of the CEFR Companion Volume (2018) recognising the necessity to highlight the main concepts and implication of the CEFR in relation to new situations of learning extending the CEFR illustrative descriptors. Apart from introducing new scales, presenting a completely new reference level (Pre-A1), mediation, online interaction, plurilingual and pluricultural repertoires were added as new descriptors, validated by several international institutions. The category of online interaction comprises two scales: online conversation and discussion and goal-oriented online transactions and collaboration. In these two scales the multimodal activity typical of web use, for example emailing, using chat, written contributions to discussion are concerned (CEFR CV, 2018, p. 51).

The new online interaction descriptors presented a challenge for both Slovak and Maltese teachers of foreign languages in view of implications for language teaching and appropriate levels of language use.

Project Description

The project was implemented in two countries that followed similar procedures, although working with different groups of teachers. In Slovakia, the participants were teachers of English as it is the first foreign language learned in the third year of primary education. In some schools, the foreign language is offered at an earlier stage however the official curricula do not focus on earlier stages of foreign language learning. In Malta, the project was presented to teachers of German as a foreign language. Students choose their first foreign language at age 11 in their first year of secondary education. Italian is the most selected language option followed by French. German and Spanish are selected by a smaller cohort of learners. Alongside Maltese, the mother tongue, English is the language of schooling.

In the Slovak education context, the focus was placed on B and C levels. The former levels refer to what learners are expected to reach by the end of secondary education while the latter indicate the obligatory C1 level for those studying within bilingual secondary school institutions. In the Maltese context the focus lay on A and B1 levels that teachers work on during the five years at secondary level. The focus is mainly on the A2 plus to B1 levels that learners are expected to reach by the end of secondary education at age 16. Learners who find difficulty with the foreign language in their first years of schooling may shift to a proficiency course and sit for A1 and A2 levels. They may continue learning the language at the next level of proficiency in a post-secondary institution.

The project was implemented in two stages. In the first stage (September 2018–February 2019), the teachers were familiarised with the descriptors concerning online conversation and discussion. The second stage (February 2019–May 2019) was focused on searching for tasks that match the description provided by descriptors for each level in the CEFR Companion Volume. At this stage, teachers discussed a number of tasks that were related to a specific scale of the CEFR online conversation and discussion grid and were asked to indicate a level at which the students might achieve the task according to CEFR descriptors. In the Slovak context, tasks were selected from teachers' course books that contained officially claimed and aligned CEFR levels. In the Maltese context teachers do not necessarily follow a text book and thus discussed according to material they used in class.

The second phase of the project will commence in October 2019, during which time teachers will be presented with feedback obtained in this first part of the project and will initiate the inquiry into the implementation phase with students.

Results from the Slovak context

As far as the online conversation and discussion scale is concerned, teachers in both countries were given a table that presented 15 bands taken from the CEFR

Companion Volume (2018, p. 97) in a jumbled order. Since one band in the original table is comprised of several descriptors, some levels were represented by more than one descriptor. The idea behind this decision was to let teachers think that there might be more than one description related to the same level. During this sorting exercise, requiring the indication of a specific level, teachers underlined key words and compared them with generic CEFR scales. Most teachers followed the instructions properly and indicated the levels they were most familiar with according to their teaching experiences.

The following tables and comments on the data results reflect which phrases from the descriptors presented in the CEFR Companion Volume influenced teachers in their indication of respective level.

Key words, terms and phrases quoted in the sections below refer to descriptors for Online conversation and discussion in the CEFR Companion Volume (2018, p. 97).

A1	A2	A2+	**B1**	B1+	B2	B2+	C1
3	4	-	**7**	3	3	-	1

Tab. 1: Online conversation and discussion for level B1

As noted earlier, B1 is a level required by Slovak legislation from students who complete their secondary technical school education. Most teachers recognised B1 (33%) when presented with the sorting exercise, however other levels assigned ranged from A1 (14%) up to C1 (5%). Key words such as *a comprehensible contribution in an online discussion on a familiar topic of interest, the text prepared beforehand and using online tools to fill gaps in language* influenced teachers in selecting lower-proficiency levels, while key words focusing on *postings about experiences, feeling and events* affected their choice for higher levels. For B1 only one set of two descriptions were used as the upper one is considered a plus level. Despite the fact that the CEFR Companion Volume makes a clear and precise distinction between the descriptor at a specific level and its plus level, teachers noted that this distinction is not kept in Appendix 5 (CEFR CV, 2018) as B1 is not divided into one main level and one plus level.

B1	B1+	**B2**	B2+	C1
1	1	**15**	2	2

Tab. 2: Online conversation and discussion for level B2

Level B2 is expected to be achieved by students who study at secondary grammar schools and most teachers (71%) voted for B2. Teachers underlined the following phrases they considered important for their judgements; *can engage in online exchanges between several participants, effectively linking his/her*

contributions to previous ones in the thread and *can recognise misunderstandings and disagreements that arise in an online interaction and can deal with them, provided that the interlocutor(s) are willing to cooperate.*

A1	A2	A2+	B1	B1+	**B2**
1	3	4	9	1	**3**

Tab. 3: Online conversation and discussion for level B2 – other descriptors

Since every band can include more than one descriptor, our task concerning the indication of a proper level contained another description related to level B2. This time teachers focused on words such as *avoidance of unusual and complex language and allowing time for responses* and therefore they did not notice more important key words such as *active participation, stating and responding to opinions on topics of interest at some length* (Bérešová, 2019, p. 1797), which clearly state that such a language user should be able to participate in conversation and discussion actively and on their own initiative, being able to express his/her opinions. Most teachers underlined *avoid unusual or complex language and allow time for responses,* the phrases which according to them represented lower levels. Therefore, only 14% estimated the right level.

C1	C2
11	10

Tab. 4: Online conversation and discussion for level C1

The number of teachers who were engaged in teaching at bilingual schools was only five. However, all the teachers involved were expected to judge all the levels. Their judgment (48%) for level C2 was influenced by the expressions with the notion of effectiveness and academic language, e.g. *can participate effectively, in online academic discussion, giving further clarification of complex, abstract issues,* which stimulated an idea that this can be done only at the highest level.

A2	B1	B1+	B2	B2+	**C1**	C2
1	4	4	9	2	-	1

Tab. 5: Online conversation and discussion for level C1 – other descriptors

Despite the fact that teachers were quite successful in indicating C1 in the first example, none of the teachers recognised the level when being provided with the second example. Key words such as *several participants exchanging their opinions in real time, understanding the communicative intentions and cultural implication of the various contributions* led most teachers to indicate B2 (43%), two teachers

voted for B2+ and one participant judged can-do statements to be relevant for level C2. The option for A2 was irrelevant as descriptors clearly indicate that A2 users can be engaged only in basic social communication due to their limited vocabulary and grammar (Bérešová, 2019, p. 1797).

Results from the Maltese context

Similar to their Slovak counterparts, teachers highlighted key words on the grid that presented CEFR descriptors ranging from Pre A1 to C1 levels and indicated their judgements according to their knowledge of CEFR levels and their teaching experiences. Only the results of data gathered on A and B levels will be presented in the following section.

A2	A2+	**B1**	B1+
2	2	**10**	4

Tab. 6: Online conversation and discussion for level B1

B1 is considered a high level of achievement in Maltese secondary classrooms. 56% of teachers recognised the B1 descriptor. Key terms that pointed at *a comprehensible contribution in an online discussion on a familiar topic of interest* and reference to the fact that the text may be *prepared beforehand* led teachers to select the B1 level*.* Others argued that such key terms were misleading and led them to select a lower proficiency level. 22% were concerned that this was a higher level due to the reference to *postings about experiences, feeling and events*. The same concern was evident amongst Slovak teachers.

Teachers were also asked to focus on the plus levels. The following table focuses on how they addressed the B1 plus level.

A2	A2+	B1	**B1+**	B2
2	-	8	**5**	3

Tab. 7: Online conversation and discussion for level B1+

Teachers' judgment (28%) for the higher level of competence at B1+ level was impacted upon by the reference in the descriptor to real time online interaction *with more than one participant*. Key words such as *lexical limitations sometimes cause repetition* and *inappropriate formulation* led 44% to indicate a lower B1 level.

A2	A2+	B1
12	2	4

Tab. 8: Online conversation and discussion for level A2

A2 is the level that most teachers were familiar with. The vast majority (67%) linked terms such as *sharing news, as well as making/confirming arrangements to meet* to the A2 level, and they all noted that this was clearly done *using a repertoire of basic language*.

Other levels assigned to this band of the descriptor were the A2+ (11%) and B1 levels (22%). In the case of both categories, teachers referred to the term *sharing news* as a determinant for their choice of level*.*

A2	**A2+**	B1
12	**2**	4

Tab. 9: Online conversation and discussion for level A2+

The main difference between A2 and A2+ was clearly not noted by teachers. A2 is considered a high level in the Maltese context due to reputation afforded by international examinations at this level. The focus on exchange of ideas was noted as quite challenging at A2, however, teachers still thought that it referred to the same level. Same was the case with the key words *commenting on others' postings and reacting to embedded media*.

A1	A2
10	8

Tab.10: Online conversation and discussion for level A1

Teachers found it difficult to gauge between A1 and A2 and were divided on some aspects related to reactions to embedded links and media and responding to comments. However, 56 % indicated *simple messages as a series of short sentences with the aid of a translation tool* as the basis of the A1 level. Teachers moreover linked the Pre A1 descriptor to the initial stages of language learning rather than to an A1 level.

Second stage of the project

During the second stage of the project, Slovak teachers worked on tasks taken from their coursebooks and supplementary materials, indicating the reference levels on the basis of key words in the descriptors in order to be prepared for task design in the next workshop. Their Maltese counterparts could only afford two workshops since the project was linked to professional development sessions in schools that only afforded two sessions.

Feedback from Slovak teachers:

The second stage was based on judging a list of tasks presented to teachers. This time they were given the scale concerning online conversation and discussion

from Appendix 6, where the descriptors were supported by example of use in different domains (CEFR CV, 2018, pp. 185-187). Participating teachers were given 20 minutes to discuss the material and were asked to judge the level of the tasks provided. The table below summarises teachers' estimations.

Texts	A2+	B1	B1+	B2	B2+	C1
1 – B1		50.00%	16.66%	33.33%		
2 – B1	16.66%	33.33%		50.00%		
3 – B2			16.66%	16.66%	16.66%	50.00%
4 – B2	16.66%			50.00%	33.33%	
5 – C1		16.66%		16..66%	33.33%	33.33%
6 – C1				33.33%	50.00%	16.66%

Tab. 11: Teachers' judgements concerning the presented tasks – Round 1

The number of the participants in this workshop was only 18 as three teachers apologised for being engaged in school-leaving examinations. After the first round of voting, they were asked to present concrete descriptors that influenced their judgements.

While the first text (a model informal email) was supported preferably by the descriptor – *can make personal online postings about experiences, feeling and events and respond individually to the comments of others in some detail, etc.* (CEFR CV 2018: 187), the second text (also a model information email) which the publishers officially claimed at B1 level, was considered appropriate for a higher level due to the descriptor *can participate actively in an online discussion, stating and responding to opinions on topics of interest at some length, etc.* (CEFR CV, 2018, p. 186).

The similar result can be seen in the estimation of two texts referring to level B2. One of them (a model informal email) was estimated as B2 (50%) due to the descriptor – *can recognise misunderstandings and disagreements that arise in an online interaction and can deal with them, etc.* (CEFR CV, 2018, p. 186).
However, the second text (a formal email) was linked to C1, represented by the descriptor – *can adapt his/her register according to the context of online interaction, moving from one register to the other within the same exchange if necessary* (CEFR CV, 2018, p. 185).

Before commenting on two more tasks, it is necessary to emphasise that teachers were not given the tasks in the level order as they are presented statistically. As far as C1 is concerned, teachers did not convincingly judge them and the range of their judgements were B2-C1. Both presented texts were taken from the course books labelled as C1. One text (an example of a covering letter) was judged between B2+ and C1 by most teachers while another one (a contribution to a wiki guide) was estimated as B2+ (50%). Teachers admitted

that they had been influenced by descriptors referring to *linking his/her contributions to previous ones in the thread, understanding cultural implications and reacting appropriately* (CEFR CV, 2018, p. 186)*.*

The workshop continued by a vivid discussion and teachers worked in groups. They tried to use descriptors that are presented in four domains to become more aware of what is precisely stated in the descriptors. After an intensive discussion, the second round of voting was carried out. The results are presented in the table below.

Texts	A2+	B1	B1+	B2	B2+	C1
1 – B1		66.66%	16.66%	16.66%		
2 – B1		50.00%	33.33%	16.66%		
3 – B2			16.66%	50.00%	33.33%	
4 – B2				66.66%	33.33%	
5 – C1				16..66%	50.00%	33.33%
6 – C1					50.00%	50.00%

Tab. 12: Teachers' judgements concerning the presented tasks – Round 2

Teachers still considered some descriptors quite generic since they are influenced by teaching practice where linguistic competence is given more importance than language use. Since many course books still focus on grammar and vocabulary, teachers prefer being given the type of target language content learners are expected to use at specific levels. Some teachers do not have enough experience of using English in everyday contexts as Slovakia is still a country where English is used mostly in big international companies rather than in everyday life, except for those living in the capital city.

Task design

In the Slovak context, the third workshop was aimed at producing tasks that may help teachers either practice or assess students' abilities to use language in online conversation or discussion. Teachers produced 21 tasks that equalled the number of workshop participants and were then asked to read them and discuss them in groups of three. Following a voting session, participants agreed on three tasks for each level, using descriptors that reflect what the learners are expected to do at three chosen levels. While discussing the tasks teachers realised that each task could be used for several levels since it is only while learners are engaged with the task that level may be determined.

As previously noted, Maltese teachers did not spend time on tasks to determine levels and moved on to the analysis and discussion of descriptors in relation to creation of tasks according to key words and their descriptions of language use. They were asked to look at the descriptors and to discuss what task

they would link to this level. Teachers focused on different aspects of the same descriptor at A2 to B1 levels. The following are a selection of ideas of tasks teachers will develop with their leaners in the implementation phase of the project. Maltese teachers decided to focus on A2 and B1 descriptors at this stage.

The following table provides a picture of what teachers came up with during the first task design exercise in this first phase of the study. The tables below indicate type of tasks that will serve for discussion during the implementation phase of the study (October 2019–May 2020). During this phase, teachers will be encouraged to discuss tasks with students and to select and design own tasks for online practice.

A2 tasks	B1 tasks
Task 1 (M) Posting an event We are organising a picknick: Would you like to join? You need to confirm if you are coming and tell us what you are going to get with you (e.g. food item or game). *Task 2 (M)* Sharing news: Create a blog page on the class website. Discussion of the month: What would you like to share on the theme that we are discussing in class? Theme example: My city/where I live Share news on an event or activity that is happening. *Task 3 (M)* Teachers are to collect short texts / a video clip to embed as a link for learners to read and comment on school in different countries. Post a brief comment on: duration of school day, break time, uniform, activities offered in school and school subjects.	*Task 1 (M)* Provide a text that may be posted for comments: e.g. Mobile phones in class Note down advantages and disadvantage after you have read this article so that others may react to them. Post your own ideas and comment on the posts of your classmates. *Task 2 (M)* We would like to start a blog page on various themes that are of interest to you: Post a contribution on a free-time activity or a favourite TV programme. You may also wish to write about a place you have visited and compare it with where you live in Malta. Invite others to comment on your post. *Task 3 (S)* Write a short online news report about something interesting/important that happened in your school recently. Your report should answer the five 'Ws' (Who?

Task 4 (M) Online Poll: Participate in the online form on the theme 'School uniforms'. Vote and leave a comment under the text that best matches your ideas. Do not forget to comment on the posts made by your classmates. Do you wear a school uniform? Do you like it? Do you prefer to go to school in your favourite clothes?	What? Where? When? and Why?) and the 'H' (How?). *Task 4 (S)* You play basketball for a school team. A friend of yours has told you that your basketball club is going to be closed down. Write an email to your coach to find out: why the decision has been taken, and what is going to happen to the players in your team as they are proud of representing the school.

Tab. 13: Selected tasks by Slovak (S) and Maltese (M) teachers

B2 and C1

Tasks B2 (S)
     You have been away from your school for some time. Write an email (220-240 words) to your classmate to ask him/her for news from school and to give him/her your news.
     Write a brief personalised online review of the film you have recently seen and enjoyed. Address your classmates to contribute to your review.
     You are about to go on a trip to a country that you have never visited before. You would like to know about the customs there. Write an email to your host family asking for some advice to prepare yourself for the visit to the country.
Tasks C1 (S)
     Write a blog post about an event when something unusual happened. Present background information to make it as interesting as possible.
     Write an eBay advert for something you would like to sell. Give as much information about the item as possible.
     Write a website article (160-180 words) for students coming to study in your country. Choose three things you find unique or different in your country.

Discussion

21 teachers of English applied for the participation in the project in Slovakia. They represented different kinds of secondary schools: 7 from secondary technical schools (their focus was B1), 9 from the secondary grammar schools (B2 in focus) and 5 teachers from bilingual schools (focusing on C1). All schools are located in

southwest Slovakia. The project was divided in three sessions. Teachers were informed prior to the sessions about the project implementation. Once they applied for the first workshop they were expected to attend all three workshops.

18 teachers of German applied for participation in the project in Malta. All teachers work in secondary schools and teach levels A1 to B1 to students aged 11 to 16. 10 teachers from the state school sector, seven from the church school sector and one from the independent sector attended the sessions. The project in Malta was conducted over two sessions. As from this year teachers could select sessions as part of the hours allocated for CoPE professional development (Community of Professional Educators). A number of hours were set aside within this CoPE framework for teachers to be able to attend the sessions within their school working hours. Teachers received information about the online interaction sessions and the project alongside other options.

The programme of the first workshop was comprised of several activities of intensive training spread over 8 hours. The first part was devoted to a thorough explanation of the concepts underlying the CEFR, introducing the CEFR Companion Volume (2018) at the end of the first session and emphasising its significance for language education. Since three new categories are introduced in the CEFR Companion Volume, two of them (mediation scales and plurilingual and pluricultural scales) were briefly mentioned to allow time for a proper presentation of online communication and its typical features. Focus lay on how the latter differs from face-to-face interaction and traditional writing. A short discussion revealed that teachers were open to introducing other forms of interaction as they were aware of their students' needs in real life, outside the classroom.

The first familiarisation activity was based on general scales taken from the CEFR (2001, p. 24; pp. 26-27; pp. 28-29) and overall scales referring to reading, listening and spoken and written production, later narrowing the focus on written interaction, completed by spoken interaction. In general, teachers were aware of particular key words used in the presented descriptors and indicated the particular levels to descriptors correctly.

The second task required teachers to indicate all the ten levels (six basic levels, three plus levels and Pre-A1), using the common reference levels descriptions from the CEFR (2001, pp. 33-36), completed by the description of Pre-A1, presented in the CEFR Companion Volume (2018, p. 46). It was necessary to explain the reasons for introducing the tenth level as teachers from secondary schools in Slovakia had never heard of it before and wanted to understand why the range of levels had been expanded upon. Since the plus levels are clearly marked in the CEFR Companion Volume (2018), it was useful for teachers to become familiar with them. Teachers in both countries considered recognising slight differences between a basic level and a plus level essential because many times

they have higher expectations about their learners, either due to the influence of performances by better students or as a result of course books used. Following a task where they were asked to indicate the level to a set of descriptors, teachers' judgements were drawn together in a table. A short discussion enabled teachers to compile a list of key words and phrases that indicate different shades of descriptions for levels.

Recommendations

The following recommendations emanate from analysis and reflection on how CEFR online interaction descriptors may provide insight into type of tasks that are conducive for language development at different stages of language use.

- Inquiry with learners is required on the type of tasks that learners are able to conduct at a particular level. Learners may be asked to provide feedback on their reactions to the descriptor and what they are able to do with and without support at that level.
- Collection of excerpts of learners' online postings may help teachers analyse the development of language through online interaction tasks if conducted systematically throughout the scholastic year.
- Inquiry into the type of tasks proposed by teachers in the first part of the project requires teachers to reassess what may be understood by key phrases that denote interdependence with others and use of online tools to support language use. Learners need to be actively involved in this phase of inquiry since the descriptors clearly denote use of online tools to support gaps in learning and checking of own work at specific levels of language competence.
- Further insight needs to be gathered in relation to the question - what kind of task is most conducive for the type of descriptor it represents? If tasks are to help learners become more active in the learning process, teachers need to allow learners to discuss and propose own tasks. Tasks created by the teacher may however serve as an impetus for further interaction amongst learners especially at beginner levels.

Conclusions

Awareness was raised through the project on the nature of tasks that clearly support co-construction of knowledge and language development through affordances facilitated by synchronous and asynchronous modes of online interaction. Conclusions for the study relate to active engagement with language, awareness of type of task in view of language competence, and the integration of skills required for effective online interaction.

DESCRIPTORS AND LANGUAGE USE: The CEFR focus on online interaction provides a further dimension to former understanding of active language use that tally with the social reality learners are immersed in. It provides a myriad of

possibilities for the development of plurilingual and pluricultural competences as it extends the possibilities learners may be exposed to within the classroom walls. The level descriptors helped teachers reflect on the need for tasks that enable basic social interactions as well as more complex situations that require more complex language use.

DESCRIPTORS AND LANGUAGE COMPETENCE: The descriptors define what the learner can do with the language and enable teachers to analyse and draft possible tasks at the level learners are presently at. This will help teachers and learners avoid unnecessary disheartening scenarios where tasks are set beyond the level of language competence. It is only through tasks where learners are enabled to take control of their learning that they may be able to move to higher competence levels. The descriptors are instrumental in this respect since they help teacher and learner distinguish the different levels of competence within the same descriptor and determine what is required at the next level of language competence.

DESCRIPTORS AND INTEGRATION OF SKILLS: The scales indicate a broader view of language use that is at times compartmentalised through the focus of work on separate skills. During the analysis of descriptors and levels, teachers reflected on the multitude of skills involved in task accomplishment. It is in this respect that the descriptors may offer the opportunities required for a more realistic process conducive to language development.

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Towards Investigation of Instructional "Hiccups" of ELT Fraternity in EFL classroom

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Abstract

This paper aims to investigate and understand the causes of instructional "hiccups" of English language teachers at private schools in Pakistan. The questionnaire is the main tool for data collection among English language teachers who were teaching at the secondary level. Due to specific selection criteria, purposive sampling was employed among participants of the study. The findings reveal that English language teachers in private schools at the elementary level were facing teaching difficulties while teaching English textbook courses.

Keywords: ELT; EFL; private-schools; English-medium; instructional methods; difficulties; teacher-education

1 Introduction

The English language teaching industry had grown in recent decades around the globe particularly in Pakistan. On the contrary teaching facilities in the classroom for English language teachers in the particular public sector are in unsatisfactory condition. Most schools in the public sector prefer using Urdu (national language) or other local languages as a medium of instruction with minimum facilities for teaching English. English Language Teachers (ELTs) often use the grammar-translation method and their competence is seen lower as compare to the private sector English language teachers. Historically speaking, in this country the presence of ELT has remained before and after the independence. Afterward, English in Pakistan had been treated as a subject, and students are drilled to cram or memorise grammatical rules and the main focus had remained on the translation of texts into English from their local language(s).

Originally the term "hiccups" is borrowed expression from Jeremy Harmer, an American ELT expert, author, and academician. He used the term "hiccups" in an interview regarding "technological hiccups" faced by teachers while teaching the English language concerning CALL. The term "hiccups" has been adopted in this study which refers to difficulties faced by English language teachers while teaching English. Therefore, in this study "hiccups" means 'teaching difficulties' encountered by the ELT fraternity.

Indeed, grammar rules had been given more vitality in Pakistan instead of preparing students to use functional English in their routine conversations. It is researchers' observation from classrooms that students despite studying English in schools and colleges for at least ten to twelve years—students could not communicate in English. As Pakistan is a multilingual society, due to this teachers and students prefer to communicate in their local language or in (L1) besides Urdu which is the national language. Generally speaking, English is encountered by students as a third language (L3) in some areas. Consequently, due to this teaching and learning environment in Pakistan, the English language had not produced the desired objective which communicative competence. According to Hasan (2010) scarcity of standardised teacher training educational institutions in Pakistan, no or inconsistency in teacher training chances with mediocre quality is the root cause of not adopting best practices. If the teacher training institutions are available, they are unfit as far as staff, assets, and curriculum are concerned.

It can be assumed that the people involved in the affairs of teaching are themselves not very clear about how to handle the problem. Lack of requisite qualifications and guidance made things worst. Unfortunately, in Pakistan, not much attention is paid to 'quality teaching'. It is taken for granted that a teacher is qualified, educated, and trained right from the very beginning. Self-improvement seems out of place in our social setup. Therefore, this study is an attempt to answer the question that what are the difficulties of private sector school ELT fraternity at secondary level in Pakistan?

1.1 Research objectives

The study main objective is (I) to investigate and understand the instructional "hiccups" encountered by English language teachers of private schools teaching at secondary level in English medium schools, and the secondary objective is (II) to provide remedies how to overcome those "hiccups" encountered by ELT fraternity at schools in Pakistan.

1.2 Research gap

English enjoys royal status in Pakistan, it is the official language of Pakistan, it also is taught as ESL/EFL, hence, the significance of ELT in Pakistan is undeniable. Nevertheless, it is assumed that the current situation of ELT in Pakistan is not

satisfactory in private sector schools at the secondary school level. The role of teachers is of paramount importance in English language teaching. It is anticipated that English teachers are coping with difficulties, which results in poor standards of English language proficiency of students. So there is a dire need to investigate and understand the causes of these instructional "hiccups" and suggest remedies.

Endorsement of the above assumption has been stated in some researchers as Shah, (2010) opined that situation for ELT in Pakistan is desired, in particular at schools and colleges. Further, he claimed that textbooks are boring, untrained teachers, overcrowded classrooms, student-friendly environment are missing, teacher-centered classes are the main cause of faulty education system (Suhag, 2018, Soomro et al., 2019a; Soomro el al., 2019b). Moreover, Soomro et al. (2016) found that teachers had difficulties in adopting and applying new techniques while teaching and classes do not bring a better learning environment.

