**JOURNAL OF ENGLISH AS AN INTERNATIONAL LANGUAGE
VOLUME 12   ISSUE 2   DECEMBER 2017**

Foreword

Welcome to the December 2017 issue of the Journal of English as an International Language!

This issue is an avowal of EILJ's unflagging commitment to fostering a plurality of research issues and interests that are predicated on the pedagogies and practices of teaching in EIL. The papers presented in this issue articulate our authors' informed attempts to propose and disseminate conceptualizations that are commensurate with EILJ's declared mission of promoting locally appropriate, culturally sensitive and socially aligned methodologies and materials in EIL. We at EILJ believe that such on-going endeavours and exercises could add particular impetus to democratizing and dehegemonizing the use of English across the cultures of Asia and farther afield.

The joint paper, "A Contrastive Rhetoric Analysis of Three Court Decisions in American, Philippine, and Indonesian Englishes" by Hjalmar Punla Hernandez and Cecilia F. Genuino sets the tone and tenor for this issue. The paper attempts a cross-analysis of court decisions arrived at in American, Filipino, and Indonesian Englishes underscoring the perspective of world Englishes (WEs). Predicated on the contrastive genre analysis framework of Le, Kui, and Ying-Long (2008), and Cheng, Sin, and Li (2008), the paper investigates into three authentic court decisions employing the Kachruvian perspective of inner, outer, and expanding Englishes, namely, American English, Filipino English, and Indonesian English. The data analyzed three times in terms of (1) rhetorical segments and functions, and (2) moves and segments revealed that the three court decisions exhibited more similarities than differences, while the legal texts displayed certain moves and steps, in keeping with and distinct from each other. In light of this, cultures of the inner, outer, and expanding circles embedded in the discourse of the three court decisions assume particular noticeability and substance. The use of a qualitative methodology is meant to trigger a better understanding of the dynamics and fall-outs of the phenomenon under investigation. The authors are of the view and belief that legal cultures, when seen through the lens of WEs have the potential of uncovering the underlying roots of court decisions as legal genre. Needless to say that the paper can be perceived as one that is viable to linguists, English for legal purposes (ELP) instructors, and legal professionals from the inner, outer, and expanding circles of WEs, what is certain is that contrastive rhetoric (CR) studies can undoubtedly constitute an axiom in forensic linguistics (Le, Kui, & Ying-Long, 2008). Therefore, the authors advocate a conscious investment of effort to enrich the use and prevalence of a certain degree of critical CR in the WEs perspective.

The paper, "The Cooperation Principle in President Obama's Second Inaugural Chicago Speech", by Prosper Cirhuza and Euphrem Ngoy draws on the

issues and insights that pragmatics is well placed to offer. It is then, a pragmatic look into president Obama's inaugural speech of November 2012 in Chicago, which is more focused on the cooperative principle as seen through its maxims of quality, quantity, manner and relation. The paper breaks the full text of Obama's speech into its minimal communicative speech acts. This strategy, according to the authors can help analyze and understand how the whole speech is consistent with the cooperative maxims of Quality, Quantity, Relation and Manner. Being a corpus-based work, the study goes through the Rhetorical Criticism Approach with the Textual Analysis as the method at hand. The interpretation of findings convinces that President Obama's speech fascinated and positively affected his listeners' emotions because it was highly consistent with all the four maxims of Cooperation, that is, the speech was fundamentally cooperative in design. With these results we can confirm that the cooperative quality of a political speech is crucial to the audience's appreciation of the speaker and the value of his public talk. The paper in its search for this pragmatic guarantee through textual evidence uses a combination of strategies to analyze the textual segments of the speech. In light of this, the paper draws on the stimuli and synergies of techniques and procedures that accrue from a rhetorical criticism approach. This dynamizes the entire scope and orientation of the paper, while at the same time inviting its readership to draw and deduce relevance for the use of pragmatics in EIL determined practices and pedagogies. EILJ hopes that this paper will serve as a basis for initiating new theoretical applications predicated on pragmatics, which are akin to WE.

Hongmei Xu's paper, "The Ecology of English and Chinese in the English Language Policies and Practices of a Chinese University" explores the role of English and its relationship with Chinese in the English language policies and practices of the West University (WU), a Chinese university. The paper uses ecological language planning and policy as its conceptual mainstay to support and sustain an embedded single-case study design. The data drawn from documents, in-depth interviews, and observational field notes, in addition to questionnaires indicate that that the prevalence of English is most valued for its utilitarian value, in particular, the competitive advantage it offers to different stakeholders. Analysis of data further signposts the dynamic relationship between English and Chinese in the language ecology of the university, where the study has been conducted. The paper points to how English and Chinese are functionally linked in multiple ways and how this linkage is reflected in the perceptions of students and teachers and classroom practices at WU. The author notes that the learning of Chinese and English are perceived as mutually facilitative. In light of this, the author contends that both English and Western cultures are believed to exert a positive impact on Chinese culture. This, then should provide for classroom practices that link English and Chinese so as to support bilingual instruction, facilitating the "structured" functions (Mühlhäusler, 1997, p. 4) of English and Chinese in the ecosystem. As a re-