2 Review of literature
2.1 English and language policy in Pakistan

At present time, the English language is not an imposition instead a requirement to keep pace with international standards. The digitalisation of teaching and learning has made English a lingua franca. One cannot live in isolation and without English, it is not possible to know what is happening around the world. In the age of digitalisation a Pakistani prominent scholar Rahman (1990) pointed out that our (Pakistani) educational institutions' performance concerning English teaching has been poor. Further, he noticed that since the independence of Pakistan, its colonial past, the present vitality of English, and successive constitutions of 1956, 1962, and 1973 structured on the need to replace Urdu over English in all domains, nonetheless, from a practical point of view presently English remains the dominant and second language in Pakistan.

The language policy of Pakistan has remained unclear since colonial independence. There has been little research related to ELT in Pakistan, it would be not wrong to say the only prominent linguist of Pakistan Tariq Rahman, who has been discussing the language policy of Pakistan. His famous contributions are an important landmark in this regard. These include Pakistani English (1990) that advocates a pedagogical model for teaching English, and Language and Politics in Pakistan (1995), Language, Education and Culture (1999), and language, Ideology and Power (2002). These research contributions had opened remarkable discussions in research scholars, to dig the traces of the history of languages and language planning and politics in Pakistan (Mansoor, 2005). In the past, Haque (1983) stated that English is the language of technology, business, and government and law in Pakistan. A fact, that the Pakistani Constitution promulgated since 1973 is still in English. Hence, Rahman (1990) explained the prominence as medium instructions in elitist institutes—highly expensive, private schools—mediocre

system of schools, some of them indirectly controlled and partially funded by the state.

2.2 Contemporary trends in ELT

On the other hand, Multilingualism in Pakistan has been one main contributor towards complexity among teachers and students, resulting in English taught as a subject, not as a language for functional purposes. Due to this, students' abilities to cope with English as windows to the world opportunities remain partly opened. A great section of society and religious schools (madrassahs) where common Pakistani studies use vernacular-medium of instruction, hence, this lack of exposure of English might respond to the growing cultural hegemony in the country.

Students are more and more dependent upon their language teachers to help them learn the language and climb a ladder to the wider world. To develop the students' skill of learning a language, there are many obstacles for teachers to counter with; the size of the class, the arrangement of the classroom, and the number of hours available to teach a language and perhaps even the syllabus itself, which may discourage teachers from giving adequate attention to the needs of each learner. This is why it is important to have a clear understanding and a firm grasp of the wide range of techniques and procedures through which the language can be learnt/ taught. Warwick and Reimers (1995) cited in Siddiqui (2004) state, 'they incorporate unmotivated workforce, dormant heads of institutions; an educational program separated from the genuine outcomes which result in forced teaching; overwhelming dependence on lecturing, cram or memorisation; cheating in the examination; and absence proper supervision.

The teacher is a means to an end: an instrument to see that learning takes place. Soomro et al. (2019a) opined that communication practitioners and language educators cope with communication apprehension as an issue to students for conducive language teaching and learning environment. In a similar study, English language teachers lack proper training, and opportunities for them were little or less in numbers especially oral communication and presentations (Soomro et al. 2019b). Wahab (2008) and Nawab (2012) highlighted several drawbacks in ELT textbooks, which seem to force a linguistics change in the absence of unworkable and futile exercises. Instead, teachers and textbooks shall increase interesting text which may help students to enhance the level of motivation in the classrooms. Poor text material often fails to increase the interest of students due to outstanding focus on grammar drills and vocabulary learning through memorisation. Revisiting such exercises, however, can create students' interactive activities and encourage them to do things in the classroom instead of sitting passively in the class. It is crucial for the teachers to take notice of students' boredom, and help students to realise that studying another language is not only enhancing linguistic

abilities, rather it is also getting familiar with foreign language and culture. This way, students can develop their understanding and point of view of other cultures (Hassan, 2006). Hence, students of Pakistan are enthusiastically keen to learn the English language, they spend a great amount of lifetime and energy to be able to learn and use English fluently, it is because knowledge of English language is the mark of high prestige for them in the classrooms and outside world (Farooqi, 2016; Rahman, 1997; Tariq, 2013). Failure in English affects students in two ways: It destroys their opportunity for white collared jobs in the country and also deals a blow to their morale (Malik, 1996).

3 Methodology

3.1 Research design

The quantitative approach was used to provide a quick assessment of teaching "hiccups" faced by English language teachers at the secondary level. The quantitative approach with on the other hand was also considered as necessary for the study to gain in-depth data regarding the issues being explored.

3.2 The Population and sample

The participants in this study were English teachers, teaching in English medium private schools at the secondary level. The purposive technique of sampling was employed, as the criterion for using has been specific. The total number of participants N=15, were secondary school teachers at private English medium schools.

3.3 Questionnaire framework

The questionnaire has been used to know to "hiccups" faced by the English language teachers. It covered the areas: teachers' training and capability, methodology, and the environment of the institution. The questionnaire comprises four parts: Part –A. Background Information, Part-B. Teacher Training, Part-C. Teaching Methodology and Part-D. The environment of the Institution.

3.4 Validity and reliability of the instrumentations

The feasibility and effectiveness of a research instrument determined by validity and reliability. The questionnaire checklist in this study was assessed by two experts in the relevant domain and further validated by the pilot study.

3.5 Data analysis

The technique for data analysis was descriptive test analysis. This descriptive test was used to analyse the data in which purpose was to understand the reasons for teaching "hiccups" while teaching English to students at the secondary level.

4 Finding and discussion

The main objective of the study was to investigate and understand the instructional "hiccups" faced by English teachers while teaching in English medium private schools at the secondary level. Based on the questionnaire following are the findings and discussion of this study.

Gender	No of Teacher-Participants 15				
	Male 00			Female 15	
Academic qualification	Matric 00	FA/F.Sc.Inter 00	BA/BSc 11	MA/MSc 04	
Professional qualification	M.Ed. 03	B.Ed. 05	CT/PTC 00	Any other 00	None 07
Teaching Experience	Less than 5 years	5-10 years	11-15 years	16-20 years	More than 20 years
	12	00	03	00	00

Table 1: Background information of teacher-participants

From Table 1 above, the findings show that fifteen (15) teacher-participants from private sector schools participated in the study. As shown in Table 1 that all participants were females. The above Table 1 provides the data about the academic qualification of the teachers, most of them 11 (60%) were B.A and some (30%) were M.A degree bearers. The data shows that teachers held professional training of MEd and BEd., up to 40% and 60% had no professional qualification. In the above Table 1, data pertains to teachers' experience also in which 80% of them were new to the profession and had less than 5 years experience of teaching. There were only 20% of teachers who had 11 to 15 years of experience. From a statistical point, the results are interesting regarding background information of English teachers at private schools. With the findings is can be said that teacher's academic and professional qualifications, the lesser experience needs serious attention from the administration of the schools.

From Table 2, each statement was presented with teacher-participants responses they had given to show their agreements and disagreements with each variable in a questionnaire. Based on responses related to teachers' training, the finding of this section reveals that in-service teacher training is attained by them as 65% of participants agreed on and 35% of responses were in disagreement. The data indicates70% of teachers consider professional general training courses a solid base for English language teaching whereas, 30% of teachers responded negatively. The obtained data proves that none had disagreed with the

researchers' question that is of willingness towards the professional development of them

Teachers in-service training	No of Teacher-Participants 15	
	Agreed	Disagreed
	10	05
Professional training courses	Agreed	Disagree
	11	04
Willingness to training courses	Agreed	Disagreed
	15	00

Table 2: Teachers' training

All fifteen participants favoured that there should be some special training course(s) for English language teachers. In other words, there is a comprehensive understanding of the vitality of special teacher training courses that need to be organised for ELTs, to make their teaching skills more effective and competent. Thus, teacher training for ELTs to be made mandatory so that students could take most of the benefits from teachers' skills and capabilities. As Soomro et al., (2016) found that teachers expressed dire desire regarding willingness to adopt innovative teaching methods for effective teaching of the English language. In nutshell, the findings of Table 2 uncover some of the teaching "hiccups" faced by teachers of English medium at private schools at the secondary level.

Method(s) employed while teaching English	No of Teacher-Participants 15		
	DM	GTM	Other
	06	09	00
Use of English as medium of instructions	Always	Sometimes	Never
	05	10	00
Use of AV	Frequently	Sometimes	Never
	05	09	01
Use of self-prepared activities	Yes	Sometimes	No
	09	05	01
Method(s) used in teaching grammar	Inductive		Deductive
	05		10

Table 3: Teaching methodology

Table 3 indicates that the responses revealed that 65% of teachers use the Grammar Translation Method (GTM) and 45% use Direct Method (DM). Table 3 reflects that there were only 33% of teachers who always use the English language as a medium to give instructions and deliver lectures to their students and 67% use it occasionally. Table 3 reflects that there were only 33% of teachers who frequently use audio-visual (AV) aids other than blackboard, 60% use sometimes and 7% do not use at all. As Table 3 results show, 60% of teachers prepare activities by themselves other than given in the coursebook, and 7% of teachers do not prepare activities at all. Whereas, 33% of teachers sometimes prepare activities by themselves other than given in the coursebook. The result shows that 65% of teachers teach grammar by deductive method and 35% use the inductive method.

The results suggest GTM is more widely used by teachers in English medium schools despite claiming English as a medium of instruction. Teachers preferred GTM over DM during classes, which indeed, will focus on reading and writing skills as compare to DM which focuses to improve listening and speaking skills. The data results show that the use of AV aids is prioritised by teachers to make their teaching more useful. When participants were asked regarding the preparation and use of activities by them other than given in the textbook, the majority responded positively. This reveals that teachers are doing their best to cope with students' needs through utilising teaching activities prepared by them, in contrast to just relying on textbook activities. The deductive method for teaching grammar of the English language is used popular among ELT fraternity of Pakistan.

From Table 4, it is seen fact that most of the teachers (80%) considered their classes beyond their size of the control, but only two respondents disagreed with the statement. Interestingly, a large number of respondents agreed to show their satisfaction with administrative attitude, which is indeed a great sign for teachers to work in an administratively relaxed environment, only three participants (30%) shown dissatisfaction with administration. Except for one respondent, all (90%) teachers-respondents considered their classrooms student-friendly and teaching and learning processes to work in a conducive environment. When teachers were asked through questionnaire statement do you get enough time to check students homework in a satisfactory time? Widely held (70%) respondents agreed that they get enough time to evaluate students' homework, whereas, (30%) found it hard. Table 4 reveals that 14 respondents (90%) out of 15, agreed that schools lacked the facility of Over Head Projector (OHP) or any other multimedia aids

	No of Teacher-Participants 15	
Large size class	Agreed 13	Disagreed 02
Colleagues cooperative	Agreed 10	Disagreed 05
Satisfied with attitude of school administration	Agreed 12	Disagreed 03
Conducive environment of classroom	Agreed 14	Disagreed 01
Check home assignment satisfactorily in time	Agreed 12	Disagreed 03
Schools have an OHP or a Multimedia	Agreed 01	Disagreed 14
Access and Availability of teaching aids	Agreed 02	Disagreed 13
Free time during school hours	Agreed 01	Disagreed 14

Table 4: Environment of the institution

Similarly, the unavailability of teaching aids will limit the access to and use of teaching aids. Lastly, teachers-participants were asked regarding leisure time at school, for developing the community sense. Most (90%) of the teachers do not find free time during school hours to discuss or share or do peer evaluations of their teaching practices at schools.

Large classes are one of the instructional hiccup for teachers of private schools the study revealed. Cooperative colleagues and satisfaction with the administration is a positive signature for teachers at private schools. This kind of environment is better for peer learning and healthy relationships, which ultimately results in a more energetic and friendly workplace environment. Along with peer cooperation, most teachers were of the view that their classes are conducive for students as well and find an appropriate time to check students' homework to improve their performance on regular basis. In response to the availability and access of multimedia tools at private schools, overwhelmingly, respondents agreed that schools lack multimedia aids (Suhag 2018; Sutrimah et al., 2019; Soomro et al., 2016, Soomro et al., 2019a; Amir et al. 2020). As a result, these teachers lacked familiarity with technological tools in the teaching of the English language to their students. As found by Soomro et al. (2016), Pakistani teachers at schools lack professional training which has remained an emerged

challenge for the education system in Pakistan. Advancements in the teaching field have emerged so rapidly due to computers and the internet that teachers in Pakistan are lacking basic facilities of teaching in the modern age. Hence, ending the great discussion that teachers in Pakistan are facing some instructional "hiccups" in means of teaching aids and proper development of community sense among peers.

5 Implications of the study

This study deals with significant issues of ELT like importance and need, contemporary scenario, problems cope with the teaching of English in private English medium schools at the secondary level. This study aimed to investigate and understand the instructional "hiccups" encountered by the ELT fraternity. The study also aims to provide some solutions to these investigated "hiccups" by English teachers of Pakistan. Consequently, this study may likely be another step towards teacher development and improvement of standards of English language teaching.

6 Limitations of the study

This study is delimited to investigate and understand the instructional "hiccups" faced by English teachers of private English medium schools at the secondary level. This study researched the areas such as teacher training and academic qualification, teaching methodology, and the environment of the institutions. However, this study is a step, which may likely be helpful in the future direction of studies concerning the instructional area of research studies.

7 Conclusion

To sum up, this study data concludes that the majority of teachers in private schools were female teachers with minimum educational qualification BA, both trained and untrained teachers had been employed in private schools. The interesting finding was that not a single teacher was holding the professional qualification of the certificate, diploma, or a degree in English Language Teaching (ELT), most teachers had the experience of the in-service teachers training programme. All teachers-participants agreed to the need for a special training in ELT. It is found that English is taught as a subject not as a skill or a language. GTM remained the most common practice by all of the teachers in English medium schools. Additionally, teachers lacked teaching aids like OHP, multimedia, interactive boards—teachers heavily relied on the blackboard, and few teachers had whiteboard facilities available to them. This study conclusion reveals that ELTs in English medium private schools lack basic facilities for a conducive teaching environment keeping in view the digital age around the globe. Based on the conclusion the researchers would like to make the following recommendations

that will likely be useful for making a conducive teaching environment of private schools in Pakistan.

7 Recommendations

The "hiccups" which have been pointed out and discusses above can be remedied. This study presents the subsequent recommendations to the teachers of English if they can adopt for the betterment of English language teaching at private schools. Based on the findings, the following recommendations are made:

- Modern teaching aids should be made available in all ELT classes. In this modern age, the only blackboard cannot prove that effective as are OHP, multimedia, etc.
- There should be no dependence on the lecture method only. Modern techniques of communicative method can be applied in ELT class for better results.
- The direct method should be used to get better results in ELT classes.
- Teachers need to adopt modern techniques and methods.
- Grammar should be taught in some context to make the lesson interesting for learners.
- Regular workshops should be arranged for English language teachers.
- There should be a proper arrangement for compulsory refresher courses during the summer holidays every year.
- ELT courses should be made common, as there are very limited institutions which offer ELT courses so that only ELT-trained teachers may be appointed to teach English.

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Portfolios within the preschool environment

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Abstract
The academic community has been discussing the options for using portfolios within the education process for a number of years. Studies looking at this phenomenon often focus on a constructivist concept of portfolios where the child is the main agent in creating the document (Sitz & Bartholomew, 2008; Smith et al., 2003). The alternative to this is the positivist concept of the portfolio. The submitted research study is focused on the use of portfolios specifically within the preschool environment. The research's main objective was to understand how children's portfolios are used within the education process in preschools and present the children's perspective on their own portfolios. Adopting a qualitatively-focused research design, the research methods used were content analysis of portfolios, and interviews with children on their document. The research findings show that within the preschool environment, portfolios are used in a number of ways. These ways are directly linked to the teacher's belief on the importance of portfolios for preschool-age children. A child's portfolio can be a concept, a tool, a method or also a means. The results also present the children's original perspective on their own portfolios. This study is based on a part of my completed rigorosum thesis (Trávníčková, 2019).
Keywords: child's portfolio, positivist and constructivist concept of child's portfolio

Introduction
At the current time, a constructivist concept of teaching and child learning is an increasingly common international topic. In this regard, one can note an endeavour by experts to ensure children are active within teaching processes. A number of education strategies are offered in order to meet this objective, such as Enquiry based learning, STEM education, etc. These strategies accept children's *agency* and mediate children's experiences which are significant to them mainly in terms of their own learning. Portfolios have also become an important tool in this context.

Children's portfolios are a tool used within the school environment. The way they are used, however, differs according to the teacher's beliefs about their importance.. Seitz, Bartholomew (2008) describe how the function of portfolios is

not just to record children's development, but also to depict their talents and interests through electronic, oral and printed forms. In regard to portfolios, we can encounter, e.g. in Košťálová, Miková and Stang (2008, pp. 112-113), their division by various criteria. They are divided according to the purpose for which items are collected, according to who decided what type of item should be included in portfolios, and also according to who chooses specific examples of materials for the portfolio, and last but not least according to who evaluates the portfolio content and according to the level of arrangement and selection.

By defining these noted criteria, one can identify two paradigms whose objectives are entirely different. These are constructivist and positivist concepts of portfolios, as discussed, e.g. by Václavík (2013), Conrad (2006), Barrette & Corney (2005), and Paulson & Paulson (1994). It is clear that these two concepts notionally oppose each other. According to the presented criteria, a positivist portfolio is one where it is the teacher who decides on the portfolio content and who is also its assessor (Fig. 1). A constructivist portfolio would give more space to the child, who would decide on its content, choose items (where an item refers to one artefact within the portfolio – e.g. one sheet of paper) and would assess the contents of the document. While a positivist approach prioritises the selection of items which reflect external standards and interests, a constructivist approach focuses its attention on learning from the perspective of the learning individual, so giving more priority to processes. Thus for children it develops processes such as planning, implementation, control and evaluating one's own activities (Fig. 2). Putting it simply, one could say that the fundamental difference is in the concept of the portfolio as objective and portfolio as method (Václavík, 2013; Conrad, 2006). In further parts of the study, the objective is to provide readers with more information on these two approaches. Figures 1 and 2 portray the creation of a positivist and constructivist portfolio.

Kratochvílová (2014, p. 4) states that the "portfolio is the property of the child". This statement should imply that it is up to the child what the portfolio looks like and what its contents are. For a preschool-age child, it is naturally very difficult to work with the portfolio. Planning, ordering and deciding are processes which on the one hand move the child forward, and on the other hand force them to expend a certain effort. In regard to the value of the portfolio for the child, Gavora (2013, p. 46) states that, "… the portfolio is of great importance for the child. It is a powerful motivating actor. As the author of the work in his or her portfolio, the child can follow his or her progress and enjoy it. Children can mutually assess and compare their products with fellow pupils. Therefore the portfolio is an important factor in the child's self-assessment, leading the child to independence and developing his or her self-conception."

What do portfolios give children?

A portfolio can work as a tool for self-management and creating shared responsibility for one's own learning. It can help children to understand their development better and motivate them to improve further. Seitz, Bartolomew (2008) say that a portfolio is one of the tools of "celebrating" the child. In other words, the content of the portfolio also include his or her personal interests, photographs of events in the preschool or his or her own photographs. Sharing it with others (parents, teachers, children) further deepens the child's relationship to his or her portfolio.

A carefully managed portfolio supports children in self-assessment, which is a component of developing their self-esteem. This is formed during the pre-school years, and is a reflection of how the child evaluates him or herself. The child's engagement in creating their portfolio is very significant here. The teacher, as an assistant in its initial creation, provides the child with a guide on how to create it, with the rest of the work up to the child. Thus the child's own choices are implemented here (Marion, 2003). The child then perceives this set of documents as his or her own "book", to which the child has an emotional relationship.

What do portfolios bring the teacher?

Systematic work with the portfolio gives the teacher a deeper knowledge of the child, allows them to monitor the child's development, and it is also a good tool for discussions between the teacher and parents about the child. This naturally also influences co-operation between the family and preschool (Marion, 2003). Sedláčková, Syslová, Štěpánková (2012) state that the main function of the portfolio is to get to know the child, his or her strengths and weaknesses, and use ascertained skills to secure an appropriate plan for their further development. In their concept, its function then is above all informational and diagnostic, in contrast to Marion (2003), who notes, amongst other matters, its importance for improving the teacher's professional competences. In other words, it gives the teacher feedback on the content of education at two levels. At one level, the teacher can assess whether the child has understood the educational content on the basis of the documents included in the portfolio, and also whether it has aroused the child's interest in the particular topic. At another level, the teacher can in contrast work in regard to the child's interests, incorporating it into the educational content.

Methodology

The primary objective of this study is to understand how children describe their portfolio and how children's portfolios are used within the education process. In sub-objectives, attention is also focused on the process of portfolio creation, where there is a difference between a positivist and constructivist concept within preschool conditions.

Research methods

The method chosen in this study was content analysis of children's portfolios. These documents, however, contain mainly visual communication forms. Photographic records of these portfolio were created, which were then used for the actual analysis. A criterion which needs to be met in this method is to determine the analysis units. Here, a unit will be an item in the portfolio – a product. There are very few items in written form compared to those in visual form, however. In a content analysis of pupils' portfolios at elementary schools, Gavora (2015) indicates implementation of verbal (i.e. text) and visual (i.e. pictures, photographs, etc.) forms. Another method chosen is interviews with the children. These interviews were undertaken while looking at their own portfolios. The questions posited to the children were focused on the content of the children's portfolios and who put the particular documents in the portfolio. The children were also asked why they think the portfolios were made, and what they think will happen to them once they go to school.

Research sample

The selection of portfolios was undertaken with intention, such that it was a deliberate selection, typical for exploratory research (Gavora, 2015). A total of 10 children's portfolios capturing three years of a child's life were analysed. They were portfolios from the Zlín and South Moravian Regions. Interviews took place with ten children aged 5-6 years of age from the Zlín and South Moravian Regions. Informed parental consent had to be secured for the children's participation in the research.

Data analysis

Data analysis was undertaken on the basis of photo records of the selected portfolios. An analysis of a total of ten portfolios capturing the life of children for a three-year period were undertaken. A system of codes was created through determining analysis units after systematically looking through the portfolios a number of times. These codes were subsequently sorted into different categories. The process of coding ended after saturation of all categories. The Dictaphone recording of the interview was first put into written form, resulting in a transcript. This was systematically reviewed, and this was followed by open coding. In this process, the text was divided into units with codes assigned to these units. Sorting these codes subsequently led to the creation of categories.

Research findings

The content analysis research findings also complement the research findings from the implemented interview.

Content analysis of the children's portfolio revealed a number of types of items which comprised the content of the portfolios analysed. These were worksheets,

graphomotor sheets, documents for identifying the child, documents focused on the child and their family, the children's artwork and drawings. Some items also included descriptions from the teacher.

A total of 5 categories arose from the undertaken interviews: "Because I want to", "The teacher said", "Tasks and pictures", "Portfolio as a memento" and "That was a scribble – I can draw now."

The research findings from the content analysis and interviews with the children show that both the child and teacher can be involved in the process of portfolio creation. The extent of this may vary on a case-by-case basis. Content analysis revealed what types of items are found in the portfolio.

Each of the investigated portfolios gives basic details on the child, such as his or her photograph or other marks. This initial page works as a kind of *child identifier*. In the interview, the child often spoke about this photograph, or other mark. Statements were made here such as *"I was little then"*, etc. The child is actively involved in creating the initial page, although it is all done under the supervision of the preschool teacher, who provides instructions on how to create it.

It appears that the most numerous items in the children's portfolios are *worksheets and graphomotor sheets*. The children perceive these products as *tasks* and they are encouraged by the teacher to include them in their portfolios. The children discuss these artefacts only on the basis of a description. We think that the teacher utilises these sheets for diagnostics of the child, in which, however, they are interested more in the results of the work rather than the actual process of portfolio creation. We can also come to this conviction through the *teacher descriptions*, which are part of these sheets. These descriptions are mainly of informative and diagnostic importance and are found on almost all products. They are often evaluative, or also descriptive, in nature. In this way, the teacher comments on completion of the task and its quality. The child can also add comments.

Another important type of product within the portfolios comprises *free drawings from the child*. These drawings are seen very frequently. Alongside these items are pieces of artwork from the child requested by the teacher. These types of work, however, are only occasionally found in the portfolios. In particular, these involve work using art techniques which are common in preschools. These pieces are made on the instructions of the teacher, who according to the interviews undertaken also decides that they should be included in the portfolios. Children call the free drawings "pictures". The pictures which the child includes in their portfolio are usually of great value to them, and they often reflect the child's interests and experiences. The children speak extensively about these drawings, and they are motivated to share this part of their portfolio. Compared to the worksheets and graphomotor sheets, they speak much more about their meaning

and content. The child includes these drawings only if they want to. This fact is also testified to in the research findings found on the basis of the interviews. These suggest that items are included in the portfolio either on the basis of the child's decision, these mainly comprising free drawings from the child, or else on the instructions of the teacher, these mainly being pieces of artwork. It is in this area that we most commonly saw children evaluating their previous skills in hindsight. Representative statements made include, for example: *I used to do scribbles – but now I can draw*. Thus, they commented on their drawing, for example, or sometimes also a task they did poorly in but now would do better in.

Another item is *documents focused on the child and the child's family*. These are documents in which the child comments on him or herself, and the skills and interests they and their loved ones have. These documents are produced in co-operation with the teacher, who records the child's statements in a list. The motive for creating this product, however, mainly comes from the teacher. The children also commonly perceive this type of document as a task. This is probably because the work is undertaken on the teacher's instructions. Mostly, however, they do not know why they were done, and these products are rather unclear to them.

Within this research, there are also categories about how children explain the reason their portfolios were produced. Children have different ideas on their meaning. Some think that they are something in which pictures are put, *"so they don't get lost"*. Others believe they are a kind of *"memento"*. Most of the children, however, were unable to answer the question. In order for the portfolio to truly fulfil its objective, children should be informed on the reason it is made. In this phase we get to the question of what will happen to the portfolio. Children's responses varied, with some children saying, *"the portfolio is left at preschool"*, while others will, *"take them with them to school"*. It is a pity that portfolios are not often used in the child's transfer from preschool to elementary school. We think that the portfolio could help Year 1 teachers to find out more about the children, their interests and development in general. We can only guess as to what actually happens to the portfolios after the child leaves preschool.

The subsequent sections will present two portfolio concepts: a positivist-framed portfolio and a constructivist-framed portfolio. The two figures shown were produced using the research findings, and they are the figures used in the Trávníčková (2019) source.
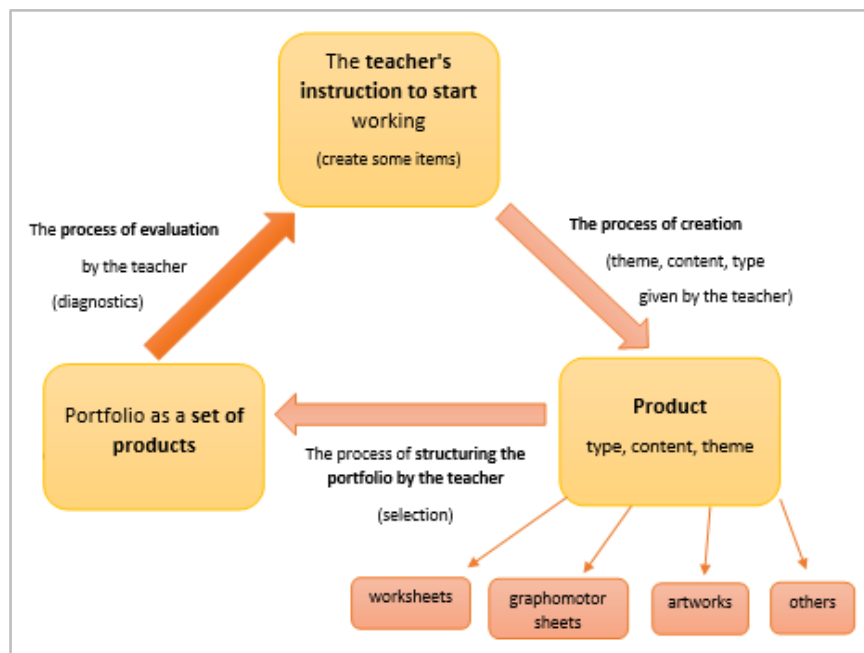
Fig. 1: Positivist-framed portfolio (source: Trávníčková, 2019)

This begins with the teacher's instruction to create the product. The child's task is to carry out the instruction. The child may of course perceive this external motive positively. The process of creating the product is directly influenced by the task. It is thus common for the content of the product and its theme to be given in advance. This is decided upon by an external authority – the teacher. The type of product is decided upon in the same way. In other words, the child is given, for example, a graphomotor sheet whose objective is to develop fine motor skills and which is on the theme of autumn crops. There is minimal invention from the child. The process of structuring is thus set by the teacher, who systematically includes the product according to specific criteria in the portfolio being made. For example, if it is a representative portfolio then the children's best products are chosen. If it is diagnostic, products of the child demonstrating his or her development are chosen. The child is only exceptionally involved in this sorting process. During this phase, a portfolio of a particular nature is produced. This might be, for example, a collection, representative, diagnostic or other portfolio. A very important phase in regard to the creation of and work on the portfolio is the process of evaluation. In a positivist approach, this is undertaken at a summation level. This means that the teacher is interested in the children's results. These are evaluated: met – not met,

able to – unable to. On the basis of this evaluation, the teacher chooses the next task – a new motive which helps the child to further develop in an optimum manner. Thus it is used mainly by the teacher to assess the child's progress. The child is not involved in this evaluation.
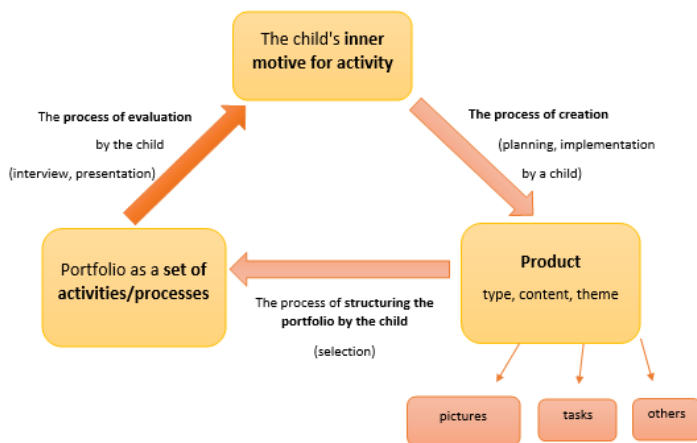
Fig. 2: Constructivist-framed portfolio (source: Trávníčková, 2019)

The child's inner motive for the activity is the first step for work with the portfolio. This step is very important and its importance rises if the motive comes directly from the child. The child as the main agent in the learning process is a typical feature of this constructivist concept. Subsequently, in the process of creation a theme and content of activity, or also product, is constructed. Both these may change during this phase. It is all up to the child. The teacher here functions as helper or advisor, but does not intervene in any major way in the child's process of creation or activity. Following these phases, a product is produced which has a particular content and theme, and we can classify it as a particular type of product, for example drawing, painting, handprints or written text. The child classifies products simply into pictures and tasks. If the product is not either of these types, then the child calls it by various names – wish, photograph, letter, puzzle, etc. Structuring can take place on the basis of identification of the product. Additional processes take place in this regard, such as planning, decision-making and selection. These processes are very difficult for the child, but their involvement in development is very large. At the end of this phase, a portfolio is produced as a set of activities, or also processes. It is not a product which is completed. It also reflects the personality, interests, skills and experiences of the individual. It is a kind of book about the child. The child has an emotional relationship to it, because they

were actively involved in its creation. Whether the portfolio is termed a collection, representative or diagnostic is not of value to the child. The child gives it their own name – e.g. My Book. The final, and also perhaps initial, phase is the process of evaluation, reflecting on the portfolio. In a constructivist concept of the portfolio, a formative type of evaluation is mainly used, in which the child is actively involved. This evaluation can be undertaken through a discussion, or presentation. The child can look through the portfolio with other children, with their parents or with the teacher. This evaluation can be the basis for another motive to create a new product. Thus very effective processes of self-evaluation and planning are undertaken here, leading directly to further leaning for the child. The teacher is also involved in this evaluation. The teacher's position, however, is again to play the role of advisor and helper. The teacher helps the child to posit questions, motivating them to further activities, and also providing the child with feedback.

Conclusion

A child's preschool age is a period of great development of all components of his or her character, thinking, and physical and mental growth. Children are often underestimated by adults, and they are not always given the space to work independently. A teacher's beliefs in their children's abilities are very important in this area, because only if the preschool teacher sees the value in using portfolios within a constructivist framework can the process work. A child's portfolio, then, is not just a set of the child's products which can be worked with in terms of evaluation, sorting and representation. It is a set of the child's activities which dominate in their centre of interest, in which products and their evaluation less focused on. Because if the centre of attention is moved to products, then the processes which took place through them will not be seen. Processes are much more important for the child than any product could be.

Acknowledgement

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The effects of guessing confidence
on anticipatory behaviour in context understanding

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Abstract
The study investigates the anticipatory behaviour in a word guessing experiment with Slovak L2 speakers of English of varying proficiency levels. The L2 speakers are trying to correctly identify the word that the interlocutor is hinting at with two consecutive cues as soon as they are confident enough to provide the answer. This created a connection between anticipation and guessing confidence. The effect of guessing confidence on the anticipatory behaviour is measured through the change in response latency of how quickly the guessers produce their guesses after listening to the cues. The aim is to study how the response latencies of the listeners are affected by their previous correct or incorrect guesses. The findings suggest that the correctness of guesses has a measurable impact on response latency.
Keywords: communication anticipation, response latency, communication confidence, L2 communication success

1 Introduction
1.1 Previous research of anticipation
Anticipation in its purest form is a term used throughout a large variety of disciplines, such as computing (Dubois, 2010; Vachiratamporn, Legaspi, and Numao, 2012), economics (Theodos, Brash, Compton, Masken, Pindus and Steuerle, 2010, Realyvásquez, Maldonado-Macías, Arredondo, 2018), psychology (Riegler, 2001; Huron, 2006; Gamble and Gamble, 2013), linguistics (Nooteboom, Cohen, 1975; Jörg, 1997; Butz, Sigaud, Gérard, 2003; Butz, Sigaud, Pezzulo, Baldassarre, 2007; Rietvelde, Eyckmans, and Bauwens, 2010; Lorenz, 2013; Chappell, 2014; Busse, Moehlig-Falke, 2019; Poli, Valerio, 2019) and many others (Fry, 1973; Chernov, 1994; Chernov, 2004; Johansson and Balkenius, 2007; Kokinov, Grinberg, Petkov, Kiryazov, 2008; Dastyar, 2019; Zaborowski, 2019) although the understanding of the term changes based on the setting. However, some basic features of anticipation are shared throughout the disciplines, which may prove helpful in understanding the concept of language anticipation. The

general understanding of what anticipation is paraphrased as conducting an action based on the expected continuation of a process. Furthermore, a distinction in terms of linguistic approaches to anticipation needs to be highlighted between anticipation and anticipatory behaviour. As defined by Crystal (2008, p. 27) anticipation is "a term used by some psycholinguists to refer to a type of tongue-slip where a later linguistic unit influences an earlier, as when *catch the ball* might become *batch the call*". In our view, anticipatory behaviour is an ongoing process that we subconsciously execute while listening to interlocutors, as it is often observable in simultaneous interpretation. It is a process, which over time improves the understanding of communication through already gathered information extracted from verbal and non-verbal cues. This process allows the prediction of upcoming words and messages.

This approach to what language anticipation and anticipatory behaviour is suggests that when interpreters are translating for a client, they can very often predict what the speaker is going to say based on their understanding of the topic, the overall message, and the usual patterns they observed from the speaker. This is an interesting concept, which leads us to believe that the human brain tries to predict the upcoming words and messages based on what has already been said to enhance communication success. We can further support this claim by the definition that anticipation is "future based information acting in present" (Poli, 2017), which can also be interpreted as the act of considering several possible scenarios of what may appear in conversation and based on our current knowledge we choose the most probable continuation of speech. We then use this hypothetical continuation as the basis for interpreting the message of the interlocutor.

In other words, while we listen to other people's speech, we are executing several tasks at the same time, which help us understand what is being said by the speaker. We are creating and communicating messages, but we are also listening to others speak and we learn to understand the way in which they communicate and think. This helps us create or identify the pattern of how they are building sentences and structuring messages. We subconsciously use this pattern to predict how they are going to continue their speech. The outcomes and predictions based on our anticipatory behaviour are not always correct, since we cannot perfectly predict what the other speaker is going to say, but we can reliably assess what the speaker may say next. Therefore, being an active participant of a conversation does not merely require verbal production of speech, but also both the conscious and subconscious act of listening, thinking, understanding, and anticipating of what is to be said. It is perhaps the human nature to try and understand the point of view of the other interlocutors by attempting to "walk in their shoes" by adjusting our thinking, trying to understand their message, and anticipating what they may say

next. Such behaviour demonstrates a higher understanding of communication beyond just word order, sentence structure, or collocations.

The understanding of what anticipation is was further discussed by Poli (2017), who described anticipation from the linguistic viewpoint as a term which "refers to all forward-looking attitudes and activities". This supports our view of language anticipation, since it falls directly under his explanation of what constitutes as anticipation. He then further discussed the existence of "anticipatory behaviour", which in a real-life situation would be like taking an umbrella after hearing a forecast stating that it should rain the next day. In this case, we can highlight two important differences between what is anticipation and anticipatory behaviour. Based on previously acquired information we anticipate that it should rain the next day, therefore, we conduct the anticipatory behaviour of taking an umbrella. This leads us to the conclusion that in order for anticipation to be effective, we need to take action to try and affect the future outcome of a situation based on the anticipated outcome. If we anticipate that it should rain, the result may be that we will get wet if we do not act. In such a situation, anticipatory behaviour or action would always be in our benefit, however, in case of anticipatory behaviour in communication, there might be some negatives, which may occur. Such negative outcomes could be the incorrect understanding of the message or of the context of a conversation.

To put this into more concrete language related terms, let's use the example of an interpreter translating the speech of a politician regarding the opposition of a law. The interpreter anticipates the usage of vocabulary related to politics and since the law in question relates to conservation efforts connected to a national park, it is also valid to anticipate the usage terms related to environment. Such communication anticipation is closely related to priming effects through their close relation to vocabulary and memory as demonstrated by Tulving, Schacter, and Stark (1982). Although priming can prepare the brain for the used vocabulary, semantics of communication, and syntactic structures, anticipatory behaviour facilitates the word-to-word prediction of what is to be said in communication. This distinction highlights the necessity for further analysis of anticipatory behaviour in human communication and also the influencing factors of anticipatory behaviour, which may increase or decrease its success rate.

Therefore, we conclude that anticipatory behaviour of a person is affected by several factors during communication. Some of the factors relate to the person's own understanding of the language and their overall proficiency. Speakers of a higher proficiency level possess a better understanding of the workings of the respective language; therefore, they can more reliably predict what is to come (Pöchhacker and Liu, 2014). This is especially true for native speakers, but it is also observable with L2 speakers. It is logical to assume that a higher proficiency level speaker should also have a better understanding of the language he/she uses.

Other factors were also previously linked to anticipation and prediction. One such factor is confidence (Nadin, 2015; Pezzulo, Butz, Castelfranchi, Falcone, 2005), which can be thought of as the ability of choosing the best option or conducting the best action. This means that by listening to someone's speech we learn how they create messages and we narrow down the possible options of how they may proceed in their communication. As we understand the speaker more, the confidence in our predictions should rise and allow us to choose the best possible continuation of their speech. This is an essential factor in being able to reliably and effectively interpret speech.

The role of confidence could therefore have a measurable impact on our ability to anticipate what is to come. If a listener has acquired enough information and understanding of the context, he/she should in turn be able to build up confidence in the topic. This confidence could then affect the time it takes the listener to accurately anticipate the upcoming words and messages. The accuracy of anticipation was previously studied by Herriot (2013), who states that: "When perceiving speech, the listener can anticipate what is going to be said so ably that he can often supply the word or words", which is hinting at the ability to decipher deeper meaning subconsciously in order to better understand the message. The confidence in one's abilities to understand the conversation could therefore affect the ability to anticipate. Such an understanding could be also useful in anticipating of what is meant but not said. To clarify this statement, we should think of a guessing game. In this game a speaker is given a word to which he/she is supposed to create cues. The speaker is given the word summer. He/she then creates the following cues: "In a year we get one of these. They are autumn, winter, spring, and…", after which the listener can easily anticipate that the following word should be summer.

As it can be seen in the example, the quality of the cues might vary. The first sentence ("In a year we get one of these") seems to be weaker than the second one, because it suggests a wider range of possible outcomes, since summer is not the only logical option. This could in turn affect the confidence of the listener. To clarify this statement, when the listener hears the first cue, he/she is uncertain of what it means or what is to come. Only after listening to the second cue, they are able to reliably say that the speaker was hinting at summer. This varying change in the quality of the cues may have an impact on the listener's overall confidence in guessing. If the speaker constantly provides cues that are weak or hard to understand, the listener cannot reliably build up the confidence to anticipate the words for guessing. On the other hand, if the speaker provides easily understandable cues, which the listener uses to correctly guess, then in turn the listener's confidence and understanding should improve.

Such an effect on confidence could hypothetically be measured. To measure it, we need to use a reliable and quantifiable variable such as response latency.

Response latency in our case is defined as the time between the end of a cue and the beginning of the answer. We hypothesize that there is a decrease in response latency caused by the listeners' rise in confidence because of previous successful guesses. That should also mean that if the listeners guess incorrectly, their response latency should increase. This means that we assume a measurable change in response latency that is linked to the success of guesses. This idea is supported by previous research conducted by Kimble and Seidel (1991) in the effects of confidence on vocal loudness and response latency. Based on their results, the participants got louder and responded faster the more confident they were.

1.2 Aims of the paper

In the following study, we were trying to answer several research questions linked to guessing confidence and anticipation. We were analysing the consistency of a measurable difference in response latency between guesses. The consistency in this case is meant as an increase in response latency after an incorrect guess and a decrease after a correct guess. We thus tested whether the hypothesized "gaining of confidence" from a correct guess lowers the response latency in any following guess. The second set of tests focused on the act of "losing confidence" after an unsuccessful guess and its effect on increasing the response latency for any guess that follows. Thirdly, we hypothesized that there is a measurable impact of cue quality on the success rate of guessing. Lastly, we hypothesize that there is a measurable relationship between communication success and proficiency levels of L2 speakers.

2 Methodology
2.1 Preparation and procedure

The research is based on a semi-spontaneous word guessing experiment. This experiment involved 13 Slovak L2 speakers of English of varying proficiency levels (B1, B2, C1). Each of the participants was given a set of 10 unique words. These words were chosen from the British National Corpus based on their frequency of use. They belong to the 5000 most commonly used words; therefore, they should be known to all the participants regardless of proficiency level. Each word had to be 1-3 syllables long and it had to be a noun, a verb or an adjective. The experiment was divided into two main phases. In phase one, the participants were given the aforementioned ten-word sets. However, they were only shown one word at a time for ten seconds. They were asked to use these ten seconds to create two cues for the word. They were prohibited from using the word itself, but also any part of the word. For example, if the speaker is given the word "holiday" they cannot use the word day, since it is a part of the main word. The participants were asked to provide "wholesome" cues, preferably sentence cues, instead of just using one or

two words. We recorded the cues that the participants have given and processed the recordings for usage in phase two.

2.2 Recording processing

The recordings were processed using PRAAT speech analysis software, where the cues were labelled and extracted using a script. These cues were concatenated into a sound file, which consisted of all the cues with 3 second pauses included between the cues. The purpose of the pauses was to give listeners time to guess the speaker's word. Two versions of the sound files were created for all of the speakers. In version 1, the original order of the cues was maintained. This set of recordings was titled as the A set. In version 2, the cues were switched, so first the listener would hear cue 2, then three seconds of silence, and then cue 1, again followed by three seconds of silence. This set of recordings was titled as the B set. Table 1 offers an easier visualization of the setup of sets A and B. These two sets were created to allow the determination of the cue quality.

Set A	Word 1 Cue 1	3 seconds of silence	Word 1 Cue 2	3 seconds of silence	Word 2 Cue 1
Set B	Word 1 Cue 2	3 seconds of silence	Word 1 Cue 1	3 seconds of silence	Word 2 Cue 2

Tab. 1: The design of sets A and B

2.3 Data acquisition

In phase two, we had all the participants listen to the concatenated recordings from phase one. We split up the participants into two groups, where group A listened to set A and group B to set B. They were tasked with guessing the word that the speaker was describing. They were asked to guess as soon as they are confident with their answer. As mentioned before, each cue was listened to at least five times. This provided a minimum of five evaluation data points for each of the cues. Phase two was also recorded. These recordings were labelled using PRAAT, in order to measure the response latencies between the end of the cue and the beginning of the answer. The labelling methodology is shown in Table 2.

As the table infers, the response time data could be extracted from three of the four possible label areas, since the GC label offers no response latency data, because the word was already successfully guessed. The NG label indicates that full three seconds were used without any guess made. The RTA and RTB labels confirm the presence of a guess, although as it is obvious from the table, in these cases the successfulness of the guess is not recorded. To clarify, the data extracted during the PRAAT analysis was used only to extract the response latency data. No guess success data was extracted even though some of the labelled areas may hint at the correctness or incorrectness of guess.

Label name	Label description
NG	*No guess – this label is used whenever the listener provided no guesses or simply stated "I don't know"*
RTB	*Response time (before) – this label indicates that the guess was made before the cue was finished*
RTA	*Response time (after) – in this case, the guess was made after listening to the cue, in other words, during the three seconds of silence*
GC	*Guessed correctly – the GC label was used in case, when the word was already correctly guessed following the previous cue*

Tab. 2: Labelling methodology

A check sheet was used for the recording of the success rate of guessing, which was later transferred into a database. An example of such a sheet is shown in Table 3, which illustrates how the results were recorded by the experimenter. Three symbols were used to mark the success of the listener's guess, where the symbol "o" was used in case of a successful guess, the symbol "x" showed an incorrect guess or no guess, and the symbol "-" indicated that it was previously answered correctly.

Listener 1				Speaker 1			Set A
Word no.	Word 1 bird		Word 2 prison		Word 3 happy		Word 4 keyboard	
Cue no.	Cue 1	Cue 2	Cue 1	Cue 2	Cue 1	Cue 2	Cue 1	Cue 2
Success	x	o	o	-	x	x	o	-
Word no.	Word 5 subject		Word 6 window		Word 7 curious		Word 8 to swim	
Cue no.	Cue 1	Cue 2	Cue 1	Cue 2	Cue 1	Cue 2	Cue 1	Cue 2
Success	x	x	x	o	x	x	o	-

Tab. 3: Check sheet of guess successfulness

2.4 Data processing

A total of 240 data points was extracted from the check sheets per listener, since every listener was given twelve recordings consisting of ten words with two cues each. This provided us with 3120 data points for further analysis regarding the success of guessing. In simpler terms, each cue possessed twelve data points,

which showed the success of guessing. Due to previous creation of two separate sets A and B, we can also extract data regarding the quality of a cue based on how often it was followed by a successful guess.

To specify this idea, in pilot research all the participants listened to a recording with cues in their original order, just like in set A. They constantly guessed correctly on the second cue. From this it was difficult to determine whether they guessed correctly, because the second cue was of a higher quality or if they guessed correctly, because they gathered information from both cues. We therefore took another recording and created two versions of it, as mentioned above. We had 6 participants listen to version A with the original cue order and the other 6 to version B, where the order was switched. To provide an example, the participants were guessing the word "keyboard". In both cases, most participants guessed correctly on cue 1 both in version A, where this cue came first, and B, where the cue came second. This indicates that this cue was of a higher quality, than cue 2. The creation of two versions also guaranteed that each cue was listened to at least five times. When we used only version A, some of the cues, which went second were used for guessing only two or three times. This occurred, because participants already successfully answered after the first cue and therefore, no guess was needed for the second cue.

The collection of raw data from PRAAT and the check sheets resulted in the creation of two independent data sets consisting of response latencies and guess correctness. Further analysis of these data sets was conducted to provide answers for the research questions stated in the introductory paragraph.

3 Data analysis

Firstly, all of the data was used during the analysis regardless of it being from set variants A or B. This data was divided into four groups based on guess success as shown in Figure 1. The difference in response latency was calculated in each of the categories. These categories only consisted of response latency differences corresponding to a specific setting, as shown in figure 1. The arrows indicated how the guesses followed, for example in group B an incorrect guess is followed by a correct guess. Therefore, the difference was calculated as the second response latency minus the first.

First of the groups, which were analysed was group A. A two-tailed on sample t-test was used to calculate the mean of the group. The t-test resulted with a mean of -0.055, a p-value of <0.219, and a t-value of -1.229, which was lower than the critical t-value of 1.962. The data shows that the null hypothesis of the hypothesised mean of 0 cannot be rejected, since the t-value did not surpass the critical t-value as well as p-value being higher than 0.05. The data also suggests a very minor tendency for the response time to decrease when an incorrect guess is followed by another incorrect guess, although the difference is an almost negligible

0.055 seconds. This result does not however conclusively answer our research question whether incorrect guesses increase the response latency for any following guess. Since almost no change was observed, we need to further analyse the following group B, which also starts with an incorrect guess.
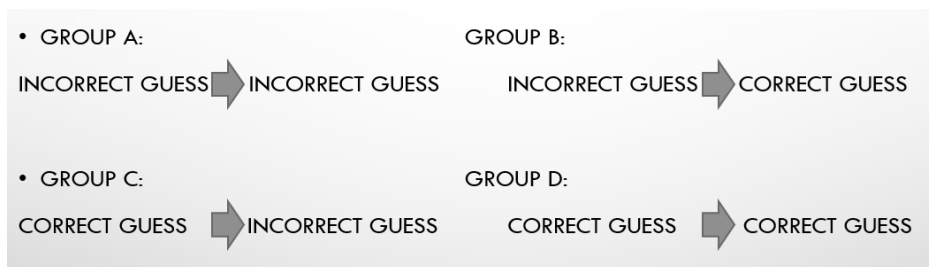
Fig. 1: Guess success groups

The intention of analysing group B was to find data supporting or rejecting the hypothesis that incorrect guesses increase the response latency of any following guess. As it was already stated, both group A and B start with an incorrect guess, while group A results in another incorrect as opposed to group B, which results in a correct guess. Another two-tailed one sample t-test was calculated to calculate the mean of this group. A null hypothesis of 0 being the mean was also created. The t-test resulted with a mean value of -0.445, accompanied by a p-value of <0.001 and a t-value of -4.333. If we compare the resulting t-value of -4.333 to the resulting critical t-value of 1.964, we can see that it is much lower and therefore cannot be used to reject the null hypothesis, however, the p-value of <0.001 is conclusive enough for rejection. This suggests a statistical significance of the calculated mean, which was -0.445. Our original hypothesis expected to see a positive result instead of a negative. This tells us that incorrect answers in fact decrease the response latency of the following guesses. The results therefore show an interesting outcome, which goes completely against what was expected.

To further examine the data, we chose to calculate a two-tailed one-sample t-test for group C as well. This group is the first, which starts with a correct guess, same as group D, although in this case the result is an incorrect guess. The calculation of the t-test was used to prove the statistical significance of the mean value, which was again calculated. The t-test resulted in a mean value of 0.439, with a p-value of <0.001 and a t-value of 4.238. As with the previous two groups, the null hypothesis was that the mean would be zero. P-value of <0.001 together with the t-value of 4.238 being higher than the critical p-value of 1.964 lead us to reject the null hypothesis and prove the statistical significance of the data. Again, we may observe a surprising outcome, where the mean is a significantly high enough mean value of 0.439. This data shows that correct guesses in fact increase

the response latency opposed to the hypothesised decrease, which was stated in the research questions.

To confirm this trend of response latency increase following a correct guess, we lastly calculated another two-tailed one-sample t-test for group D. This group consisted of both guesses being correct. In this case, the resulting mean value of 0.328 was lower than the mean value of group C, but it again showed a tendency of increasing the response latency following a correct guess. To examine the statistical significance, the p-value of <0.009 was calculated together with a t-value of 2.632. As with the previous group, both the resulting p-value and t-value being higher than the critical t-value of 1.971 lead us to reject the null hypothesis. As with the previous group, the null hypothesis was that the mean of this group should be 0.

Both sets	mean value	p-value	t-value	critical t-value
Group A	-0.055	<0.219	-1.229	1.962
Group B	-0.445	<0.001	-4.333	1.964
Group C	0.439	<0.001	4.238	1.964
Group D	0.328	<0.009	2.632	1.971

Tab. 4: One-sample t-test data based on groups for both set variants

These initial t-tests showed an interesting result, which is also visualized in Table 4. Further testing of the data is needed to analyse the effects of the two different set variants on the results, which could provide us with more valuable results. During the following analyses, the data set was divided into two set variants A and B. The same one-sample t-tests were calculated to analyse, whether the variant composition does somehow affect the resulting values as compared to those shown in Table 4. The group composition stayed the same as it was originally shown in Figure 1. The results of these t-test are shown in Table 5.

Set A	mean value	p-value	t-value	critical t-value
Group A	-0.512	<0.392	-0.856	1.963
Group B	-1.795	<0.001	-16.708	1.968
Group C	1.826	<0.001	20.378	1.968
Group D	0.318	<0.082	1.752	1.979

Tab. 5: One-sample t-test data based on groups for set variant A

Again, we can see a set of interesting results seemingly confirming the original outcome, where correct guesses increase the response latency for any following guesses. On the other hand, we can also see a significant change in the mean value for almost all of the groups. Logically, this result is connected with exclusive usage

of set variant A. For group A, we can observe a significant increase in the mean value, but also in the p-value suggesting a smaller statistical significance. However, the mean value is still interesting enough in the sense that this change is much more impactful than the previously calculated value of -0.055 when both variants were taken into account. This would suggest that incorrect answers truly do decrease the response latency, which is also supported by the statistically much more significant mean value calculated for group B.

As with the previous group, we can see a dramatic increase in the mean value. With group B we can observer a mean decrease of latency of -1.795 as compared to the previously calculated value of -0.445. This shows us a dramatic decrease of 1.35 second in response latency. The same significant increase is also observable in group C, where the mean value for set variant A are 1.826. As with the previous results, this is a huge change in the impact of answer correctness on response latency. In case of group C, we observed a further 1.387 second increase in response latency as compared to the results from Table 4. Group D was the only one of the four, which resulted in an almost negligible change in response latency. A further analysis and discussion of the data is needed to thoroughly examine the possible causes behind these occurrences.

The last of the one-sample two-tailed t-tests were calculated for all of the four groups belonging to set variant B. As with the previous calculations, the results are visualized in Table 6.

Set B	mean value	p-value	t-value	critical t-value
Group A	-0.060	<0.370	-0.898	1.965
Group B	1.410	<0.001	12.999	1.970
Group C	-1.450	<0.001	-10.806	1.970
Group D	0.342	<0.039	2.099	1.986

Tab. 6: One-sample t-test data based on groups for set variant B

For set variant B, the results for group A correspond with the findings from the original two variant t-test. The more significant and also the most interesting changes are observed in groups B and C. Even though both the t-test result from two variant calculation and variant A calculations contradicted our proposed hypothesis, we can see the opposite being true in this case. The mean value for group B is a positive value for the first time, which would suggest that our original hypothesis may still be partially true. The value of 1.410 suggests that in this set variant the response latency significantly increased after an incorrect guess was made. With group C, a negative value is observed for the first time, which would again lead us to believe that the proposed decrease of response latency does in fact occur after a successful guess. These results further suggest the presence of other factors influencing response latency. We believe that guessing confidence is in

these cases affected by the quality of the cues. To prove this claim, we need to return to the data set consisting of guess success values.

Firstly, we needed to create a reliable measure for the purposes of testing the quality of cues. The mean value of a listener's guessing rate seemed to be the best identifier of how well he/she was able to utilize and understand the cues to successfully guess the word. Using a one-sample two-tailed t-test we calculated the mean value for each of the listeners. The values could then be easily transferred into percentages, which showed show how successful the listener was at guessing. This could be done because of the simple nature of the calculation, which acquired its result from the sum of the guess values divided by the number of guesses. The guess values were only number 1 in case of a successful guess and 0 in case of an unsuccessful guess. As it was mentioned, a set of t-tests was used, which also showed the statistical significance of these values.

	Variant	Prof. level	mean value	p-value	t-value	critical t-value
Listener 1	A	C1	0.320	<0.001	9.754	1.972
Listener 2	A	B2	0.357	<0.001	10.408	1.972
Listener 3	A	B1	0.255	<0.001	8.648	1.971
Listener 4	A	B2	0.349	<0.001	10.566	1.971
Listener 5	A	C1	0.292	<0.001	9.259	1.971
Listener 6	B	C1	0.353	<0.001	10.523	1.972
Listener 7	A	B1	0.220	<0.001	7.828	1.971
Listener 8	B	B1	0.263	<0.001	8.930	1.971
Listener 9	B	B1	0.150	<0.001	6.402	1.970
Listener 10	B	B2	0.362	<0.001	10.888	1.971
Listener 11	B	B2	0.312	<0.001	9.623	1.972
Listener 12	A	B2	0.291	<0.001	10.117	1.971
Listener 13	B	C1	0.467	<0.001	13.029	1.972

Tab. 7: Mean values of the guess success data

The results are shown in Table 7 demonstrate a significant variance in the mean values, which are used to represent the success of guesses. We can see several extreme outcomes, first of which is based on the logical assumption that proficiency level does impact the success rate of guessing. This statement is supported by the means for each of the proficiency levels shown in Table 8. C1 proficiency level was the best at guessing, followed by a B2 with a slightly smaller guess rate, with the B1 level being the least successful. These results are supported the findings of previously cited Pöchhacker & Liu (2014) and strongly hint at the improvement of anticipatory behaviour with higher proficiency levels. This also

suggests that the level of listener 9 may be even lower than B1 based on how far below the average he/she is.

Prof. level	mean value	p-value	t-value	critical t-value
C1	0.358	<0.001	9.336	3.183
B2	0.334	<0.001	24.027	2.777
B1	0.222	<0.001	8.584	3.183

Tab. 8: Mean success of guessing for each proficiency level

The second extreme variance of mean values in Table 7 is observed in connection with both proficiency levels and set variants. We can see that both the highest and the lowest value are observed in connection to variant B. If we were to omit listener 9 from the data set for being bellow the required proficiency level, then the data may have shown a clearer picture of true effect of set variants in connection with the que quality. To fully understand how the set variants A and B affect the guessing success of listeners, a last pair of one-sample t-tests was calculated. The results of these calculation are shown in Table 9. Even though only a small difference was observed between the mean values of guess success, it still seems to be significant enough to cause the extreme results, which were observed during the analyses shown in Table 6 during the group analysis of set variant B.

Variant	mean value	p-value	t-value	critical t-value
A	0.298	<0.001	15.942	2.447
B	0.318	<0.001	7.314	2.571

Tab. 9: Mean success of guessing for each of the set variants

4 Discussion and conclusion

In the current study, we set out to explore the relationship between the success rates of guessing and response latencies. In the original hypothesis we expected to see an increase of response latency after an incorrect guess and a decrease after a correct guess. However, the data showed the exact opposite of what was hypothesized in most cases apart from 2 of the 12 studied scenarios. This result does not fully disprove our original hypothesis, although a strong trend can be observed. This trend first emerged during the initial analysis of response latency change, which showed that incorrect guesses in fact decrease the response latency for any following guess. This was confirmed in 5 of the 6 tested cases. The only time the opposite was true was while analysing group B in set variant B. This was the only group, which showed an increase in response latency following an incorrect guess.

In case of guesses following a correct guess, our results were as surprising as in the previous section. Contrary to our original hypothesis, we observed that correct guesses in 5 of the 6 tested cases increase the response latency. We expected that a correct guess would provide a confidence boost, which would result in a decrease. The idea behind this claim was that the listener would be able to guess a word more quickly, because he gained confidence in his understanding of how the speaker constructs messages. We were expecting this confidence to allow him/her to assess the best guess more quickly. There was only one case in which this was true. As with the previous exception, this one also occurred in connection to set variant B. A significant decrease in response latency was calculated from the means. We therefore presumed that there was a deeper connection, which influenced the changes of response latency. In the introduction, we presented the concept of cue quality, which may be the influencing factor causing these differences.

Although the results were initially surprising, they seem to be at least somewhat logical. If we consider a situation, in which the listener correctly guesses, then possibly the thing that gets boosted is not purely confidence, but also stress. This may cause this person to try harder and therefore take a longer time to provide another answer. On the other hand, if we think of an opposite situation, in which a listener answered unsuccessfully, then possibly his confidence does not suffer as much and the level of stress is lower due to the lowering of his/her expectations. This in turn could result in the reason for the decrease of response latency. In the light of these findings, we therefore propose that stress and expectation both may have an effect on guessing confidence, response latency, and also the success of anticipation. One other factor we proposed was the aspect of cue quality.

We decided to measure the quality of each of the cues in both set variants based on how successfully they were guessed. There two significant differences between these variants, the people, who listened to them and the cue order. Therefore, some of the variance in guess success may be attributed to listeners themselves, although we tried to create as uniform groups as possible. The test results showed that there is in fact a difference between the two set variants. Therefore, we believe that some of this variance can also be attributed to the quality of cues. Such a conclusion would require a more thorough analysis of each of the cues and their effect on the overall guess success rate.

5 Limitations and future study

The findings of the current study suggest that there are other factors, which affect anticipatory behaviour than just guessing confidence and cue quality. Although these two factors were examined, we cannot yet conclusively state how strong of an influence they have on anticipation. We almost entirely disproved our

original hypothesis, but there were two cases with significant enough results, which still prevent us from entirely dismissing the hypothesised effects of guessing confidence on anticipation. A further study of this connection could provide a definite resolution to this matter.

A second limitation of the study is that response latency is not necessarily the best measure of confidence. A previous study by Kimble and Seidel (1991) linked confidence to loudness, which may be a more reliable source of data. Other indicators of confidence may also be connected to physiological attributes. Heart rate, sweating, or even the dilation of pupils may be a much better indicator, which could provide more comprehensive results in the study of the connection between confidence and anticipation.

One of the other factors, which we previously suggested as influencers of speaking confidence and anticipation could be stress. The effects of stress on speech have been previously studied, but the connection of how stress influences anticipation has not yet been fully examined in terms of communication. The hypothesis for such a study would be that stress could negatively affect the ability to use anticipation in communication and therefore decrease the level of message understanding. Gap filling tasks could be conducted to assess the impact of stress on anticipation. The involvement of physiological measurements may also help understand how different levels of stress affect anticipation. Another factor, which we already mentioned during the discussion, is expectation, which we believe could be closely connected to confidence and possibly to anticipation as well. If the speaker's expectations are not met, for example by incorrectly interpreting the message, then their anticipatory behaviour may worsen.

The impact of stress on the response latency may have been caused by the time limit, which was given to the participants. The level of impact could therefore be tested in a future study involving several groups with varying response time limits other than the three second time limit, which was used in the present study. We hypothesize that the effect of stress on response latency could be almost completely eliminated, if the experiment would not involve any time limit at all. This however offers new problems, which could impact the validity of the study. If there is no time limit, the participants may not feel the urge to hurry and give the answer as soon as they are confident enough. In turn, they may take longer amount of time to rethink the answer even if they have already made their mind up about their guess. Another form of motivation could therefore be used.

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Linguistic complexity of lecturers' class register and its relationship to their personality traits

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Abstract
Many research studies indicated a correlation between classroom behaviour and the language of the instructors and learners. The inter-language that the teachers prefer to use in the class differs from the natural, daily life conversations in linguistic terms. It is characterized by more simplistic, repetitive, carefully selected language, or "classroom register". The paper discusses a „foreign language classroom register" as a specific linguistic subsystem which is operated both by the rules of linguistic simplification and by constraints imposed by the specific social (school) setting. The standard language used in a classroom communication with a high ratio of short basic and coordinate sentences, more universal constructions, such as base case nominal phrases and active present indicative verb phrases, the limited reduction in morphological complexity as a result of a preference for a simple sentence structure. The research study examines a linguistic complexity of the teacher talk with focus on reductions, modifications, and simplifications. It also studies the personal attitudes of lecturers toward school discourse and the relation between teachers´ personality and a language complexity of their language.

Keywords: school discourse, interlanguage, foreign language classroom register, teachers´ personal traits

Introduction

"It is what teachers *think*, what teachers *do* and what teachers *talk* at the level of the classroom which shapes the kind of learning that young people get" (Hargreaves & Fullan, n.d.). It is a very short and precise explanation for mutual agreement between classroom behaviour and the language of the instructors and learners. Therefore the inter-language that the teachers prefer to use in the class differs from the natural, daily life conversations in linguistic terms as they tend to use more simplistic, repetitive, carefully selected language, or in other words, "Classroom Register" which is first described by Reid (1956). Accordingly, classroom language is one of the "distinct registers" that is chosen by teachers as an adjustment to the social setting. Henzl (1973) took the expression further and defined "Foreign Language Classroom Register" as a linguistic subsystem

operated both by the rules of linguistic simplification similar to those of the Foreigner Talk and Baby Talk Registers and by constraints imposed by the social setting, the standard language used in a classroom communication with a high ratio of short basic and coordinate sentences, more universal constructions, such as base case nominal phrases and active present indicative verb phrases, the limited reduction in morphological complexity as a result of a preference for a simple sentence structure. Also, the pronunciation is relatively slow and loud and aided by frequent use of concrete objects in the classroom, gestures, simulation of the events (Henzl, 1979). Therefore, to examine the linguistic complexity of the teacher talk accurately, the existence of some necessary operations such as reductions, modifications, simplifications to tune in with students' comprehension must be considered first. Within this frame, this study will search for answers for the language complexity of the lecturers' class talk, communication styles and personal attitudes of lecturers, and the relation between the language complexity of teachers and their personality. Thus, classroom register/talk of lecturers will be recorded and how their personality traits- which will be categorized through a questionnaire, can influence their classroom language complexity will be checked.

Literature review

As one of the lingual studies on classroom language, the research of Long (1983) is remarkable; he compared the language use of teachers in the class with the daily use and found out that ESL teachers use more display questions than the reference (real) questions, and also imperatives, comprehension checks, clarification requests are more common, additionally, he noted that teachers use present tense more than past or other tenses (practicality of here and now talk), talk is more structural, mechanical than meaningful therefore communication value of speech is low or non-existent, however, the quality of speech increases when the teacher starts a dialogue with students in a more descriptive and bidirectional way. Also, Hughes (2011) mentions that a greater part of classroom speech is created spontaneously in real-time which means that speakers tend to use simpler vocabulary, higher frequency of coordinated clauses, many fixed, filler expressions (you know, like, right.. etc.) to buy processing time. Classroom speech in L2 includes both competing lexical items with L1, mapping a diverse set of phonemes from a variety of L1 and dealing with these against the partial understanding of the target language syntax.

Language choice in teacher talk

Kim and Elder (2005) examined the language choices of Japanese, Korean, German, and French speaking instructors in New Zealand secondary schools. The study examined these teachers'patterns of alternation between English, the majority language, and the TL to make a cross-linguistic comparison of the relationship between teachers' language choices and particular pedagogic

functions. Findings suggest that most teachers tend to avoid complex interactions in the TL, limiting the potential for intake and for real communication on the part of the students. Although the teachers were almost at native-speaker proficiency, TL use was not optimized in terms of quantity or quality in their lessons, and therefore that the potential for intake and meaningful communication on the part of the students was limited.

Kim also claims that teachers' beliefs about language learning and their attitudes to TL use determine the content and structure of the lesson which means that their language choice can be more related to their beliefs about TL, influenced by their prior experience of language learning, and eventually their identity and personality.

Relation between speech patterns and personality

To get an insight into the personality and speech style relation, Ramsay (1966) studied lengths of sound, silence, units and sound/silence ratio in speech and proposed that as the complexity of the verbal task increases, the length of time spent in speech decreases and the length of time spent in silence increases, similarly, Goldman-Eisler (1972) has reported that silence is used for higher cognitive activity. As for personality factors, extroverts and introverts differ in terms of the length of silence between utterances. The results support the idea that talk comes after some cognitive activity or in other words thinking, contemplating in the case of introverts.

The Extravert type of personality is described by Eysenck and Eysenck (1963) as sociable, party lover, talkative, and not a loner and the introvert type as a quiet, introspective, fond of books rather than people; reserved and distant except to intimate friends. Results of the Ramsay's study show that this description is valid for speech patterns.

Big five personality traits and linguistic complexity

The lexical hypothesis asserts that "*personality characteristics which are most important in peoples' lives will eventually become a part of their language and, secondly, that more important personality characteristics are more likely to be encoded into language as a single word*". Accordingly, to detect the personal differences encoded in conversation and relate these individual traits to linguistic production; the standard model called Big Five Personality Traits (also known as the five-factor model -FFM), which is developed to describe personality types under these factors: extraversion vs. introversion, emotional stability vs. neuroticism, agreeableness vs. disagreeableness, conscientiousness vs. unconscientiousness, openness to experience is worth mentioning. Pennebaker and King (1999) identified many linguistic features to be linked with Big Five personality traits through Linguistic Inquiry and Word Count (LIWC) tool to count word categories of essays written by students whose personality has been

assessed using a questionnaire. Their findings suggest linguistic dimensions and personality traits are correlated in the sense that neurotics use more 1st person singular pronouns, more negative emotion words, and less positive emotion words while agreeable people express more positive and fewer negative emotions with fewer articles. Conscientious people avoid negations, negative emotion words, and words reflecting discrepancies (e.g., should and would). Finally, people who are more open to experience tend to prefer longer words and words expressing tentativity (e.g., perhaps and maybe), as well as the avoidance of 1st person singular pronouns and present tense forms. Similarly, the findings of Berry, Pennebaker, Mueller, and Hiller (1997) state that extraversion uses fewer negative emotion words and unique words, and more present tense verbs, with dominant texts using fewer unique words, positive emotion words, and self referents.

As for the division of conversational styles of extroverts and introverts; another study by Carment, Miles, and Cervin (1965) describes Extroverts as loud thinkers, more talkative, less self-focused, and more distracted. Conversely, Introverts as monopolising, more self-focused, and deep thinkers. Also, Scherer (1979), Furnham (1990) propose that extravert language is less formal with more restricted code, more verbs, adverbs, and pronouns (rather than nouns, adjectives, and prepositions), and loose vocabulary. Gill & Oberlander (2002) confirms that extraverts talk more, louder and more repetitively, with fewer pauses and hesitations, they have higher speech rates, shorter silences, a higher verbal output, a lower type/token ratio and a less formal language, while introverts use a broader vocabulary. Extraverts also use more positive emotion words and show more agreements and compliments than introverts.

Research method

From the sources mentioned so far, it can be deduced that teacher talk is shaped by the classroom context to large extent. As literature shows some proofs that personality traits play a role in the linguistic patterns, in general, this study will be conducted with the assumption that also personal traits, the character qualities of the teacher can have an impact on the linguistic complexity of teacher's talk. The research consists of 15 lecturers from Poland, Bosnia, USA, Slovakia, UK..... who teach in various departments at the International University of Sarajevo and use English as their instruction language in the class. Random lectures of teachers is recorded and some certain linguistic; syntactic and lexical complexity indices are checked whether these metrics are related with the personality type which will be obtained through a questionnaire or not.

Data collection

Study is mainly conducted in two parts; the first part of data is collected through appr. 10 mins class recordings of 15 lecturers from various country of origins (USA, UK, Poland, Bosnia, Slovakia) who teach in different departments of

the university in English as a medium of instruction; 475 words from each recording are transcribed into word document to be processed through lexical (LCA) and syntactical complexity (L2SCA) measurement tool- which use 25 indices for lexical complexity and 14 indices for syntactic complexity.

In the second part of the research, these 15 lecturers were given a personality survey in which they first enter their native language and second language (if they have any) and then answer 48 questions with Likert type scale from strongly agree (1) to strongly disagree (5). The results obtained from lecturers are grouped under 4 personality types; narrators, demonstrators, contemplators, assertors in which the narrator and contemplators are more introvert, reserved types whereas assertors and demonstrators are more extrovert and people oriented, (Eysenck and Eysenck, 1963) therefore it is anticipated that the lecturers who score narrator and contemplators produce more complex, long sentences, verb variation, sophisticated lexicon than assertors and demonstrators as aforementioned (Scherer,1979), (Furnham,1990), (Gill & Oberlander, 2002), (Pennebaker and King,1999). Both results from the linguistic complexity tool and personality survey are combined in the statistics program SPSS and the correlations between personality and lingual production are checked.

Results

When the lingual complexity of the lecturers' class talks are analysed as lexical and syntactical complexity in the LCA and L2SCA tool, the distribution of the values in lexical complexity is clustered under Type/Token Ratio, Lexical Density and Sophistication, Lexical Variation; and the values in syntactical complexity is distributed across syntactic indices.

Discussion

The data obtained from 15 samples' lexical and syntactic complexity processed under 25 lexical, 14 syntactic measures is compared with the data categorized under four personality types; narrators, demonstrators, assertors, and contemplators and moderate negative correlation between extrovert type personality and language complexity is found under only 3 indices such as verb sophistication II with the values of -.515*-.521*, corrected verb sophistication I with -.529*-.531*, and verb variation II with -.522* -,464. These numbers suggest that there is some evidence in the opposite relation between verb sophistication, corrected verb sophistication, verb variation, and extravert personality type which means that as the extravertness of the teacher increases, it is more likely for him/her to use less variety of verbs, advanced level verbs or corrected advanced level verbs that is in line with the findings of Ramsay (1966) negative correlation between extraverts and complexity of verbal tasks.

WORDTYPES	SWORDTYPES	LEXTYPES	SLEXTYPES	WORDTOKENS	SWORDTOKENS	LEXTOKENS	SLEXTOKENS
186	50	136	46	489	77	247	71
140	19	96	17	487	58	237	48
207	46	153	43	479	66	241	61
208	52	149	49	475	84	237	80
201	60	152	55	479	94	240	87
200	46	150	44	476	66	234	63
190	41	133	37	477	61	250	57
179	40	127	35	481	66	271	58
183	42	136	40	482	75	237	69
171	41	132	39	483	52	261	46
176	34	118	28	491	70	236	55
174	42	128	40	476	97	237	95
149	20	104	19	485	62	247	53
196	39	147	37	479	47	251	44
175	44	130	41	478	105	245	99
164	24	106	19	478	47	209	41

Tab. 1: Type/Token Ratio Measures

LD	LS1	LS2	VS1	VS2	CVS1
0.51	0.29	0.27	0.10	0.30	0.39
0.49	0.20	0.14	0.04	0.08	0.20
0.50	0.25	0.22	0.08	0.31	0.39
0.50	0.34	0.25	0.08	0.39	0.44
0.50	0.36	0.30	0.15	1,35	0.82
0.49	0.27	0.23	0.14	1.00	0.71
0.52	0.23	0.22	0.07	0.30	0.38
0.56	0.21	0.22	0.06	0.38	0.44
0.49	0.29	0.23	0.06	0.25	0.35
0.54	0.18	0.24	0.13	0.77	0.62
0.48	0.23	0.19	0.08	0.54	0.52
0.50	0.40	0.24	0.10	0.61	0.55
0.51	0.21	0.13	0.01	0.01	0.09
0.52	0.18	0.20	0.00	0.00	0.00
0.51	0.40	0.25	0.08	0.41	0.45
0.44	0.20	0.15	0.02	0.02	0.09

Tab. 2: Lexical density and sophistication measures

NDW	NDWZ	NDWERZ	NDWESZ	TTR	MSTTR	CTTR	RTTR	LOGTTR	UBER	LV	VV1	SVV1	CVV1	VV2	NV	ADJV	ADVV	MODV
186	42	39.70	37.00	0.38	0.76	5,95	8,41	0.84	17.23	0.70	14.70	2,7	0.55	0.09	0.54	0.14	0.06	0.21
140	37	37.10	37.70	0.29	0.74	4,49	6,34	0.80	13.34	0.56	16.17	2,8	0.41	0.12	0.38	0.06	0.07	0.14
207	32	41.20	40.40	0.43	0.74	6,69	9,46	0.86	19.72	0.65	22.23	3,3	0.63	0.14	0.68	0.12	0.05	0.17
208	34	41.30	36.50	0.44	0.75	6,75	9,54	0.87	19.98	0.67	28.89	3,8	0.63	0.18	0.62	0.07	0.07	0.14
201	38	39.50	35.20	0.42	0.76	6,49	9,18	0.86	19.05	0.68	28	3,7	0.63	0.17	0.59	0.15	0.05	0.20
200	36	39.40	34.50	0.42	0.74	6,48	9,17	0.86	19.04	0.63	19.61	3,1	0.64	0.13	0.62	0.12	0.11	0.22
190	41	40.00	35.20	0.40	0.70	6,15	8,7	0.85	17.95	0.46	11,6	2,4	0.53	0.10	0.57	0.08	0.08	0.16
179	23	38.40	36.80	0.37	0.69	5,77	8,16	0.84	16.76	0.34	10,8	2,3	0.47	0.12	0.53	0.04	0.06	0.10
183	32	37.70	35.60	0.38	0.69	5,89	8,34	0.84	17,12	0.56	20.25	3,2	0.57	0.15	0.56	0.10	0.08	0.17
171	33	33.20	34.40	0.35	0.69	5,5	7,78	0.83	15.97	0.62	17.89	3	0.51	0.11	0.50	0.11	0.06	0.17
176	40	38.60	36.00	0.36	0.70	5,62	7,94	0.83	16.25	0.53	25.60	3,6	0.50	0.20	0.44	0.07	0.06	0.14
174	33	37.40	34.90	0.37	0.68	5,64	7,98	0.84	16.40	0.64	24.47	3,5	0.54	0.16	0.54	0.05	0.09	0.15
149	34	36.60	34.70	0.31	0.68	4,78	6,77	0.81	14,07	0.40	10,9	2,3	0.42	0.11	0.44	0.06	0.07	0.13
196	42	39.70	39.30	0.41	0.78	6,33	8,96	0.86	18.51	0.59	15.36	2,8	0.59	0.10	0.65	0.10	0.11	0.21
175	38	37.30	36.60	0.37	0.74	5,66	8.00	0.84	16.45	0.59	21.25	3,3	0.53	0.15	0.45	0.10	0.08	0.18
164	36	38.10	39.30	0.34	0.75	5,3	7,5	0.83	15.45	0.44	11,5	2,4	0.51	0.12	0.48	0.10	0.07	0.17

Tab. 3: Lexical variation measures

VS2	Correlation Coefficient	-,182	**-.515***	**-.521***	-,282
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,516	**,049**	**,047**	,309
	N	15	15	15	15
CVS1	Correlation Coefficient	-,189	**-.529***	**-.531***	-,288
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,499	**,043**	**,042**	,297
	N	15	15	15	15
VV2	Correlation Coefficient	-,367	**-.522***	-,464	-,302
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,178	**,046**	,082	,275
	N	15	15	15	15

Tab. 4: Moderate Negative Correlation coefficients for verb sophistication 2, corrected verb sophistication 1, verb variation 2

mean lenght of sentence	Correlation Coefficient	**-,478**	-,269	-,007	,043
	Sig. (2-tailed)	**,071**	,332	,980	,879
	N	15	15	15	15
mean lenght of T-clause	Correlation Coefficient	**-,460**	-,249	,159	,131
	Sig. (2-tailed)	**,084**	,370	,571	,642
	N	15	15	15	15
LS1	Correlation Coefficient	-,357	**-,482**	**-,475**	,090
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,192	**,069**	**,073**	,750
	N	15	15	15	15

Tab. 5: Slight Negative Correlation coefficients for mean lenght of sentence and T-clause, lexical sophistication

		subject number	Nationality	words	sentences	verb phrases	clauses	t-units	dependent clauses	complex T-units	coordinate phrases	complex nominals	mean lenght of sentence
N	Valid	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16
Mean		17,5000	1,7500	486,3125	21,4375	68,2500	56,5000	28,2500	23,7500	13,1250	6,8125	48,2500	27,2589
Std. Deviation		4,76095	,44721	10,75000	9,24459	13,14281	11,14750	8,79015	7,46994	3,26343	3,60035	15,74590	12,67611

		mean lenght of T-clause	mean lenght of clause	Clause per sentence	Verb phrases per T-unit	Clause per T-unit	Dependent clause ratio	Dependent clauses per T-unit	T-units per sentence	Complex T-unit ratio	Coordinate phrases per T-unit	Coordinate phrases per clause	Complex nominals per T-unit	Complex nominals per clause
N	Valid	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16
Mean		18,5886	8,9192	3,0616	2,5363	2,1027	,4191	,9189	1,4168	,4991	,2726	,1267	1,9230	,8879
Std. Deviation		5,00431	1,72794	1,26771	,59969	,50042	,09357	,36736	,32926	,15377	,18509	,08558	,95071	,35544

Tab. 6. & 7: Mean and standard deviation of syntactic complexity values across the syntactic indices**.**

		WORDTYPES	SWORDT YPES	LEXTYPES	SLEXTYPES	WORDTOKENS	SWORDTOKENS	LEXTOKENS	SLEXTOKENS
N	Valid	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16
Mean		180,6875	39,6250	130,7500	36,5625	480,1875	70,0625	242,2500	64,0625
Std. Deviation		19,47894	10,92322	17,64275	10,78869	4,43048	17,26449	13,35415	17,93867

Tab. 8: Mean and standard deviation values of type/token word ratio indices

	LD	LS1	LS2	VS1	VS2	CVS1
N Valid	16	16	16	16	16	16
Mean	,5038	,2644	,2163	,0750	,4206	,4025
Std. Deviation	,02630	,07465	,04515	,04382	,37099	,22490

Tab. 9: Mean and standard deviation values of lexical density and sophistication indices

		NDW	NDWZ	NDWER	Z	TTR	MSTTR	CTTR	RTTR	LOGTTR	UBER	LV	VV1	SVV1	CVV1	VV2	NV	ADJV	ADVV	MODV
N	Valid	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16
Mean		180,6875	35,6250	38,2938	36,5250	,3769	,7238	5,8313	8,2481	,8413	17,0513	,5656	18,6388	3,0125	,5406	,1338	,5363	,0913	,0738	,1656
Std. Deviation		19,47894	4,73110	1,12752	2,06865	,04222	,03263	,64320	,91015	,01893	1,90756	,10551	6,12748	,50625	,07188	,03263	,08453	,03117	,01784	,03204

Tab. 10: Mean and standard deviation values of lexical variation indices

	Demonstrators	Narrators	Assertors	Contemplators
N Valid	15	15	15	15
Mean	39,6667	40,6667	40,0667	40,0000
Std. Deviation	6,09059	5,92412	4,75795	4,56696

Tab. 11: Mean and Standard deviation values across the personality types

Findings also indicate a slight negative correlation between the extravertness and mean length of the sentence with values -,478 and mean length of T-clause with -,460, lexical sophistication, with -,482 which can be interpreted as extravert types seem to be less likely to produce long sentence and T-clause utterances and rich, advanced vocabulary as Scherer (1979), Furnham (1990), Gill & Oberlander (2002) propose that extraverts use less diverse and more loose vocabulary and simpler constructs than introverts.

When the linguistic complexity mean value is analysed separately for each type; the scores of demonstrators with 39,66, narrators with 40,66, assertors with 40,06, contemplators with 40,00 reveal that there is very similar distribution of values among the types in which only demonstrators show slightly less linguistic complexity than the others. This similarity can be partly due to the class register which is more limited and guided than the authentic daily life constructs as Henzl (1973), (1979) and Kim and Elder (2005) underline and therefore the language that lecturers produce can be interpreted within this frame.

For the other parameters of lexical and syntactic complexity, no other significant correlations are found out, however, it is a higher possibility that more relations can be revealed for the other parameters if the sample number increases and skewed data would be more evenly distributed.

Conclusion

As the data presents some clues for the moderate negative correlation between extravertness and verbal sophistication and variation, and the slight negative correlation between extravertness and sentence lenght and T-clause lenght and lexical sophistication, it can be assumed that lecturers who scored more in (assertors or demonstrators) extravert qualities tend to construct less sophicated verbs and words, less various verbs and shorter sentences and T-clauses. However, the overall complexity difference between four personality types of teachers are not notable which can be partly dependent on class register in which teachers more or less prefer to simplify, reduce and limit their utterances in general.

So as not to forget, since the participant number is only 15 and this small dataset harbors certain implications, it would be beneficial to look at these values with more scepticism and avoid making remarkable assumptions, therefore increasing participant lecturers to represent real population is necessary to obtain more accurate measures. Moreover, for further studies, the personality types can be classified as Big Five personality Traits test suggests and the results can be interpreted according to this traits test to reveal more dimensions of personality and language complexity. Thus, this study can only pave the way for further in-depth language-personality relation analyses in the future.

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APPENDIX 1

This questionnaire collects data about communication styles and its relation to classroom register. Your answ ers w ill only be used in a research project conducted by Pınar Sinan Malec. There are no right or w rong answ ers to these statements.

First / Native Language: Second/
Foreign Language(s):

		strongly disagree	disagree	neither agree or disagree	agree	strongly agree
1	I consider persistance to be my strongest side.	1	2	3	4	5
2	At a large social gathering, I am most likely to interact w ith many people, strangers included.	1	2	3	4	5
3	Taking action on a calculated risk appeals me the most.	1	2	3	4	5
4	I prefer to do my job quitely on my ow n.	1	2	3	4	5
5	Organizing the w ay the project is done is the most important to me w hen doing group projects.	1	2	3	4	5
6	The ability to take charge in a chaotic situation is more admirable.	1	2	3	4	5
7	When I first arrive at a meeting, I am purposely a bit late, I like to get there w hen things have started happening already.	1	2	3	4	5
8	Creative and fiery is the statement that closely describes me.	1	2	3	4	5
9	I most closely identify w ith people w ho can tell a heartw arming, funny story.	1	2	3	4	5
10	In case of a conflict w ith me and my friend, I firstly avoid that person for a w hile.	1	2	3	4	5
11	Cooperative and gentle is the description that fits me.	1	2	3	4	5
12	New and non-routine interaction w ith others taxes my reserves and I am not afraid to let people know it.	1	2	3	4	5
13	Creating harmonious relationships appeals me the most.	1	2	3	4	5
14	I prefer to be an integral part of the team w orking together.	1	2	3	4	5
15	The ability to motivate others to succeed is more admirable.	1	2	3	4	5
16	At a large social gathering, I am most likely to leave as soon as it is polite to do so.	1	2	3	4	5
17	Creating relationships w ith people is the most important part to me w hen doing group projects.	1	2	3	4	5
18	I consider assertiveness to be my strongest side.	1	2	3	4	5
19	New and non-routine interaction w ith others usually stimulates and energizes me.	1	2	3	4	5
20	The ability to organize and be methodical is more admirable.	1	2	3	4	5
21	When I first arrive at a meeting, I am usually a bit late and try to sneak in the back w ithout being noticed.	1	2	3	4	5
22	Focused and efficient is the description that fits me.	1	2	3	4	5
23	I most closely identify w ith people w ho can tell a w itty one-liner, pun or w ordplay.	1	2	3	4	5
24	In case of a conflict w ith me and my friend, I firstly find a compromise w here w e both get at least part of w hat w e w ant.	1	2	3	4	5
25	Sensitive and reliable is the statement that closely describes me.	1	2	3	4	5
26	At a large social gathering, I am most likely to talk one to one mostly w ith people I already know .	1	2	3	4	5
27	Making sure process of doing it is fun and exciting is the most important part to me w hen doing group projects.	1	2	3	4	5
28	I prefer to be the leader and structure-maker for the team.	1	2	3	4	5
29	When I first arrive at a meeting, I arrive right on time and feel impatient if the meeting starts late.	1	2	3	4	5
30	Rational and quick-w itted is the statement that closely describes me.	1	2	3	4	5
31	I most closely identify w ith people w ho can create great characters through movement, voice, etc.	1	2	3	4	5
32	Animated and gregarious is the description that fits me.	1	2	3	4	5
33	In case of a conflict w ith me and my friend, I firstly make sure they understand my position on things.	1	2	3	4	5
34	New and non-routine interaction w ith others revitalizes me if I have a special connection w ith someone in the process.	1	2	3	4	5
35	I consider imagination to be my strongest side.	1	2	3	4	5
36	Going to an exciting social event appeals me the most.	1	2	3	4	5
37	New and non-routine interaction w ith others taxes my reserves so I quietly slip aw ay w hen no one is w atching.	1	2	3	4	5
38	I prefer to influence the team in new and creative directions.	1	2	3	4	5
39	I most closely identify w ith people w ho can tell a good joke.	1	2	3	4	5
40	Sorting out w ho is playing w hat role in the project is the most important part to me w hen doing group projects.	1	2	3	4	5
41	Discovering the secret behind a complex mystery appeals me the most.	1	2	3	4	5
42	The ability to make people feel comfortable and included is more admirable.	1	2	3	4	5
43	At a large social gathering, I am most likely to use the opportunity to make important contacts.	1	2	3	4	5
44	When I first arrive at a meeting, I arrive early so that I can be ready and organized w hen the meeting starts.	1	2	3	4	5
45	Sensible and frugal is the statement that closely describes me.	1	2	3	4	5
46	Hard w orking and ambitious is the description that fits me.	1	2	3	4	5
47	I consider compassion to be my strongest side.	1	2	3	4	5
48	In case of a conflict w ith me and my friend, I firstly make sure the relationship doesn't get damaged.	1	2	3	4	5

Traditional Segregation: Encoded Language as Powerful Tool. Insights from *Okəti* Ụmụakpo-Lejja *Ọmaba* chant

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Abstract
Language becomes a tool for power and segregation when it functions as a social divider among individuals. Language creates a division between the educated and uneducated, an indigene and non-indigene of a place; an initiate and uninitiated member of a sect. Focusing on the opposition between expressions and their meanings, this study examines Ụmụakpo-Lejja *Okəti Ọmaba* chant, which is a heroic and masculine performance that takes place in the *Okəti* (masking enclosure of the deity) of *Umuakpo* village square in Lejja town of Enugu State, Nigeria. The mystified language promotes discrimination among initiates, non-initiates, and women. *Ọmaba* is a popular fertility Deity among the Nsukka-Igbo extraction and *Egara Ọmaba* (*Ọmaba* chant) generally applies to the various chants performed to honour the deity during its periodical stay on earth. Using Schleiermacher's Literary Hermeneutics Approach of the methodical practice of interpretation, the metaphorical language of the performance is interpreted to reveal the thoughts and the ideology behind the performance in totality. Among the Findings is that the textual language of Ụmụakpo-Lejja *Okəti Ọmaba* chant is almost impossible without authorial and member's interpretation and therefore, they are capable of initiating discriminatory perception of a non-initiate as a weakling or a woman.
Keywords: *Ọmaba* chant, *Ụmụakpo-Lejja*, language, power, hermeneutics

Introduction

Beyond the primary function of language, which is the expression and communication of one's ideas, a language is also a tool for power, segregation, and division in society. According to Sourgo (2013), Sik Hung Ng and Fei Deng (2017, p. 1), "language creates influence through words, oratories, conversations and narratives in political campaigns, emergence of leaders, terrorist narratives, and so forth." Sourgo emphasises that some categories of individuals and groups "use language as their main tool for maintaining status and power." Also, Fairclough (1989) posits that "Power is not only built and sustained via coercive means (by force), but also via indirect ways (use of language). Succinctly, Fowler (1971, p. 61) argues that "language is delineated as "social practice" by which power relations

are established and sustained." The domineering effect of a language cannot be over emphasised as it brings about a "feeling of superiority" and it also becomes "an important instrument of oppression" (Naudorf, 2001). This study investigates the language of Ụmụakpo-Lejja *Okəti Ọmaba* chant and the use of obscure language for indirect communication among the initiates, which is geared towards gaining influence, protection of the sacredness of the *Ọmaba* Deity and its participation rituals. Using Schleiermacher's Literary Hermeneutics Approach of the methodical practice of interpretation, the metaphorical language of the performance is interpreted to reveal the thoughts and the ideology behind the performance in totality. The findings revalidate the influential role of language in the segregation of the language users from the initiates, non-members, and the womenfolk.

Hermeneutics

Hermeneutics is a critical theory, which although originated from Plato and Aristotle, became more prominent in the 17th century. It began with Maurincio Beauchot and was concerned with the art of interpreting, discovering the truth and values of biblical exegeists. In other words, its concern was how to ascertain meaning about; 'who,' 'what,' 'why,' 'how,' 'when,' 'where,' 'by which means' of a text. However, the major bone of contention among the early scholars of hermeneutics was whether the bible should be given literal, moral, allegorical or analogical interpretations. And the major controversy among the pioneers; St Thomas Aquinas, Nicholas of Lyra, John Colet, Martin Luther, and John Calvon was the approach that best portrayed the truth of a text.

Modern Hermeneutics began with Dannhauer in 1974 and he was significant for introducing the general application of hermeneutics to all texts other than the bible. His remarkable contribution was a systematic textbook (Hermeneutica Sacre sive Methodus Exponendum Sacrum Utteranum) in the general application of hermeneutics which helped to distinguish between the true and false meaning of any text. This contribution of his was as a result of a proliferation of texts in that century.

The principle of authorial intention was another major input made in hermeneutics studies by Clauberg in 1654 and it was further popularised by Schleiermacher and Whitley in the 19th century. The authorial intention principle however generated so much controversy that it was accused of authorial and intentional fallacy. Among the scholars that fiercely criticised the principle were Derrida, Heidegger Gadamer. These critics felt that authorial intention limits viable textual interpretations and most of them opted for neutral close-engagement-interpretation because the authorial history makes interpretation subjective. Although Gadamer rejects the authorial intention interpretation principle, he, however, maintains that the historical traditions of a text are indispensable in unravelling textual meanings. For him, no one can enter a dialogue neutrally or

without a point of view. He therefore proposes the dialogical interpretation model, which emphasises engaging dialogue with persons and subject matters. Despite the criticisms against the authorial intention model, this study finds Schleiermacher's model indispensable in the analysis of *Okəti* Ụmụakpo-Lejja *Ọmaba* Chant because that is the only approach that can ascertain the real meaning of the chant.

Ọmaba chant

This refers to the half-sung-half-spoken utterances that contain elements of praise for not only *Ọmaba* and his qualities but also for his participants. These various renditions, which are often ritualistic and sacred, are only heard when *maa nọ n'alə* (*Ọmaba* is on earth) in all the Igbo *Ọmaba* cultural areas. The *Okəti* (the Deity's village square enclosure) variety which is performed by an individual or the deity and *ụmə maa* (the deity's children) for the community, feature most prominently on the eves of the fall/return (*Odida maa*) and the departure (*Ula maa*) of the deity. While the tones are elated and happy in the former, they are, however, sorrowful and moody in the latter (locally described as *ikwa emeri*) and such expressions as these are usually portrayed; *Orie egwa egwa! Anyi amiri--- emi hororo!* (The *Orie* market day should approach fast! We have escaped---*emi hororo*) The *Orie* market day which is the *Ọmaba*'s favourite day is as well chosen for its departure day and that is why the utterer pleads for the swift approach of the day. They, according to him, henceforth would be exonerated from any evil misfortune that would befall either the village or the indigenes of that community.

The chant performed by the deity and its children is highly ritualistic, sacred, and believed to be sung by the *maa* (deity). As a result, in some areas like Umunengwa in Nru - Nsukka, the chant is neither played openly nor danced to by the women and the uninitiated ones. Participation is, therefore, highly restricted to the initiated members and the young initiates. But in some areas like Lejja, the women are given the liberty of listening and dancing to the melodious performance. The chant was formally performed on every *Orie* day but now as a result of the changed era of white-collar jobs and academic commitments, it is performed occasionally by a representative of a community who doubles as the deity and the deity's children. This representative's selection is neither by social class nor age. It is rather by a sonorous voice and, compulsorily, a well-versed knowledge of on-the-spot figurative composition as each performance is a new event. In the world of the *Ọmaba* chant, knowledge of figurative expressions is the beginning of wisdom as the chants are rendered in highly figurative languages that will be very difficult to unravel by the non-initiates and women. The representative must be able to keep the rules of not revealing the instruments and the cast of the performance to non-members, essentially, protecting the sacrosanct nature of the institution. Obiechina (1978: 384) succeeds in capturing the euphoria

that surrounds the *Ọmaba* chant and its recitation: „*As the day for the festival comes closer, the general preparation and anticipation reach fever pitch, people begin to exchange visits and to become more generous with their drinks, foods and Kola nut. Ballads and minstrels rove around entertaining small audiences with **songs, poetry and music**… announcing the expected arrival of the spirits and setting the scene for the paltic effusion which is to characterize the entire Omabe festival*" (emphasis mine).

Just as he has argued, *Ọmaba* chants have that great quality of highlighting the unique music of the Nsukka people, whereby the maraca, *Uhwie*, metal gong, and other instruments combine to produce sounds that are peculiar and uniquely Nsukka. In other words, once the sounds are heard, they are quickly connected with the Nsukka cultural group.

Ọmaba chants also are relevant to society in the sense that they are raconteurs of a town's history. This idea is made manifest when the chant documents the genealogy of the participants' history. Mrs Regina Ude, one of the interviewees and a one-time *Ọyịma* (a revered title taken by elderly women of substance in the *Ọmaba* culture) from *Obukpa* in Nsukka, recounts how the chant traces the history of a participant who comes in as the chant is being performed. It goes thus: "Okoro the son of Ude I greet you, Ude, the son of Ogbonna" - a man who performed majestic tasks.

In the traditional setting where there are no academic institutions that stand as standards of measuring an individual's intelligence, the chants are the distinctive yardstick for measuring the creative and intelligent ones. This is because the chants make room for personal expression, the application of intelligence, and creative imagination which are displayed in the on-the-spot fabrication of idioms, symbols, and imagery used. This, of course, easily makes an individual stand out from the crowd. Also, the ability of a performer to compel a response from the audience through the gestures he makes which are both dramatic and entertaining addition to the unique creative prowess of an *Ọmaba* chant performer.

Ọmaba chant, no doubt, is a uniting factor among the members in the sense that it allows both the royal and the poverty-stricken members of society to participate in it. Since the major requirement of the *Ọmaba* chant performance is creativeness in figurative language to qualify as a performer, all the other societal distinguishing qualities like age, royalty, and wealth are relegated to the background and there is room for all classes of men to participate in it. As a result of this classlessness, there is free mingling among all the members.

Contexts for *Ụmụakpọ Okəti Ọmaba* chant performance

There are three major occasions for the *Okəti* performance rendered during *Ọmaba*'s stay on earth. The first performance of this chant takes place three

months after *Ọmaba*'s return and the particular date is fixed by a group known as the *ọgba maa* (the deity's age-grade). *Ọgba maa* is made up of selected young men born within the period of *Ọmaba*'s last departure and the year of its next return that is, two consecutive years. Traditionally, the year for the deity's return is known as a*hwa maa* (the deity's year) and those born within that period are known as the *ụmụ maa* (the deity's children), who consequently form the *ọgba maa* with the age-grade that precedes them. The reason for the initial outing is mainly to commemorate *Ọmaba*'s peaceful entrance into the community. After the first and the general performance set by the *ọgba maa*, the *Ọmaba* leaders from Ebara and Ugbele quarters of Lejja fix theirs to observe the *Obuegba* (the official announcement of the date for the deity's departure from Earth). A month after the *Obuegba*, the deputy leaders of the deity (Dunoka) agree on a date to fix their performance which is later followed by that of Amankwo. After these latter performances, then, the *Ọmaba* deity prepares for its departure from the earth which comes up within two months' (traditional) time.

Language interpretation and analysis of *Ụmụakpọ Okəti Ọmaba* chant performance

In all the performances, the audience is made up of the *Ọgba maa* (Deity age-grade) and some other participants who support the rendition in the form of making responses and chanting of refrains to the recital. The crux of the rendition is a greeting to every male member of the community, both the *Ọmaba* devotees and Christians alike; and anyone who hears his name proceeds to present his gifts to the performer who represents the deity in this rendition. The gifts usually presented could be snuff, kola nut or drinks of any type. Whether one has any gift to offer or not, the deity summons everyone to come forward and collect his gift which is a piece of kola nut. The performer mentions titles and epithets that could easily be played out musically. Also, an individual is identified by mentioning both the paternal and maternal pedigrees, or by mentioning either of them.

In another sense, by identifying an individual through the lineage, it could be said that the performance is an enactment of a communal gathering that is presided over by the deity itself. This action could signify a ritualized conferment of respect to the individuals' family lineages. Significantly in the chant, each person's family is traced and paid tribute to as seen in the citation (lines 66-67), where the first line refers to the paternal lineage while the second refers to the maternal origin:

Ịmanụẹl Nwolu *nwa Ugo nwa Ugodi O* (twice)	Emmanuel Nwolu, the son of Ugo, son of Ugodi O! (twice)
Evəralə-nwa-Ugwele-Echara	*Evəralə*, the son of Ugwele-Echara)

On the other hand, the performance which takes place inside the *Okəti* is structurally divided into four sections or divisions that glide into one another during the rendition. The first and the second sections refer and give honour to the spiritual and ancestral heads of the clan, the supernatural beings and the long dead ancestors, while the last two segments pertain to the living since they refer to those who are still alive and their accomplishments. Symbolically, there is a depiction of convergence between the living and the dead for a ritual communion where the first three sections, on a general note, deal with the recognition and payment of tributes while the last is the entertaining part that conjures everyone to laugh, participate actively and enjoy the musical ecstasy of being part of the performance. This final stage is the storytelling session where short symbolic stories are told for the relaxation of all and it goes on till the end of the performance. The end of every movement is significantly marked by a change in the beating of the musical instruments.

In the first section, while paying tribute, the chanter, first of all, recognizes the hierarchical leadership of the town, starting from the highest (supernatural beings) to the lowest (all the men of that community). The *onyishi*, who is the eldest man in the community, is recognised after the supernaturals and the kola nut implicitly comes from him as a mark of respect. The kola nut being a unifying symbol as well as a ritualistic food that reinforces interactions in both the physical and metaphysical worlds is used by the performer to symbolically bind the community in one whole piece. The unification is reinforced further by the tribute paid to all the living and supernatural beings of the community that is, the deities, the ancestral heads and every adult male in the clan. Every adult male who is a member of that community is specifically identified in order to make the membership bond stronger; as it is always believed among the Igbo that, '*Ụmụnnabụbike*' (there is strength in brotherhood).

Also, the performance portrays a profuse embellishment of its characters with hyperbolic pseudonyms, sobriquets, and every other epithet of praise conceivable at the moment of rendition. The dialect of the recital is quite distinct from the standard Igbo used as a formal language and this goes on to the extent that an outsider, a non-member as well as women find it difficult to understand the language of the performance.

The first section of the performance is a litany of the ancestral spirits and fathers in their order of hierarchy. This is symbolically and structurally portrayed in their invitation to collect the *Odo's* kola nut by the reciter. The chant, on the overall, is a symbolic recognition of pedigrees of a particular clan as each clan's spiritual deity and the ancestral fathers are invoked and paid tribute to. These greetings and paying of tributes are explicated in the excerpt below, (lines 1-57).

| Ḍịmọgwụma, alə ibe nẹ chi, oji Odo---O! | Ḍịmọgwụma- land of kin and god, Odo's kola nut Oh! |
| Ḍịmọgwụma, alə ibe nẹ chi, werə oji Odo---O! | Ḍịmọgwụma- land of kin and god, collect Odo's kola nut O!) |

In line 1, the chanter, first of all, recognizes the founder of his community, / *Ḍịmọgwụma- aləibenechi* / the land of kin and the deity, with the clan's ancestral name. It is a land of peace where the community members co-exist peacefully and live a life of brotherhood. The land is also complimented because it is respected as the people's ancestral burial place. The land's boundary is clearly marked by a native tree known as *ojirooshi* (traditional boundary - demarcation tree) which connotes that the land is spiritually guarded by *Ndə ùshì* / (the founding fathers). These spiritual guards are then acknowledged in line 5. The next tribute goes to, *Idenyi Ọhom*, who is the (spiritual deity of the community). The / *Ụmụ ada Ọha, werə ọji Odo---O!* / (female ancestors of the community) are greeted in line 4, in order to acknowledge the gender completeness of the community. Likewise, / *Ḍịmọká ónyé nwe alə/*, (the overall ancestral head of the *ushi* people) is acclaimed in line 5. Line 6 invites the whole of the community members to join in the spiritual communion. The deity and the overall head of the spiritual messengers are heralded in line 8. It is also noteworthy that the use of 'it is kolanut / *nọọbə oji* / means an invitation for a spiritual unification which is symbolised in the sharing and eating of the kolanut. However, since the ancestral and spiritual beings own the people and all they have, the chanter just emphasizes what is being presented to them, which is kolanut.

In the second section, the ancestral deities and heads of all the communities that make up the '*Ókéẹkwụma*' quarters of Lejja are greeted. '*Dulugwunye*' (line 11), the spiritual deity of the '*Ụwalə* clan, is mentioned in line 10 while '*Ézèlekwu Ọmeji*' (line 12) is the ancestral head of the Amube village. '*Ezẹləmenyi*' (line 13), is Amube's spiritual deity and '*Ézìkè- Nwèzè,*' (in line 16) is the ancestral head of the '*Ishiemelu*' village in Lejja. While '*Ézìkè Nnevə də Ụga*' in (line 17), the oldest community in Lejja town, is hailed too. '*Ọmẹkọ-Ugwunye*', (in line 18) begets Umuefi village while '*Ézìkè-Tịm*' (line 20), heads the Nwiyi clan of Lejja. '*Ézèlèkwu 'Ézè-Ohe,*' (line 21), gave birth to Amankwo village and *'Urókò-Nkwọ'* (line 23), fathers the Amegu clan. In like manner, *Ámábụnẹkwà* (in line 24), traditionally heads the Mbiamonye village. *'Ézìkènẹbọ', (*Amebo village - line 25), *Ezebənúgwú (*Ameze-28-29*)*, '*Ndə Ushiokpərə,' (Mbiamonye village-line 30),* '*Ézìkèẹlìgwè (*Amogbu)', *Ézèụgwọcha-Ezikebíkò* (Umuorugbogu - line 35), *'Ézìkènẹmóké',* (Ugo), *Ụvərə (*Owere alə-line 38), *Ézìkè Ọbiamẹji (*Ejarija*)*, *Ólúbé* (Úgbèlè, line 42) *Ézìkè Dúlúgwu, Ézìkèahụm* (Upata, line 44) *Áyọgəlọ (*Ụmụ Óbeke, line 46), *Ḍịmshinne*, (Ụmụnwugwẹja) *Úgwoke ne Ugwunye,* (the ancestral parents of *Ọmaba* deity, (line

50), *Úgwú Éshà də Úgbèlè Ụwaalə,*(the ancestral abode of *Ọmaba* deity) are all listed for recognition and paying of tributes in the first section of the chant.

The third section of the chant deals with the identification and greeting of all the men of that particular village. The Deity, who doubles as the chanter, announces his arrival and asks those whose names he has mentioned and the rest of the participants how they are; '/ *Ọmaba abịa—O-'Unu emee agaa-O?* (*Ọmaba* has come—O, How are you), line 59-61. Then, in lines 62-64, the chanter refers to *Dịmọgwụma* as / *Dịmọgwụma anəgə egbə agə / Mẹ agə koyirə baanyi nẹ nkpọ ẹja O!* (*Dịmọgwụma* who does not kill a lion / yet a lion hangs on the wall pins in our houses) /. The metaphor of 'killing of a lion' is recognised as 'bravery' and the inability to do so conversely depicts 'weakness.' The chanter creatively employs what Claude Levi-Strauss terms 'theory of binary opposition' when he uses 'the killing of a lion' to represent bravery and the inability to kill one to denote weakness. Overall, the chanter ingeniously refers to the clan's brave, strong, and intimidating fighters, designated in the chant as 'the lion that hangs on the walls of their different houses.' The fighters ensure that none of the community members rights are carelessly trampled upon. The *Ezenwagəgədẹ* lineage in Ụmụakpọ village, for example, ensures that every stolen item by a member of another community is returned to the owner within hours of such a report to them. The chanter, in essence, boasts of the endowment of these strong men (who fight for their weak community members) for he sees such as an awesome blessing from the deity. He connects this amazing providence from the deity with line 112 where he refers to the *ọyịmas* (female initiates) who bring food to him as / *Ụmụ Chi n'edokwueze* / (offspring of God-crowned lineage). For the performer, obviously, without the supernatural aid, such a gift would not come.

Then, he further calls on *Nkwoda Ugwuoke Obətẹ* (lines 65-67) whom he refers to as, / *Èzè-anəgə-egbə-agə-n'ọha* (the king that does not kill a lion in the public) and commends him for / filling his mouth with *àjààrị /. Àjààrị* is the fibrous remains of the breadfruit after the seeds have been separated from the head and that is the deity's mysterious representation of meat. It is also used to feed the cows during the dry season when fresh grasses are difficult to come by. The reciter only links *àjààrị* with meat because of the similar quality of 'dryness' at the moment of consumption. Since the villagers do not have the modern means of preserving meat like the refrigerator and the freezer, they usually put the meat in *ngəga* (traditional iron baskets) and hang it over the fire or above the cooking pot so that as the meals are prepared, the meat is smoked and preserved. The meat, after series of smoking, becomes very dry and is called *anə kpọr nkə n'eju ọnụ* (the dry meat that fills the mouth). It is these metaphors of 'dryness and over-filling-of-the mouth' that the chanter echoes in the rendition. The image portrayed is such that Nkwoda, the son of Okwume, has presented him a gift of a mouthful of meat and he is overwhelmed with such gesture of generosity. The same effect is

encountered in lines 79 and 109 where the performer declares that "he feels dizzy," even when he has not tasted "the drinks."

In lines 74, the Deity introduces himself as: / *Ọ bə nya ụdara nwa Òbòdòike Èzè'* (It is me, *Ụdara*, the son of Obodoike Eze) /. *Ụdara* is biologically known as *Chrysophyllum Albidum* fruit and to some people, it is the peach fruit or the star apple fruit. *Ụdara* among the natives stands for 'fertility' and 'sweetness' not only among the Ụmụàkpọ community of Lejja, but also in many other Igbo communities. It is also in the same sense that he transfers the connotations to himself as both the giver of many children and a melodious performer.

Furthermore, in line 75, the chanter mentions the setting of his performance by designating the place with the two most outstanding trees found there. He says: / *A nọm nẹ be egbə nə be ụvərə* (I am in the house of *egbə* and *ụvərə*) /. This reminds us of the following observation of Mead (1969, pp. 383) that: "Symbols and images in Maori chants are not just creations which they have imagined for purely aesthetic reasons but… are rather symbols which underlie some cultural value. For example, the 'mountain' symbol represents a group as well as its geographical domain. In other words, the symbols can serve the purpose of identity in the chants as rivers, lakes, and a well-known ancestral figure can establish the name of a tribe without its name being mentioned".

In the same manner, *egbə* (a medicinal plant traditionally used to cure malaria) and *ụvərə* (Spondias Mombin) are symbolically used by the chanter to designate the particular setting of his performance. *Egbə,* biologically known as *Alstonia Boonei*, *Ahun* in Yoruba and *Ụvərə* (*Putaa* in Hausa, and *Sapo* in Yoruba) are the two ancient trees that stand out in the Ụmụakpọ village square that houses the *okəti*, which is the chanting abode of the performer. These two trees in the chant represent the village, Ụmụakpọ, which the performer skillfully employs to make his language difficult to understand by the majority of his audience.

In lines 76-78, the chanter identifies / *Ịmanụel Madụ* / (Emmanuel Madu) by both his paternal / *Nwolu, nwa Ugo Nwugodi* / Nwolu, the son of Ugo, the son of Ugodi) and maternal / *Evəralə nwa Ugwuele Echara/ Evəralə*, the son of Ugwuele Echara / pedigrees. Emmanuel is further hailed as / *Ọ chịrə agbə werə nwa òbèlè /* (one who has just collected the *agbə* and *nwa obele*)*. Agbə* means the natively woven rope which wine tappers use to climb palm trees while *nwa òbèlè* is a small native wine gourd. The chanter presents an image of a man going off to his work which completely deviates from the real meaning of the expression which is that Emmanuel has presented a gift of wine to him. This action of Emmanuel's immediately attracts the chanter's response; / *manya evəgədem ẹjụ* / (wine makes me feel dizzy) from the performer.

John Nweze's father, Agəgəde, as a title-holder bears the name / *Ézè-O-gbəẹ-íshí-Ọ-yarə-àgbàányá O*! / 'The king that kills a head and leaves the jaw behind' / (line 81). This is a title he bears as a result of his magical powers. By killing

someone and leaving the jaw out, the king succeeds in hiding the identity of the deceased. In other words, he is brave and courageous enough to withstand any circumstance or strong individual from the neighbouring villages. This attribute earns him respect and admiration from the clan members.

Afterwards, attention shifts to / Dọnatus Ọzọ, the son of *Ézè-̣Ọká* /, (lines 82-85). The referent's father used to be the clan's spokesman at *oha* (village elders) meetings in the past and that is why the deity recognises Donatus by his father's profession which is / '*É-rikẹtẹ-okwu-Ézè-̣Ọká* / [voracious eating (not eater) of words]. The father who served the function of *ịtə okwu* (pronouncing the verdict of any ruled case), did such with so much expertise and rhetorical prowess that he was known far and wide. *Ịtə ókwú* among the Lejja people could be likened to the role of 'Evil Forest,' a member of the *Egwugwu*, in Chinua Achebe's *Things Fall Apart*, when it addresses both parties (Uzowulu and his in-laws) involved in the marriage dispute with a view to resolving the row between them:

"We have heard both sides of the case," said Evil Forest. "Our duty is not to blame this man or to praise that, but to settle the dispute…" To Uzowulu he says, "Go to your in-laws with a pot of wine and beg your wife to return to you. It is not bravery when a man fights with a woman. Then Evil Forest turns to Odunukwe, the eldest among the in-laws and says: "…If your in-law brings wine to you, let your sister go with him. I salute you" (p. 82).

Again, anyone who had not 'killed a horse' would not enter his *Obə / Onye egbəg anyịnya epiogə n'obə be Dugwu Ọgọ /* (Someone who has not killed a horse cannot enter Dugwu Ọgọ's *Obə*), line 85. The killing of a horse used to be the highest form of funeral respect conferred on the dead by the relatives and it is performed only by the wealthy. The chanter therefore captures the practice where those who killed horses for their departed parents hung the skulls of those horses in the *Obə* (the meeting place of a clan) as a way of installing the departed there in the *Obə*. Indeed, the ritual installation of the dead in the *Obə* is apparently the last in a series of funeral rites accorded the dead. It is an invitation into the community of spirits that inhabit each *obə*. As such, it is a ritual of incorporation and in the past, people could point to the skulls of horses or cows killed for specific individuals. By mentioning this experience, the chanter is recalling the past, the historical memory of the people. The statement, therefore, highlights that Donatus's father, whose house is given the attribute of *Obu* is a place where only those who were able to kill horses or cows are welcomed. However, Dugwu Ọgọ's wealth is over-stated when the chanter makes reference to the man's social class by saying that the poor cannot enter his palace. Obviously, the *obə* cannot be completely shut out to the poor. The hyperbolic expression was made to emphasize the man's social status as a rich man.

Obviously, for the performer, some community members who have not contributed significantly to the community's development which could be in the form of provision of infrastructure, offering of employment and active participation in the community's activities deserve no praises and that is why there are no eulogies attached to their names when mentioned. Their identification simply ends with the naming of their ancestral fathers.

Demianụ Ọzọ earns himself the hyperbolic sobriquet, 'one who satisfies both the elephant and the people of Edem /*Ọ rənyịma ényí Ọ rənyịma Èdèm* / in lines 88-90. 'An Elephant' being a huge animal obviously must have enormous appetite and it has to take a lot of strength and hard work to have it satisfied. The title is therefore used for someone whose yams are inexhaustible. In the same vein, it is always a great achievement for one to continuously satisfy one's in-laws with food during any occasion and that explains why Damian is exceptional in his farm work. That also elucidates the structuring of his in-laws' place of origin, *Èdèm*, into the creation by the chanter. Also, the action of the birds to acknowledge his hard work and 'give him a name' (*onye ẹnənə turə ẹha n'ẹgə)* is a skilful infusion of personification into the art because the birds are given a human attribute which is speech. This is seen in line 90 where a non-human object is given human qualities. Damian Ọzọ (88) is such a hard worker in his farm site that the birds too have recognized it and chant his sobriquet. The birds, by giving him a title, have performed the human activity of presenting an award to a meritorious candidate who has distinguished himself from the rest.

In lines 91-94, Ugwokeja, the son of Okpe is designated as, /*Ọ mákpọ́ agbəgba ndiom anyị* / (the breaker of our women's gourds) in line 94. Ugwokeja, as a result of his energetic play of the maraca, keeps breaking the gourds that the women specially provide for the making of the musical instrument. This statement is also ironic because of the discrepancy between the intention of the performer and what he says. Therefore as a result of this discrepancy, the comprehension of the expression may constitute a little puzzle for an audience.

Again, in line 96, by referring to *Ugwutikiri nwa Okpe* (95) as /*Agə na-awa èdù*/ (a leopard that roams the wild), the performer likens the man's strength and bravery to that of a leopard. Obviously, the reference is in recognition of the man's occupation as a hunter and the risks involved in the profession. This remark does not only highlight the physical prowess of *Ugwutikiri nwa Okpe* but also his courage and fearlessness in fighting for the community's interest. Although there could be a negative connotation of the leopard as a hunter/predator that hunts other animals, Charles Darwin's 'survival of the fittest or eat or be eaten' philosophy of the jungle justifies the lion's actions and that is why this animal is always given a positive attribute with regard to its power to conquer. Also, / Ugwuntikiri, the son of Okpe, is acclaimed for his expertise in horn blowing. He is called the / *Emerə ntəm Odugwu Ịkàwó /* the passionate horn blower of *Ịkàwó /*-

the *Ọmaba* deity (line 98). For the chanter, therefore, / *Ugwutịkịrị nwa Okpe*/ *Ugwutịkịrị* the son of Okpe/ represents "the lion" in every ramification.

The chanter commends his humble alliances and their contributions towards the success of the performance as he says to him: / '*Ọnụ na-ahwia gǝ mẹ úkwù na-eji nye* / (Your mouth develops blisters while my waist hurts), (line 76) appreciating their devotion, resilient spirit and the undying love in their performance of this role. The ironical expressions actually mean that the fellow performer's mouth will never develop blisters and the reciter's waist will never hurt.

In other words, /*Ọmakpọ agbǝgba ndiom anyi*/ The breaker of the women's gourds (line 98), /*Emer ntǝm Odugwu Ịkawo* (Passionate horn blower of *Ịkawo*) (lines 79/109), and / "*Ẹjụ n'evǝ m* (I feel dizzy) are all hyperbolic because they overstate the actions of the bearers and express the contented feelings of the chanter. /*Ẹjụ na-evǝ m*/ "I feel dizzy"/ (line 109) could also be a signal to other spectators or listeners that are out of sight to bring much bigger gifts and goodies.

Ekwuelechi, the son of *Alaya Ogbonne Nshi Ogori*, the son of /*Ụgwọ ʹnarụọyị*/ (lines 100-104) is greeted and, in order to be particular to whom he addresses, the chanter also greets the family with their maternal designation from Ozara town, '*Ọ nǝgǝ egwu uri m'abǝgǝ n'agǝ.*' (Who does not apply the cam wood until he has transformed into a leopard). The reciter historically draws his idea from the family progenitors who were known for turning into leopards. And for such a family, any native body design with *uri* is prohibited when they are in their human forms because *Uri* is regarded as being similar to the leopard's dark designs and avoided once the family members are in their human forms as a mark of total change in body form and respect for their source of origin. Evidently, this is the artiste's native employment of intertextuality to his art, for he draws information outside his performance to substantiate his information. It is also a figuration which means that some situations challenge individuals to actualize their essential selves.

The intelligence of Madu Nweze is compared to that of a man who has mastered the art of deception to the extent that he knows who the thief is yet he goes about with a metal gong in search of the thief (lines 107-108). Literally, this expression would have been derogatory because it depicts dubiousness and untrustworthiness, but the deity uses it positively to applaud Madu Nweze's cleverness thereby making the language strange and difficult to understand. The fact that he hides his knowledge of the criminal effectively is ironically attributed to smartness rather than evil as it ought to have been. Literally, the listener would think the chanter rebukes the man's behaviour of pretence of not knowing the thief. But on the contrary, the man is being praised for being very clever. Further figurative usage is portrayed as the performer exclaims at this point that '/*Ẹjụ n'evǝm*/I feel dizzy.'/ This is an expression the performer uses to show his

gratitude to the gift of wine. The statement, obviously, contradicts the literal meaning that he is tired out by the lengthy rendition.

Furthermore, the women who bring food are greeted by the performer and advised thus /*Unu parə ànyàká E zəle oshi*/ (carry *anyaka* and desist from stealing) (lines 110-111). *Anyaka* is the traditional type of rope woven from ribs of palm fronds. It is locally used by women pot traders to bind the pots together for easy carrying on their heads while going to the market. *'Anyaka,'* is used to represent trade. The performer, after thanking the *Ọyịma* for their gift of food, advises the women to start trading instead of soiling their hands with any corrupt practice to get money. 'To carry *Anyaka,*' also suggests labouring for livelihood.

The audience and readers are in essence compelled to work harder at making meaning out of the text by being totally captivated by it. In the same vein, the *Ọmaba* chanter applies the figurative language to his art for the effect of concealing the masking activities from the non-initiates and women. The same, we may recall, is depicted in Achebe's (1958, 78-79) *Things Fall Apart*, where the *Egwugwu* (the masking institution of Ụmụọfịa) is invited to resolve the marital case among Uzowulu, his wife and in-laws. Uzowulu's in-laws accuse him of beating his wife but he claims that his in-laws took his wife, Mgbafo, from his house and therefore, they should return her bride price to him. The *Egwugwu* salutes Uzowulu as 'Uzowulu's body' instead of his name 'Uzowulu' for the same purpose of mystifying the 'spirit's language.'

Conclusion

Invariably, *Umuakpo - Lejja Okəti Ọmaba* chant, as it has been elaborated above, employs obscure and local figurative expressions extensively. These infusions, which covertly emphasise the ritual behind the Deity's reverence and the amiable (heroic) deeds of the chant's male characters, protect the sacredness of the masking institution. The interpreted language of Ụmụakpo-Lejja *Okəti Ọmaba* chant clarifies its almost impossible coherence without authorial and member's interpretation. The language is, therefore, discriminatory to non-initiates, and women, who in order "to belong" are unconsciously influenced into the membership.

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Appendix:
An *Ọmaba* chant performed by the 'deity' and his 'children' in the *Ụmuakpọ Okəti, Ụmuakpọ* village square of Lejja town on Orie night, July the 17th, 2019. (The dialect is different from the pedagogical Igbo version and that necessitated the use of the symbol 'ə' for clearer presentation of words in Lejja dialect. The text is also numbered for easy references).

Dịmọgwụma, alə ibe nẹ chi, ọjị Odo---O!   *Dịmọgwụma*- land of kin and god, Odo's kola nut Oh!

Dịmọgwụma, alə ibe nẹ chi, werə ọjị Odo---O! *Dịmọgwụma*- land of kin and god, collect *Odo's* kola nut O!)

Idenyi Ọhọm, werə ọji Odo---O!(2X)	Idenyi *Ọhọm*, Come and collect Odo's kola nut O! (twice)
Ụmụ ada Ọha, werə ọji Odo---O!(2X)	*Ụmụ ada ọha*, Come and collect Odo's kola nut Oh! (twice)
5 *Ndə Ushi anyi, bịa werə ọji Odomagala—*	*O!* ((2X)) Our Ushi members, Come and Collect Odo's kola nut Oh! (twice)
Ndə Ụmụakpọ, werə ọji Odo---O (2X)	(The people of Umuakpo, Come and collect *Odo*'s Kola nut O!)(twice)
Dịmọká ónyé nwe alə, ọji Odo--O(2X)	*Dịmọká*, the owner of the land Come and collect Odo's Kola nut O!
Adaada ọha, bịa werə ọji Odo---O!((2X))	*Adaada*, Come and collect Odo's Kola nut O! (twice)
Ndə Ụwa alə, bịa werə ọji,	The people of Uwalu (downhill), Come and collect *Odo's* Kola nut O! (twice)
10 *Ama Ụwa alə, bịa werə ọji Odo—O!*	*Ama Uwalu*, Come and collect Odo's kola nut (twice)
Dulugwunye, bịa werə ọji O!	*Dulugwunye*, come and collect Odo's Kola nut O!
Ézèlekwu Ọmeji, ọji Odo---O!(2X)	*Ézèlekwu Ọmeji*, Odo's Kola nut-O! (twice)
Ézèlimenyi, werə ọji Odomagala---O!(2X)	*Ezelimenyi*, collect *Odomagala O!*(twice)
Lẹẹja, werə ọji Odomagala---O! ((2X))	*Lejja*, collect Odomagala O! (twice)
15 *Dimo-Ugwunye, werə ọji Odomagala---O!*	*Dimo-Ugwunye*, collect *Odomagala* O!(twice)
Ézhìkè- Nwéèzè, ọji Odomagala---O!(2X)	*Ezike Nweze*, *Odomagala*'s kola nut O!)(twice)
Ézhìkè Nnevə də Ụga, ọji Odomagala--O(2X)	*Ézhìkè Nnevə* of *Ụga, ọji Odomagala--O*
Ọmẹkọ-Ugwunye, ọji Odomagala!(2X)	*Omeko-Ugwunye*, Odomagala's Kola nut! (twice)
Ézè nwa ọchima, ọji Odomagala--O! ((2X)*)*	*Ezenwọchima*, *Odomagala's* Kola nut *O!*(twice)
20 *Ézìkè-Tịm, ọji Odomagala* ((2X))	*Ezike-Tịm*, *Odomagala*'s kola nut)
Ézèlèkwu Ézè-Ohe – ọji Odomagala—O! ((2X)*)*	*Ezelekwu-Eze-ohe- Odomagala's* kola nut (twice)
Èvə də Ụga- ọji Odomagala!	*Èvə* of Uga *Odomagala*'s Kola nut (twice)
Urókò-Nkwọ- ọji Odomagala! ((2X))	*Urókò-Nkwọ- Odomagala*'s Kola nut
Ámábụnẹkwà – Mbiamonye- Odomagala!	*Ámábụnékwà –Mbiamonye* (twice)
25 *Ézìkènẹbọ̀- Odomagala!* (2X)	*Ézìkènẹbọ̀ - Odomagala!* (twice)
Ézìkè-Tịm- oji Odomagala ((2X)*)*	*Ézìkè-Tịm- Odomagala*'s Kola nut! (twice)
Ézìkè-Nwèzè-oji Odomagala((2X))	*Ézìkè-Nwèzè-Odomagala*'s Kola nut! (twice)

<center>*Ezebənúgwú*</center>

Ezebənúgwú mərə Ama-eze((2X))	*Ezebənúgwú* -who gave birth to Nweze)
30 *Ndə Ushi okpərə oji Odomagala! ((2X))*	The *Ushi okpərə* people- *Odomagala*'s Kola nut! (twice)
Ézènẹbọ̀, Odomagala O!	*Ezenebọ, Odomagala*'s Kola nut!

	Ézhìkènẹbọ̀ Odomagala ((2X))	*Ézhìkènẹbọ̀ Odomagala ((2X))*
	Ézhìkèẹlìgwè!	
	Ézhìkèẹlìgwè mərə Amọgbə!	*Ezikeẹligwe!, who gave birth to Amọgbə*
35	*Ézèụgwọcha-Ezikebíkò oji Odo—O!*	*Ezeugwocha-Ezikebiko-Odo's Kola nut O!*
	Ézhìkè nẹẹbọ̀! ((2X))	*Ézhìkè nẹẹbọ̀!* (twice)
	Ézhìkènẹ Amóké—oji Odomagala ((2X))	*Ézhìkènẹ Amóké- Odomagala's Kola nut!* (twice)
	Ụvərə Owere alə- ọji Odomagala((2X))	*Ụvərə Owere alə- Odomagala's Kola nut!* (twice)
	Ézhìkè Obinanə - ọji Odomagala!	*Ézhìkè Obinanə- Odomagala's Kola nut!* (twice)
40	*Ézhìkè Ọbi!*	*Ézhìkè Ọbi!*
	Ézhìkè Ọbiamẹji- Odomagala!	*Ezike Obiameji-Odomagala!*
	Ólúbé mərə Úgbèlè Odomagala!	*Olube-who-gave- birth- to-Ugbele!*
	Ézhìkè Dúlúgwu-u-u! ((2X))	*Ézhìkè Dúlúgwu-u-u!* (twice)
45	*Ézìkèahụm Nwalə -!*	*Ezikeahum Nwalə Okuzu of Upata*
	Ézhìkè nẹ òbè e-e-ee-O-e-e!	*Ézhìkè nẹ òbè e-e-ee-O-e-e!*
	Áyọgạlọ də Ụmụ Óbéké! (2X)	*Áyọgụlọ from the Obeke's family!* (twice)
	Evə də Ụga!	*Evə də Ụga!*
	Mkpəmẹ də Ụpata, nọọbụ ọji--O!	*Mkpume of Ụpata, this is kola nut—O!*
	Dimshinne nọọbụ ọji --O-O ((2X))	*Dimshinne, this is kola nut—O!* (twice)
50	*Úgwoke nẹ Ugwunye bịa werə ọji-- Ọmaba*	*Ugwoke and Ugwunye come and collect Kola nut--Ọmaba!*
	Adaada də Úgbèlè Ụwaalə-nọọbụ ọji - O((2X))	*Adaada of Úgbèlè Ụwaalə-it is Kola nut-O!* (twice)
	Úgwú Éshà də Úgbèlè Ụwa alə-nọọbụ oji O((2X))	*Éshà hills of Ugbele Uwalu, it is Kola nut—O!* (twice)
	Igbogebe- ọji Odo!	*Igbogebe- Odo's Kola nut!*
55	*Mkpəmẹ Owelẹgə-Okekwuma, Nọọbụ ọji- O!*	*Mkpəmẹ Owelẹgə-Okekwuma, it is Kola nut--O!*
	Mbiamonye!	*Mbiamonye!*
	Adaada də Úgbèlé nọọbụ ọji-O-O!((2X))	*Adaada of Úgbèlé it is Kola nut-O-O!* (twice)
		(A play of the musical instruments.)
	Ọmaba! - -	*- - -*
	Ụmụ nwọbọ agə--O-O, Unu emee agaa?	*Unu emee agaa?*
60	*Ọmaba abịa—O-'Unu emee agaa-O?*	*Ọmaba has come—O, How are you?*
		Ọmaba abịa- Ọmaba abịa
		Ọmaba has come- Ọmaba has come
		(The instrument is played and the horn talks)
	O-O-Ụmụ Dịmọgwụma O!	*O O! Children of Dịmọgwụma!*
	Dịmọgwụma anəgə egbə agə	*Dịmọgwụma does not kill a lion*
	Mẹ agə koyirə be anyi nẹ mkpọ ẹja O!	*Yet a lion hangs at a post in our houses O!*

(Another bridge is observed and the tempo of the musical instruments slows down)

| 65 | *Eze- anəg-egbu-agə-n'ọha   -* | The king that does not kill a lion in the public (twice) |

Nkwọda nwa Ókwùmẹ be anyị		Nkwoda, the son of Okwume
O vərə àjààrị sojue nyọnụ O -		He has filled my mouth with *ajari*
Ónyîîshì anyị e-e-e (twice)		(Our clan head e-e-e-!) (twice)
Ónyíîshì ụmụ òkè nwa O(2X)		(Clan head of great children)
70 *Ónyíîshì anyị rurə eru!*		(The clan head is duely yours!)
Ónyíîshì wetẹrəm íbé ọjị ne nwòkwùtẹ! (2X)		(Our clan head bring to me one cotyledon of kola nut and a snuff box!)
Ónyíîshì anyị wetẹrə m ọjị I jirə je gó alə O!		(Our clan head bring to me the kola with which you bought the land!)
Ónyíîshì anyị Ị magwọdə Odo na-ekwu iye ha?		Our head, do you know the Odo that is saying this thing?
Ọ bə nya ụdara nwa Òbòdòike Èzè		It's me, the apple, son of Obodoike Eze
75 *Anọ m nẹ be Égbə nẹ be Ụvərə*		(I am in the house of *egbə* and *uvərə)*
Ịmanụẹl Nwolu *nwa Ugo nwa Ugodi* O (twice)		(Emmanuel Nwolu, the son of Ugo, son of Ugodi O!(twice)
Evərala-nwa-Ugwele-Echara	-	(Evural, the son of Ugwele-Echara)
Ọ chịrə agbə werə nwa òbèlè- - O	-	He has collected *agbu* (a climbing rope that protects the wine tappers from falling off the tree) and a small gourd
Manya evugəde m ẹjụ O	-	Wine makes me dizzy O
80 Jọọnụ Nweeze *nwa Agəgədẹ O* (twice)		John, the son of Eze, the son of Agəgədẹ O(twice)
Eze-O-gbəẹ-íshí-Ọ-yarə-àgbà nyá O!-		The king that kills a head and leaves its jaw behind
Dọnatus nwa Ọzọ (twice)	-	Donatus, the son of Ozo
E-rikẹtẹ-okwu-Ézẹ̀-Ọká	-	Voracious eating of words Eze oka
Alə ne gə bə Ókóró Ọzara Ugwọjị	-	Your motherland is Okoro Ozara Ugwuoji
85 *Onye egbəgə anyịnya epiogə n'obə be Dugwu ọgọ-*		Someone who has not killed a horse cannot enter Dugwu *ọgọ*'s *Obi*
Charles Nweeze (twice)		
Nwa Ugwuezugwu Ụkwụna Demianụ Ọzọ (twice)	-	The son of Ugwuezeugwu *Ụkwụna*. Damian Ọzọ
Ọ-rənyịma-ényí-Ọ-rənyịma-Edem	-	Satisfier-of-both the-elephant-and-the-*Edem*-people-with-farmwork
90 *Onye-ẹnənə-turu-ẹha-negə*	-	Someone whom birds have given

			eulogized at the farm site
Ugwokeja nwa Okpe O (twice)	-		Ugwokeja, the son of Okpe O!
Ugwoke Ekwueme Ugwu			
Ekwueme Nwa Úgwú nwa Erẹjẹ	-		Ekwueme, the son of Ugwu, the son of *Erẹjẹ*
Ọ mákpọˊ agbəgba ndiom anyị	-		The breaker of our women's gourds!
95	*Ugwutịkərị nwa Okpe-O* (twice)	-	Ugwutikiri, the son of Okpe O!
	Agə na-áwá èdù -	-	The lion that forages in the forest
	Nwa-aba-eme Ụzə nwa Amẹẹyà	-	Son of Uzu, who does what he says, the son of *Amẹẹyà*
	Emerə ntəm Odugwu Ịkàwó -	-	Passionate horn expert of *Ikawo*
	Ọnụ na-ahwia gə mẹ úkwù na-eji nye-O		Your mouth develops blisters while my waist hurts
100	*Ekwuelechi O* (twice)	-	*Ekwuelechi O* (twice)
	Alaya-Ogbonne-Nshị-Ogori -	-	*Alaya-Ogbonne-Nshị-Ogori*
	Ugwu Alaya də Ngwoke -	-	Ugwu Alaya of Ngwoke O!
	Ụgwọˊnarụọyị -	-	*Alaya-Ogbonne-Nshị-Ogori*
	Ọ nəgə egwu uri m'abəgə n'ẹgə	-	He does not apply *uri* unless he is the the forest!
105	*Madụ Ezea O* (twice)	-	(The man's name)
	Madụ Nwezeji Amoke	-	Madu, the son of Ezeji Amoke
	Madu Nweeze, Ọ maarə onye bə oshi	-	Madu the son of Eze who knows the thief
	O werə ogele ga na-achọ onye zərə oshi e		Yet goes around with a metal gong in search of the thief
	Ẹjụ na-evə m, Onye nke anyị abịa	-	I'm feeling dizzy, our own has come!
110	*Ọyịma ikpərəkwu* -	-	The people's *Ọyịma*!
	Ndə ọma para anyaka e zəle oshi	-	My good people Carry *anyaka* and do not steal
	O—O Ụmụ Chinaedokwueze -	-	the offsprings of God-crowned li lineage

(The Beating Changes Again- Story Telling Session)

Nẹ nya jeko nye ije nye O!	-	-	-	*Jereke—Jeke-O*
(I am going on my own journey Oh!)	-	-	*Jereke—Jeke-O*
Nwaanyi shi n'aga ụzọ fəta!	-	-	-	*Jereke—Jeke-O*
(A woman came out from the corner of the road)		*Jereke—Jeke-O*
115	*Nẹ nya zọfəta nne nye nya dərə nye O!*	-	*Jereke—Jeke-O*
(If I rescue her mother that I should take her O)		*Jereke—Jeke-O*
Nẹ nya zọfəta nna nya nya dərə nye O	-	-	*Jereke—Jeke-O*
(If I rescue her father that I should take her O)		*Jereke---e—Jeke-O*
Nẹ nya azọfəta nne nye bịa je dərə e Ọ jụ -		*Jereke—Jeke-O*
(I rescued the mother and came to take her and she refused)-		
Nẹ nya azọfəta nna nya bịa je dərə e Ọ jụ -		*Jereke—Jeke-O*

(I rescued the father and came to take her and she refused) - *Jereke—Jeke-O*

Jereke--- Jeke O Jereke---Jeke O -   -   -   *Jereke—Jeke-O*

120   **Nẹ nna nya eze agbaa nya ẹba** -   -   **Ngba**   **eba-Ngba-huyereke**

(My father, the king, has conferred on me the royal rites   *Ngba eba-Ngba-huyereke*

Nẹ oheyi ọkụ anarə nya ẹba -   -   -   *Ngba eba-Ngba-huyereke*

(The hot ogbono soup has taken my rites from me -   *Ngba eba-Ngba-huyereke*

Nẹ ụtara ọkụ anarə nya ẹba -   -   -   *Ngba eba-Ngba-huyereke*

(The hot foo foo has taken my rites from me) -   *Ngba eba-Ngba-huyereke*

Ụwa ndiom ụwa ngəta -   -   -   -   *Ngba eba-Ngba-huyereke*

(The world of women, the world of dogs) -   -   *Ngba eba-Ngba-huyereke*

Ẹba nya nwa Ogiri Iyoke -   -   -   **Ẹba- - a- nya**

(My oath the son of Ogiri Iyoke) -   -   *Ẹba- - a- nya*

125   *Nẹ nya rigwo nke onyeke* -   -   -   *Ẹba- - a- nya*

(If I did eat that of a man) -   -   -   *Ẹba- - a- nya*

Nẹ nya rigwo nke onyenye -   -   -   *Ẹba- - a- nya*

(If I did eat that of a woman)

127   *Ẹba nya gi tigbugwo nye* -   -   -   *Ẹba- - a- nya*

(My oath beat me to death) -   -   -   *Ẹba- - a- nya*

Tugworigwodo! (May it be done unto me according to the wishes of the gods!)

(Further stories go on till dawn)

sciendo

The method of educational programs localization under internationalization of academic environment

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Abstract

In the context of the internationalization of education the need for localization and translation of educational programs into foreign languages with the aim of attracting foreign students is increasing. Consequently, new methods and resources are required to optimize educational process. However, currently there are not enough localized programs translated into English and localized for the new contingent of university students although localized programs are urgently needed as they give foreign students the opportunity to choose the most suitable direction for study. The purpose of the proposed research is localization as a linguistic and cultural adaptation of digital content to the requirements of the foreign market and translation into English the educational program "Software Engineering" for students of telecommunications specialties taking into account both technical and didactic terminology. To speed up the translation the glossary is compiled using online and offline services. As a result, the program "Software Engineering", designed for foreign students, is localized, translated and adapted. Thus, a more "friendly" environment for entering the educational process in the new intercultural conditions is created. This practice becomes an integral part of the lecturers' activities. On the other hand, students themselves can be involved in content creation and research. The design of localization should be directed from simple to complex, taking into account a certain balance between depth and composition of research. In general, the presentation of localized programs at the international level has a number of advantages for universities, including economic ones, for example, increasing the income invested in equipping the educational process.

Keywords: localization, translation, adaptation, educational program, internationalization

Introduction

The article considers the problem of localization and translation of educational programs in the context of internationalization of education which requires the presentation of programs to a wider range of future foreign applicants.

"The Routledge Encyclopedia of Translation Studies" gives the following definition of the term "localization": "Localization can be defined as the linguistic and cultural adaptation of digital content to the requirements of the foreign market and destination as well as the provision of services and technologies for managing multilingualism in global digital information flow" (Baker, 2009, p. 157).

However, the localization and translation process has a complex structure. Thus, F. Wolfen and L. Adinolfi note that localizers involved in localizing and translating a project for an audience of other countries create terminological meanings, taking into account situational and linguistic factors that influence the decision to localize content. At the same time, the authors indicate that this process develops certain skills and enriches the professional experience of lecturers (Wolfen & Adinolfi, 2019, p. 327).

At the same time, the problem of localization and translation tools is being solved. So, H. Adriye, A. Alkhalaf & M. Alkhlaf write that software automation is becoming increasingly important, especially in connection with the expansion of open educational platforms but has its advantages and disadvantages. Systems can cause difficulties in their use associated both with technical problems and language errors in the system or a language barrier. This fact requires the creation of new mechanisms, more "friendly" to program developers, more localized, and easier to understand (Adriye, Alkhalaf & Alkhlaf, 2019, p. 215).

S. Nourabadi & M. Sobhaninejad note that the work on localizing the content of programs should take into account the following parameters: age orientation (young generation), compliance with the needs of a society, a variety of interdisciplinary programs, the possibility of updating and localization. The localization design should be directed from simple to complex, taking into account a certain balance between the breadth, depth, and composition of the content development, attracting lecturers to create and update these programs. In addition, students themselves can participate in the discussion of program design, taking into account their abilities and competencies necessary for socialization in the given society (Nourabadi & Sobhaninejad, 2018, p. 285).

At the same time, it is possible to appeal to the experience of other countries. Guo & Xie point out that Chinese universities are actively entering the international market for educational services, establishing branches and implementing their programs. Accordingly, they have experience in implementing educational programs based on two principles: localization and internationalization. Introducing the features of Chinese learning and culture, they combine the advantages of the local environment with the international principles of education which contributes to their own development (Guo & Xie, 2017, p. 213).

As noted by J. Djan & G. Babu, many universities strategically offer more advanced training programs, taking into account the increasing involvement of the

virtual environment in the educational process. Moreover, the programs are offered not only for the younger generation but also for retraining specialists in order to obtain new knowledge and relevant competencies. Therefore, it is in the interests of universities to disseminate their programs abroad to all interested parties who wish to improve their competencies "without borders". Such experience provides training flexibility, including timing and speed of training depending on the students' employment. At the same time universities win too, as it allows them to expand their offer to those who otherwise could not use it. A computerized program that offers individual opportunities can help motivate students around the world (Djan & Babu, 2016, p. 430).

The international presentation of programs or even their sale has several advantages for universities, including economic ones, for example, an increase in income that contributes to their further development. On the other hand, programs presented at the international level give foreign students the opportunity to choose the most suitable direction for study. In addition, countries such as Australia, Canada and the United States are increasingly relying on the further employment of foreign graduates who agree to work in remote regions where the natives of these countries are reluctant to go.

The purpose of this article is to present the experience of localization and translation of the educational program "Software Engineering" for students of telecommunications specialties, taking into account both technical and didactic terminology.

The novelty of the declared topic and development is the proposal of a methodology for the localization and translation of educational programs in order to attract more foreign students by creating the most understandable "friendly" content.

1   Methods of localization and translation of the educational program "Software Engineering"

As noted above, the first step in preparing a program for international students is its localization which is understood as the linguistic and cultural adaptation of software and information technologies to the requirements of foreign students.

To attract foreign students, it is necessary to localize existing programs taking into account the specifics of a particular academic discipline. Thus, Santamarina points out the need to revise geo-engineering programs to clarify terms, providing a thorough understanding of the basics of discipline and understanding the role of engineering in an ever-changing world. The author, for example, identifies a number of terms necessary for understanding and assimilation: terms with multiple semantics, misnomers, incorrect concepts, superseded, restrictive / simplistic, fragile correlations and equations with local validity. In general, geo-

engineering continues developing as a result of the synergistic interaction of education, research and practice (Santamarina, 2015, p. 135).

Prideaux examines the medical education situation. He notes the introduction of certain terminology in this area. In particular, there is a general glossary of terms related to medical practice and education published by the International Institute of Medical Education (IIME) (Prideaux, 2019, p. 25).

One of the tasks of localizing the educational program "Software Engineering" for future foreign students is the translation of regulatory documents accompanying the educational program. To speed up the translation work, it was decided to compile a thematic glossary of pedagogy and information technology terms.

To highlight terms from regulatory documents, the first step is to analyze the density of keywords and phrases. Keyword density is a measure of the repetition rate of keywords in a text. The indicator is calculated as a percentage of the number of keywords to the total number of words in the text. It should be noted that the so-called "noise" words such as common, frequently encountered parts of speech, such as participles, particles, prepositions, interjections, numbers, etc are not taken into account.

Currently, there are many online services on the Internet for analyzing the density of frequently encountered words. Note that to work with such services, it is necessary to have documents in formats that allow copying the text (for example, DOC, PDF, TXT):

1. SeoTXT.com is a service used by the authors to compile a glossary of IT terms. The program allows setting the following parameters: how many characters in the words should be taken into account, whether numbers and "noise" words should be taken into account, how many phrases should be searched. After necessary settings, the text is copied to the window and the Analysis button is clicked. The disadvantage of this service is that it only works with passages of text not exceeding 100 Kb. After analyzing the first part of the text, writing out the desired terms, it is necessary to remove the found words using the Notepad program. Then, the edited text is analyzed again using the service and it is necessary to repeat these steps until a satisfactory result is obtained (Text Optimizer, 2019).

2. Istio.com is an online service which allows analyzing the text by inserting a fragment of up to 100 Kb into the window and clicking the Analysis button. The program produces a table with four tabs when you click the Dictionary button. The service takes into account the morphology of words. The dictionary consists of words sorted by the frequency of occurrence in the text, so the data can be used to highlight the terms for the glossary. The disadvantage of the program is that this dictionary consists of only one-component terms,

respectively, the terms of two or more words cannot be found (SEO text analysis online, 2007-2019).

3. Advego.com works with fragments up to 100 Kb. Upon verification, there appeared a table called "Semantic Core" which indicates the number and frequency of repetitions of words and phrases, as well as the table "Words" containing only words. Accordingly, the service finds both single-component and multi-component terms. During the analysis of both tables, it is possible to determine the most common terms (Semantic analysis of text online, seo-analysis of text, 2019).

As mentioned above, the disadvantages of all services are that the large text needs to be broken down into 100 Kb passages (100,000 characters) and then each passage should be analyzed.

The translation process is impossible without the use of dictionaries. At present, the digital space offers the translator to use electronic dictionaries. Internally, such dictionaries are arranged as databases with dictionary entries. There are two types of electronic dictionaries: off-line and on-line. Off-line dictionaries can be installed on a computer or other digital device and are available for use even without access to the Internet. On-line dictionaries are available only through the Internet.

Electronic dictionaries have several advantages over traditional printed dictionaries:

- contain not only text and graphic images but also video clips, audio recordings and more;
- provide more flexibility due to the ability to carry out different types of searches;
- save time significantly;
- provide speed of search in comparison with the printed version;
- memorization function and hypertext allow the user to quickly return to the previously requested data (Chumarina, 2009, p. 265).

Among the most popular off-line English dictionaries, we note:

1. ABBYY Lingvo, available for mobile and desktop devices, has a clear interface. All available dictionaries can be used as a single. A combined list of keywords allows simultaneously accessing all dictionaries. If a word is found in many dictionaries, all relevant entries are displayed in one window.

2. Polyglossum are formed from a single source with paper dictionaries published in various industries which are equipped with a developed data indexing system that allows full-text searching in any direction. It is supported by most mobile and desktop devices.

The context has a large set of general and special dictionaries including dictionaries of difficulties of the English language, oil and gas industry, abbreviations for information technology, telecommunications and communications, music and computer processing of sound and others. It is possible to conveniently create custom dictionaries, i.e. users can create their own dictionaries by choosing the necessary terms.

The following online dictionaries are very popular among translators:

1. ABBYY Lingvo Live contains a huge database of words where you can find a translation of almost any word in several versions depending on the dictionary used.
2. Multitran is a bilingual online dictionary that contains many different meanings of a word in various topics explaining the nuances of meanings. It is possible to get examples of using phrases in the right context. Multitran is also replenished by users.
3. Cambridge Dictionaries gives for each word both transcription and audio in two versions – American and British. Audio recordings are flawless in quality. Interpretations of words are given in English.

Contextual translator programs can be singled out as a separate category of translator assistants which allow translating a text:

1. TranslateIt! can translate not only individual words and phrases but also texts as a whole. This feature works using Google Translation. It is worth noting the possibility of using additional dictionaries, automatic language detection and ability to work with PDF documents.
2. QTranslate, a free contextual translator for Windows, uses various online services such as Google, Microsoft, Promt, Yandex and others. To translate a word, one can just select it on the screen and press the key combination Ctrl + Q.
3. Google Translate Client is a free translator for Windows, which allows quickly translating a text in most applications such as Web browsers, Office applications, messengers and so on using the Google Translate service.

Currently, translation automation tools (CAT-Tools) are widely used. The abbreviation CAT itself stands for Computer-Aided (Assisted) Translation which can be considered as "automated translation." In the course of automated translation, the software helps the translator to make the process more efficient on the basis of translations of similar texts previously received from the user which is in no way connected with machine translation when the program translates. Externally, the CAT program is similar to a regular text editor.

Depending on the developer, translation automation tools have different functionality. Among the tasks solved by the program, the following can be distinguished:

1. The translator can create and replenish the Translation Memory database using pairs of parallel texts, i.e. the source language and the target language.
2. Due to special tags, it is possible to keep the original layout of the document. This function is convenient for texts with a multi-level structure.
3. CAT-programs contain linguistic resources in the form of glossaries consisting of abbreviations, terms, special concepts used in any field.

CAT programs can be installed on one computer or have Cloud architect ture. The first option supports the stationary version. In the second version, one project may be available to several translators at the same time.

One of the advantages of translation automation systems is that it is easier for a translator to achieve uniformity of a document due to the fact that the program offers one translation option if one and the same term or phrase is used. Another advantage is the ease of adjusting the finished texts. Finally, the use of CAT-programs increases the speed of the translation. The system can offer translation for a significant part of the document if the translation database is accumulated or there is a glossary on a given topic (CAT-tools or Cat-programs are reliable translator assistants, 2019).

An essential element of the translator's work is the verification and adjustment of the translated text. Obviously, no program detects one hundred percent of errors, but, nevertheless, applications for checking English grammar can become an important part of the translator's work:

1. Microsoft Word has grammar and spelling tools. The program emphasizes misspelled words with a red line and syntax violations with a green line. When you right-click, possible corrections are opened. In the program settings there is an option to select the dialect of the English language.
2. Virtual Writing Tutor is an online tool. It provides the ability to check the text of three thousand words after free registration. In addition to checking the text for spelling and grammar errors, one can check the choice of vocabulary for context (for example, academic) (Virtual Writing Tutor, 2019).
3. PaperRater is an online service which verifies the grammatical correctness of texts and for plagiarism. It includes various modules that represent text analysis and comparison with other users (Paper Rater, 2019).

Thus, in the arsenal of translators and lecturers involved in the localization of educational programs, there are various on-line and off-line programs and dictionaries which can greatly facilitate the fulfillment of tasks.

An indisputable fact is that new methods and resources are required to optimize students' knowledge and the educational process as a whole. One of the key competencies is the students' autonomy combined with the ability to learn. The involvement of students in active work is an important factor in order to feel

a greater immersion in the content of the program and, thus, in the educational process as a whole. Therefore, in the process of activity, the ability to learn is activated and one's own professional experience is acquired.

Carabias-Orti, Kroher & Moreno give an example of students' working with a 3D audio program that allows interacting with various algorithms, localization technologies and subjective perceptions. The methodology involves the active participation of students: they must repeat the material and then activate it in the process of interaction with the simulator. The material and simulator are available online which contributes to the autonomy of learning. The results of the research show that with this orientation of training, students better understand technologies and related problems (Carabias-Orti, Kroher & Moreno, 2015, p. 3371).

Therefore, the involvement of students in the creation of content helps to activate the knowledge already gained and put it into practice.

2 Results on the localization of the educational program "Software Engineering"

In the process of localization and translation into English, the educational program "Software Engineering" for students of telecommunications specialties an analysis of the density of texts in the specialty is carried out. The analysis is carried out using SeoTxt.com software, as the program contains a setting for the number of words contained in the phrases to be found. Thus, it is possible to search for multi-component terms of 2, 3, 4 words.

After searching phrases in texts with different parameters, there formed a list of the 50 most frequent terms from the field of higher education for special attention while translating, supplemented by terms from the title pages of curricula.

Next, a list of IT terms is compiled that are most often found in work programs, educational complexes and manuals. For this, an analysis of the content of work programs of all disciplines and texts available in electronic form of teaching aids using the above service is also performed. According to the results of the work, the list of the most frequent terms is obtained from the following sections of informatics and information technology: programming languages, object-oriented programming, computer and network architecture, computer graphics, operating systems, databases, software engineering, system modeling. It has been supplemented by a list of didactic terms.

After compiling the list of terms in the field of information technology and didactics, they are translated and a glossary is compiled. During the translation, on-line and off-line dictionaries are repeatedly used, including those mentioned above.

Thus, on the basis of the compiled thematic glossary after translating the documentation for the localized educational program, the following are obtained:

1. General Characteristics of the Educational Program "Software Engineering";
2. Matrix of competences;
3. Scheme of educational program paths;
4. Curriculum;
5. Module abstracts;
6. Module syllabi;
7. Course syllabi.

Conclusion

Thus, after analyzing the theoretical provisions of the topic under discussion, we have come to the conclusion that in the context of the internationalization of the educational environment, it is of great importance to solve the problems of localization and translation of existing native language educational materials and programs.

The aim of our research is the localization and translation into English the educational program "Software Engineering" for students of telecommunications specialties, including technical and didactic terminology. Taking into account the world experience described above, which indicates that for localization special terminological fields are allocated and glossaries are created, we also decided to compile a thematic glossary of terms in the field of IT technologies and didactics based on the analysis of regulatory documents.

After analyzing the available computer services, we choose the SeoTxT.com service as the optimal one for searching multi-component terms. Further, on-line and off-line dictionaries are used to translate the obtained sample. Currently, there are a number of on-line and off-line programs and dictionaries that can provide significant support to both lecturers and translators.

Thus, the following results are obtained: general characteristics of the educational program "Software Engineering", a map of competencies, an outline of educational paths, curriculum, annotations and work programs of modules, work programs of disciplines. The program is currently being prepared for testing.

Taking into account the complexity and multi-levelness of the localization process, the solution of problems should be carried out at an interdisciplinary level, uniting both linguists-translators, specialists in the field of education and specialized subjects, as well as students who are developing their professional competencies already at the training stage, which could help to create more " friendly "content to attract international students.

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The temporary return to the homeland
in Michael Ondaatje's *Running in the Family*

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Abstract

This study concentrates on memory in Michael Ondaatje's *Running in the Family* because it is the foundation for the whole novel. Ondaatje's attempt creates a relationship with the past by performing all acts of the journey in physical and imaginary performances of listening and reproducing. His attempt depends on his own memory; however, his memory does not coincide with stories he has heard, and the historical documents tend to conflict with each other. In the interior of his travels, Ondaatje reveals the extent of his isolation and the impact of his displacement. As he narrates the stories, he faces difficulties in distinguishing between rumors and lies, in organizing fragments of knowledge, and in explaining challenges tied to his methods of cultural revival. These challenges are met in the non-linear and sometimes stunning text plans which he uses.

Keywords: memory, the self, belonging, past, isolation, homeland.

Introduction

The temporal reversal forms a key feature of the immigrant imagination to seek wholeness through a connection with the past. Although the lived reality of an immigrant writer undeniably affirms the violent temporal rupture that migration enforces "of his present being in a different place from his past" (Rushdie, 1991, p. 12). This very dislocation creates conditions for an imaginary desire to negate time, reverse it, and enact an endless return to the past. It seems that the irreversible wholesale transition involved in the act of migration and settlement opens up imaginative possibilities for the immigrant writer who wants not so much to reverse time but to step back in time and embark on a journey of reversal. Therefore, the impulse which guides Michael Ondaatje to return to his native land through his voyage creates an intimate imaginary landscape that allows him to enter the dialogue with his dead father. It is obvious that the desire for such a connection is strong and no reconciliation is possible; therefore, Ondaatje is unable to imagine the information barrier that divides the past from the present. Sometimes, there is a bifurcated perspective at which the disjuncture is marked by

the results of spatial and temporal dislocation that Rushdie (1991, p. 19) explains a "stereoscopic vision". Meanwhile, McLeod (2000, p. 209) claims that "the idea of the home country splits from the experience of returning home". This divided perspective results in irreversible ontological instability for future migrants, who are displaced from their homeland and resettled; it creates a site of endlessly deferred desire. Brah (1996, p. 188) presents the question "where is home?" to explain the place of "home" for the immigrant, exile, or diasporic, where he claims that "'home' is a mythic place of desire in the diasporic imagination. In this sense, "home" is a place of no return, even if it is possible to visit the geographical territory that is seen as the place of 'origin'".

In *Running in the Family*, the most important postcolonial themes deal with ethnicity, hybridity, and cross-cultural alliances in the critical argument; therefore, this paper explores how Ondaatje could create a connection between "home" and "homeland," between past and present*?* It also explores how Ondaatje could represent the "self" in his novel? Because the extent of the connection of Ondaatje's self is the original homeland, cultural segregation, the duality of spaces, and identification of his autobiography as the "other." Ondaatje mixes up his autobiographical expectations in several ways, but through the text, he symbolizes the questionability of representing a displaced self. He recognizes the challenging task in autobiographical writing which he faces when he chooses terms of cross-cultural identifications. His national duality and immigration make the process difficult in terms of ethnic and national belonging because he is in-between two separate locations, Canada and Sri Lanka. However, these formal complications are clear in the text; it responds to these difficulties.

The Challenge of identity and alienation

The location of immigrant writers is on the edge of cultural exchanges due to the crisis of alienation and displacement. For immigrant writers, the crisis of alienation involves an act of dislocation that positions them at a point of perpetual emergency. It is a space that puts them between the instant of the transition of a dynamic system and the quest for a fixed location which is subverted by a sudden expansion of locations. According to Hutcheon's (1989, p. 1-23) view of simultaneous inscription and disruption, writing one's past becomes a desperate attempt to search for the locations forever parading before one's mental eye. As each of the locations in this round is fixed into the narration, some sort of finality is carried out, though only temporally.

However, a postmodernist point of view would hold that this proliferation of spaces is not tantamount to losing the idea of space as such. The proliferation of meaning does not imply the implosion of meaning as such, to live in many places is not to be placeless. Bhabha (2004, p. 13) explains that for the individual "to be unhomed is not to be homeless, nor can the 'unhomely' be easily accommodated

in that familiar division of social life into private and public spheres". It is the juncture between the appropriation of homelessness in a deconstructionist context and the rootlessness of the modern world. Bhabha has clarified the concept of "unhomeliness," which is the condition of belonging to many places at the same time. Further, Ahmad (2000, p. 126-27) explains that "the myth of ontological unbelonging is replaced by another, larger myth of excess of belonging: not that he belongs nowhere, but that he belongs to too many places".

Consequently, the effects of isolation from the cause, such as whether one is exiled or self-exiled, cannot be distinguished any longer. The concentration is on the performance of isolation and displacement when individuals are forced to live in a proliferation of locations; therefore, it is dismissed, even if nostalgically, and incised by returning to the myth of origin. Otherwise, Rushdie clarifies the concept of "homeland," which symbolizes the imaginary but sometimes is broken in the exile and returns to the original home. Thus, his attempt is to return to the original home. It seems like the same feelings when the immigrant decides to leave the homeland to expand his exploration of the horizon.

The concept of the transnational can be viewed as a fortification against ethnic exclusivism. The notion of inseparability is mapped onto the circle of nationalism; therefore, the thought of space is itself seen as out of date if the nation is compared with ethnicity. The fiction of a homogeneous nation is set against the multicultural community in which the form of multiculturalism asserts the way that all cultures have always influenced each other and are no longer retrievable in their unique shape. In this form, the idea of pure culture itself is uncovered as fiction, but the attempt to disentangle an intermixture of cultures may be a futile one. Notions of origin are difficult through the terribly quality fusion of new culture and old culture: it is the hybridity that must be treated. The root of its sources will only be inferred instead of accurately reconstructed. Nationalities are no longer moored in their correct meanings. Human bodies themselves that cannot be dealt out the new cultures that merge at intervals attest to the unnaturalness of apportioning out the globe through national boundaries. The riotous property of cultures cannot be unraveled into linear structures.

Psychologically, an individual suffering trauma will surely not remember what happens at the moment of the traumatic incident. People often attempt to forget horrible moments to avoid apprehension. However, those moments upset them in their unconscious and have an impact on their actual conduct. Therefore, the re-memory brings pain which influences their actual conduct psychologically. This is based on Bhabha's (2004, p. 28) view that the act of memory "is never a quiet act of introspection or retrospection. It is a painful remembering, a putting together of the dismembered past to make sense of the trauma of the present" (ibid., p. 11). The suffering might enable people to know their inner power so that "real human pain can be converted into a regime's fiction of power".

In *Running in the Family*, the important part is the "exoticism," but Ondaatje's concern with his integrating identity conceals a delight with exoticism. He takes the imagination of his readers to Sri Lanka to show them the exotic land; therefore, his writing distinguishes the exotic experience from the experience of inundation in the new culture. Michael Ondaatje plays a dual role as a narrator and a reader to reflect the imaginary homeland of Sri Lanka to present it to his readers, but it is obvious that he personally felt loneliness and saw his Sri Lankan community as an exotic land during his visit. Therefore, he returned to the original homeland to explore his identity and ethnicity, where he faced an odd situation. However, Ondaatje's predicament of an identity of alienation comes from the argumentative space between Sri Lankan and Canadian cultural identity and the impact of colonization on Sri Lanka. The hidden feelings of the indirect conspiracy of colonization lead him to the feeling of Sri Lanka being an exotic land. Ondaatje sheds light on the actual identity crisis experienced by Sri Lankan people in the age of decolonization and how they can transition to a new order.

The time of his text is the past, and the location is Ceylon, where Ondaatje's parents and grandparents had grown up. Indeed, Ondaatje uses Ceylon to refer to the old name of the country, which is currently called Sri Lanka, so he might be doing this to draw the attention of his reader not only to the history of his family but also the history of the place where he was born. Clearly, his effort is not to conduct a study of the history of Sri Lanka; instead, he somehow wants to revive the memory of his readers. He builds details of his story on the ventures of past generations, particularly, his grandmother Lala and his father. When Ondaatje starts to know more about his family, he realizes that he has a deeper connection not only on a personal level. As Ondaatje (1993, p. 20) points out, "that night, I will have not so much a dream as an image that repeats itself. I see my own straining body which stands shaped like a star and realize gradually I am part of a human pyramid. Below me are other bodies that I am standing on and above me are several more, though I am quite near the top".

Thus, the portraying of his family supports him in clarifying the importance of the familial link which is considered central to the text. So, Ondaatje (1993, p. 168) thanks his family at the end of the text when he says that they were "central in helping me recreate the era of my parents".

Ondaatje emphasizes both larger family and individual life to draw the real picture in his autobiographical text. Through other persons in his community and other stories, Ondaatje works to reconstruct his past so that he could create a sense of his own life, which is associated with his family, to make them a part of his story. From the beginning of his narration, Ondaatje stresses his dual identity when he mentions in a conversation with Hutcheon that "I do feel I have been allowed the migrant's double perspective, in the way, say, someone like Gertrude Stein was 'refocused' by Paris" (Hutcheon & Richmond, 1990, p. 197). Ondaatje's double

identity locates him in the third space; therefore, the ambivalence places him in a difficult state to find a unified identity. His investigation is about his original homeland through his continual experience in his new home. Thus, he begins restoring his memory through the first dream of his father in Sri Lanka, and he is still in Canada. As Ondaatje (1993, p. 15) points out in the first section Asia, "what began it all was the bright bone of a dream I could hardly hold onto. I was sleeping at a friend's house. I saw my father, chaotic, surrounded by dogs, and all of them were screaming and barking into the tropical landscape".

In fact, he illustrates how he returned in a dream from a frosty Canadian winter to hot Asia. Ondaatje (1993, p. 15) awakes "tense, not wanting to move as the heat gradually left" him as "the sweat evaporated," and then he "became conscious again of brittle air outside the windows searing and howling through the streets and over the frozen cars hunched like sheep all the way down towards Lake Ontario" (ibid.). Ondaatje refers to "the midst of the farewell party in ... growing wildness" (ibid); thus, he recognizes ambivalence. Thus, he says that "I was already running ... back to the family, I had grown from those relations from my parents' generation who stood in my memory like frozen opera. I wanted to touch them into words" (ibid). Clearly, the picture shows the sight of the opera advertised on a large sign which he sees from his home. The writer wants to associate with that scene through the act of writing to contact words through words. The first section begins with a dream and closes within a picture of a big drunk party for young people whose parties and their aftermath are described in the next chapters of the novel. The group of pictures and net of figures slowly take the writer deep into the network of relations in the following chapters; however, nothing is essentially resolved. The problem that faces Ondaatje is the large gap between his own memories of his father and the stories which he has heard about him.

The ambivalent dialogue between here and there is often an investigation between the self and the place. Thus, he finds that he is not "Sri Lankan" and not "Canadian" in any way; Ondaatje (1993, p. 66) mentions in the section "The Karapothas," "I am the foreigner. I am the prodigal who hates the foreigner". Ondaatje feels ambivalent while he lives in Canada. When he returned to Sri Lanka, he also felt uncomfortable and not at home. Ondaatje's text deals implicitly and not obviously with Canadian subjects; therefore, his position as a writer is unclear for critics to call him a Canadian writer. His work often puts him in-between spaces; it is rare to refer to Canada as a location in his writing. Nevertheless, his writings are collected in Canadian studies and taught in Canadian courses because Ondaatje found "himself" after he immigrated to Canada. In fact, Canada as a multicultural state has helped Ondaatje to find the "self" and made him a known writer. Some critics have classified Ondaatje as a "cosmopolitan" or "Third World" writer because his works include diverse cultures and deal with multiple identities; therefore, Ondaatje's texts are part of transcultural literature. Gandhi (1998, p.

153) clarifies this kind of writing as "entirely explicit in its commitment to hybridity. Positioned on the interstices of two antagonistic national cultures, it claims to open up an in-between space of cultural ambivalence". Meanwhile, Bush (1994, p. 240) refers to him as "the first of the real migrant tradition that you see in a number of writers of our time – Rushdie, Ishiguro, Ben Okri, Rohinton Mistry – writers leaving and not going back, but taking their country with them to a new place". Hence, it is clear that his text is entirely related to belonging, migration, self-identity, and others. He emphasizes pain and dislocation, but his text preserves a sense of location, which is always lost in cosmopolitan texts. Otherwise, Ondaatje's *Running in the Family* cannot be included among cosmopolitan writings because this text is concerned with a certain history and memory.

Ondaatje has faced the problem of not being able to reach any community outside his family because he left his homeland at the age of eleven. Therefore, he describes the path into time and place because his memory of Ceylon is not sufficient to cover all the stories about the community. Thus, his identity is linked to things larger than himself. Despite his family history being different from social history, Ondaatje uses it to investigate social history. Certainly, he has only dealt with members of his family and famous people in his community as artists with a large "sacrifice of his regionality, his past, and most importantly, his experience of otherness in Canada" (Mukherjee, 1994, p. 50). He concentrates on imagination and myths more than reflecting the real picture of Sri Lankan society; therefore, his attempt is to hide the reality of people and places. Mukherjee (1994, p. 121) explains that reading *Running in the Family* gives "the impression that the other Sri Lankans – the fishermen, the tea-estate pickers, the paddy planters – are only there as a backdrop to the drama of the Ondaatje family" because he believes that "Ondaatje's unwillingness or inability to place his family in a network of social relationships makes the book a collection of anecdotes which may or may not be funny depending on one's own place in the world" (ibid., p. 122).

The exploration of the "Self"

In Hutcheon's view, Ondaatje realizes that he is far from Sri Lankan society, so his attempt is "part of a long tradition of invasions and so forth" (Hutcheon & Richmond, 1990, p. 201). In "The Karapothas" section, Ondaatje (1993, p. 66) refers to D. H. Lawrence's description: "the roads are intensely picturesque. Animals, apes, porcupine, hornbill, squirrel, pigeons, and figurative dirt!". Then he portrays another kind of animal in the "Wilpattu" section: a wild pig, "that repulsively exotic creature in his thick black body and the ridge of non-symmetrical hair running down his back" (ibid., p. 115). He also points out William Charles' description of the jungle in Sri Lanka: "Here are majestic palms with their towering stems and graceful foliage, the shoe flower, the eatable passion flower. Here the water lily swims the rivers with expanded leaves – a prince of aquatic

plants! The Aga-mula-naeti-wala, creeper without beginning or end, twines around trees and hangs in large festoons … and curious indeed these are from having neither leaves nor roots. Here is the winged thunbergia, the large snouted justicia, the mustard tree of Scripture with its succulent leaves and infinitesimal berries. The busy acacia with its sweet fragrance perfumes the dreary plains while other sad and un-named flowers sweeten the night with their blossoms which are shed in the dark (ibid., p. 69).

In the "Tabula Asiae" section, Ondaatje describes the shape of Ceylon and the changes which have taken place through the years. He points out that the maps on his "brother's wall in Toronto are the false maps. Old portraits of Ceylon. The result of sightings, glances from trading vessels, the theories of the sextant. The shapes differ so much they seem to be translations … growing from mythic shapes into eventual accuracy" (p. 51).

He indicates the island's changing form that shows the desire of conquerors and seduces: "all of Europe. The Portuguese. The Dutch. The English. And so its name changed, as well as its shape, – Serendip, Ratnapida ("island of gems"), Taprobane, Zeloan, Zeilan, Seyllan, Ceilon, and Ceylon – the wife of many marriages, courted by invaders who stepped ashore and claimed everything with the power of their sword or bible or language" (ibid., p. 51).

Clearly, Ondaatje has recognized the power of agency which is the power of the colonizer. Therefore, he emphasizes the power of representation in most of his discussions as he mentions the old poetry of Sri Lanka's poet Lakdasa Wikkramasinha, which is entitled "Don't Talk to Me about Matisse." It is a political poem in which Wikkramasinha condemns colonization; it is a tract of political representation which Ondaatje (1993, p. 72) includes it in his text to condemn the colonization of his community: "Don't talk to me about Matisse … the European style of 1900, the tradition of the studio where the nude woman reclines forever on a sheet of blood. Talk to me instead of the culture generally – how the murderers were sustained by the beauty robbed of savages: to our remote villages the painters came, and our white-washed mud-huts were splattered with gunfire".

Ondaatje is influenced by the poetry of Wikkramasinha when he describes the Sri Lankan peasants and villagers, so the power of Wikkramasinha's text has appeared in his words. Heble (1994, p. 195) observes that Ondaatje includes Wikkramasinha's poem to clarify that it is "a way of undermining the representational legitimacy of his project (doesn't anything that Ondaatje says about cultural and political phenomena in Sri Lanka inevitably run the risk of playing into the grid of Western thought and representation so sharply invoked and criticized by Wikkramasinha?) and of declaring his faith in imaginative understanding".

He makes the important point that his disconnection from the birthplace is not only geographical but also cultural and literary. Ondaatje (1993, p. 71) reveals that

he has never known famous voices who have had an influence on the Sri Lankan community. For instance, Ian Goonetileke is "a man who knows history" and helps him to restore a sense of history by emphasizing family and relatives. Linda Hutcheon points out "the map and the history and the poetry made a more social voice, became the balance of the family story, the other end of the seesaw" (Hutcheon & Richmond, 1990, p. 201). It is clear that his attempts use different strategies to be in the third space in-between the past/present and there/here at the same time. Nevertheless, his text is undermined by mixing different destabilizing styles through a representation of history in the narrative. Therefore, this method has made his process extremely complicated to reach his family's past. Ondaatje (1993, p. 168) has referred to people with whom he has conducted interviews as not having a rich memory. He has, therefore, acknowledged that "all these names may give an air of authenticity", but he "confesses that the book is not a history".

Through his exploration of the contact zone between past and present, Ondaatje (1993, p. 154) refers to the old novel which had lost its pages in Kegalle's church: "ants had attacked the novel thrown on the floor by the commode. A whole battalion was carrying one page away from its source, carrying the intimate print as if rolling a tablet away from him. He knelt down on the red tile, slowly, not wishing to disturb their work. It was page 189. He had not got that far in the book yet but he surrendered it to them".

Another example which relates to the guestbook in the Church is where he mentions "lifting the ancient pages and turning them over like old, skeletal leaves. The black script must have turned brown over a hundred years ago. The thick pages foxed and showing the destruction caused by silverfish, scars among the immaculate recordings of local history and formal signatures" (ibid., p. 54).

However, it is clear that these different old texts have corroded during the past time; these texts symbolize the "authenticity" and the "truth" which he seeks.

Ondaatje poses a paradoxical challenge in his text to inscribe his own form of family and place. His desire is to create his own story by himself; therefore, his text represents an unstableness between reality and fiction. However, at some moments, Ondaatje realizes that he wants to reach the truth. In the "Tropical Gossip" section, Ondaatje (1993, p. 44) poses questions: "Where is the intimate and truthful in all this? Teenager and Uncle. Husband and lover. A lost father in his solace. And why do I want to know of this privacy? After the cups of tea, coffee, public conversations ... I want to sit down with someone and talk with utter directness, want to talk to all the lost history like that deserving lover".

Further, in the "Lunch Conversation" section, he starts his conversation with his family by saying, "wait a minute, wait a minute! When did all this happen, I'm trying to get it straight ..." (ibid., p. 84). Although he asks about the truth, this conversation contains a mix of fragments that add nothing.

As his desire is to inscribe himself into the virtual landscape, Ondaatje (1993, p. 15) mentions a dream "in a jungle, hot, sweating" in Asia. He knows very well about "Asia. The name was a gasp from a dying mouth. An ancient word that had to be whispered, would never be used as a battle cry. The word sprawled. It had none of the clipped sound of Europe, America, Canada. The vowels took over, slept on the map with the S. I was running to Asia and everything would change" (ibid., p. 16).

Based on Ondaatje's view, "Asia" has a lack of specificity, despite its breadth. Therefore, his journey is an attempt to create his own image of Asia. This process is an attempt to recover the original culture and to restore (history, identity, and tradition). According to Hall (1998, p. 18-19) that "there is no way in which people of the word can act, can speak, can create, unless they come from someplace, they come from some history, they inherit certain cultural traditions ... the past is not only a position from which to speak, but it is also an absolutely necessary resource in what one has to say".

The text in *Running in the Family* is the restoration of cultural identity at a moment when the writer admits to the doubt. As Ondaatje (1993, p. 60) insists on exploring the self, he mentions that the text is the "last chance for the clear history of the self".

The process of writing text in Ondaatje's story is the process of writing himself into being. Therefore, he creates some moments in the text which are purely his invention. He clearly exaggerates his love for his family, particularly his father and grandmother, the love that he inherited from his ancestors. Ondaatje (1993, p. 102) notes in one of the stories in relation to his grandmother that "it was her last perfect journey. The new river in the street moved her right across the race course and park towards the bus station. As the light came up slowly she was being swirled fast, "floating" (as ever confident of surviving this too) alongside branches and leaves, the dawn starting to hit flamboyant trees as she slipped past them like a dark log, shoes lost, false breast lost. She was free as a fish, travelling faster than she had in years, fast as Vere's motorcycle, only now there was this roar around her. She overtook Jesus lizards that swam and ran in bursts over the water, she was surrounded by tired half-drowned fly-catchers screaming tack tack tack tack, frogmouths, nightjars forced to keep awake, brain-fever birds and their irritating ascending scales, snake eagles, scimitar-babblers, they rode the air around Lalla wishing to perch on her unable to alight on anything except what was moving".

Otherwise, Ondaatje's answer is different from the one he gave in Toronto that his grandmother's death was from "natural causes." In the text, there are several realistic moments where Ondaatje gives up the limits of the prospect. He enjoys referring to his family's stories, as they allow him to write the history of his family. With these stories, he fills the missing gap, where he adds his voice to that of others.

Overall, various stories related to Ondaatje's family represent the imagined moments of Ondaatje's writing; thus, these texts represent a link between tradition and postmodernism. They are Ondaatje's direct response to homeland and family, so these texts show his desire to support his connections to his family and his father. The process of writing involves Ondaatje seeking out his original culture by looking for the history of his ancestors in Sri Lanka. His text thus involves time, dates, and family events. In the section "Monsoon Notebook (i)," he shows that he emphasizes his sense of the landscape. Ondaatje (1993, p. 57) mentions that they are "driven through rainstorms that flood the streets for an hour and suddenly evaporate, where sweat falls in the path of this ballpoint, where the jackfruit rolls across your feet in the back of the jeep, where there are eighteen ways of describing the smell of a durian, where bullocks hold up traffic and steam after the rain".

In fact, Ondaatje's description is one of self-representation; it is an odd moment for Ondaatje himself. His negotiation and position have the opposite influence on events; they give him an opportunity to be in contact with what he reflects in the text. Ondaatje (1993, p. 157) points out "Midnight, this hand is the only thing moving. As discreetly and carefully, as whatever animals in the garden fold brown leaves into their mouths, visit the drain for water, or scale the broken glass that crowns the walls. Watch the hand move. Waiting for it to say something, to stumble casually on perception, the shape of an unknown thing".

In this passage, he makes it clear that one's surroundings are very important. In a paradoxical way, he describes the place, smells, and sights of Sri Lanka during the Canadian winter; therefore, his magic impression of Sri Lanka aids him in bringing himself to the place where he lives as Ondaatje (1993, p. 108) mentions that, "Now, and here, Canadian February, I write this in the kitchen and play that section of cassette to hear not just the peacocks but all the noises of the night behind them – inaudible then because they were always there like breath. In this silent room (with its own unheard hum of fridge, fluorescent light) there are these frogs loud as river, gruntings, the whistle of other birds brash and sleepy, but in that night so modest behind the peacocks they were unfocused by the brain – nothing more than darkness, all those sweet loud younger brothers of the night".

Obviously, Ondaatje is provided with a kind of experience that helps him to build the fundamental image of his direct sensory link to Sri Lanka in order to reach the "truth." He clarifies that the relation between the nature of the individual and his past has an effect on the self-representation in his writing. Busia (1998, p. 267) shows struggles that come together when she writes "an article for a collection on multicultural states. The trouble is, such reflections always assume so much: that we know who 'we' and 'us' and 'they' and 'them' are; that we know where and what 'home' is; that we have a sure sense of 'margins' and 'centres' to help us articulate the manifold implications of the movements of history that have

brought into being these multicultural states in which we all live. Yet, as I sit down to write, I must begin with the fragments, the bewildering geography of my life that is part of your legacy to me".

In the last section, "Last Morning," the writer symbolizes the body as a pot of memory in which he keeps all his memories of his family; thus, Ondaatje (1993, p. 166) says "my body must remember everything". At the same time, his memory returns him to the last moments in which he had left Ceylon with his mother "There is nothing in this view that could not be a hundred years old, that might not have been here when I left Ceylon at the age of eleven. My mother looks out of her Colombo window thinking of divorce, my father wakes after three days of alcohol, his body hardly able to move from the stiffness in muscles he cannot remember exerting. It is a morning scenery well known to my sister and her children who leave for swimming practice before dawn crossing the empty city in the Volks, passing the pockets of open shops and their lightbulb light that sell newspapers and food. I stood like this in the long mornings of my childhood unable to bear the wait till full daylight when I could go and visit the Peiris family down the road in Boralesgamuwa; the wonderful, long days I spent there with Paul and Lionel and Aunt Peggy who would casually object to my climbing all over her bookcases in my naked and dirty feet. Bookcases I stood under again this week which were full of signed first editions of poems by Neruda and Lawrence and George Keyt. All this was here before I dreamed of getting married, having children, wanting to write".

Thus, Ondaatje has reconstructed his past through negotiation with different sides of geographical spaces. Because the contemporary writings after waves of immigration tend to be real, they therefore emphasize experiences and real documents to re-evaluate the terms of ethnicity and genre (Kadar, 1995, p. 70). Angus (1997, p. 22) points out: "In the case of ethnic identity, which normally draws upon a sense of a traditional cultural unity inherited from the past, it is … the case that a contemporary politics of identity actively recover and rearticulates the received culture and projects it into the future".

Therefore, Ondaatje differs from a number of writers who believe that it is possible to make a link between experience and the voice of narration in immigrant autobiography because he uses the real text to integrate literature, history, and general experience in order to generate a complicated speech of self.

Kroetsch (2000, p. 35) points out how to make a connection to the past through his poem "Seed Catalogue," which he begins with "how do you grow a past / to live in / the absence of silkworms," and he asks about the absence faced by Prairie writers. The answers to his questions become clearer in the next lines of the poem to refer to the stages of growing the past. In Ondaatje's case, his attempt is to clarify how isolated individuals can tell a story of themselves to themselves about their past. As for the link between Kroetsch's questions and Ondaatje's view, they show that Kroetsch's desire is to fill the space with the past, while Ondaatje's view is to

recreate meaningful spaces in-between past and present to fill the gap. Therefore, he integrates his actual experience of the present with stories of an imaginary land based only on his memory of the past.

Conclusion

In *Running in the Family* Ondaatje recognizes his own text to inscribe himself in the history of "Ceylon." He focuses on the political representation of his voyage to deal with the past. Nevertheless, his attempt is to show the sense of belonging through his writing which might be filtered through the process of the integration between the past and the present. He creates his text to look for the self rather than providing any conclusion about identity, ethnicity, and belonging. Nevertheless, His experiences with building social text and generating and writing texts make the text a complex critical pattern, which shows an insistence on belonging and supports the narrative-historical experiment. His text needs an active reader to take part in gathering stories and tasting sounds, which represent cross-cultural identity.

Certainly, Ondaatje shows in several sections of his novel that he lacks a sense of belonging to his original homeland; thus, he shows in the text that he is in search of the self. In this text, he concentrates on the theme of autobiography in different strategies, building his narrative in certain ways by using different layers, showing maps, and choosing different inter-texts which connect to self, past, and homeland. In this kind of narration, memory is a form of fiction, and in this kind of text, memory is the fundamental document with which the narrator works. All Ondaatje's texts are equal in wealth, but, in this text, he creates a deeply dialogic text which carries his own voice, his family, his friends, and his relatives. Ondaatje creates the text of the fragmental foreground for contributing to the biographical or historiographic metafiction method that the reader can easily share. The extraordinary immediacy of the language of *Running in the Family*'s text has the appeal of gossip while pushing beyond the limitations of gossip at every turn.

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