sult, the respective roles played by English and Chinese need not be replaced by each other. This could perhaps, as the author believes, help reestablish as well as reinforce the role and relevance of Chinese language and culture, which often tends to receive less attention, when the issue of learning English at WU becomes a much sought after agenda. Needless to say that WU is no exception to the reality of unequal power relations existing in the world behind the hegemonic power and use of English, the author argues, that it is possible to establish and facilitate functional links between English and Chinese in terms of their use for intragroup or intercultural communication, which can help engender a "layered functionality complementary ecology" for energizing these functional links and keeping the ecology balanced" (Mühlhäusler, 2000, p. 342). As possible evidences for such links are found in the practices at West University, the author urges the "powers that be" to invest more efforts and resources to augment research in this direction.

The joint paper entitled, "Past-Time Marker -ed in the Speech and Written Work of Indonesian English Majors" by Maskanah Mohammad Lotfie, Diyah Fitri Wulandari and Idha Nurhamidah presents a descriptive investigation on verbal and written use of past-time inflectional marker -ed by Indonesian English majors. Given that English has a foreign language status in Indonesia, acquiring grammatical forms specific to this study, the -ed inflection, is seen to be a daunting challenge to learners. Difficulties in acquiring as well as mastering the form is amplified manifold by cross-linguistic influences given that the majority of EFL learners in Indonesia speak Javanese as their first language and Indonesian as the second, while exposure to English and to this study's temporal target form has been rather minimal. The salience of -ed and its allomorphs have a definite role to play in determining the learners' usage of the form, with syllabic forms predicted to be perceptually more prominent and easier to acquire. Thirty undergraduates who were English Literature and English Education majors in Central Java participated in this investigation. The two-fold nature of the investigation, resulted in yielding data that were collated using two instruments: one elicited written usage of the target form while the other stimulated the participants' verbal output. Although there were missing -ed inflections where obligatory, results point to students' ease and discernible consistency in using the written form of the -ed temporal marker. On the contrary, the English majors generally used the default form of the regular verbs when -ed allomorphs [t], [d] and [ɪd] that were required in their speech. Instructional intervention, as suggested by the authors should help the English majors and others comparable to them (whose closer approximation to Standard English is of paramount importance), in completing their university academic programmes as well as in enhancing chances of their employability, which includes the teaching English. The issues and insights presented in the paper suggest that the English majors applied the required inflection in the written work more successfully than their verbal output. While the study reported is limited by its relatively small data size, it has yielded considerable

preliminary evidence on the use of the past-time marker -ed by Indonesian EFL students. However, as their ability in their written work is not commensurate with their ability to produce speech/spoken discourse suggests that formal instruction that will expose them and allow them to practise the form orally could benefit them substantially. As the participants involved in this study were English majors, such an instruction that encourages approximation to Standard English, for not only the specific case of -ed and its allomorphs but also other linguistic items, can facilitate their effective participation in academic courses as well as help them develop their competitive edge the future where the for job market . While the findings between the written and spoken usage of the Indonesian EFL learners and their interpretations are both intriguing and contradictory, they need to be further investigated and ideally with a larger data. Although EILJ views an approximation to Standard English runs counter to its declared mission of democratizing the use of English across cultures and continents, it respects the contested views of the authors and the intellectual rigour with which they have presented this paper.

Mami Orikasa's paper, "Effectiveness of implementing world Englishes in English language curricula", makes an informed attempt to investigate the effectiveness of pedagogies and practices predicated on world Englishes (WE) and EIL. The paper examines the effectiveness of exposure to world Englishes among undergraduate students at a public university in northeast Japan. The students (N = 48) watched web-based news and presentations regularly (e.g., NHK World) in English from home and abroad, featuring native and non-native English speakers, and responded to comprehension questions. Subsequent to 13 weeks of exposure, the students completed a survey questionnaire that used a 5-point Likert scale. Based on this, the author is of the view and belief that responses to closed-ended items in the survey appeared to be generally positive. It also appeared to contribute to a broadening of students' world view in that it enhanced their awareness of the varieties of English currently used around the world. In light of this, the author noted that the majority of the participants positively evaluated "good Japanese English" as a variety of international communication, contrary to those in previous studies which appeared to affirm and uphold the oft -touted notions of native speaker English as the standard form of the language as a non-negotiable in any academic English speech community. In light of this, the paper examines some key implications that can help us come to terms with the socio-cultural dimensions/sensibilities that assume a particular substance in the ways by which non-native speakers of English make sense of their self, realities and experiences of their world. Needless to say (as pointed out by the author) that recognition of Japanese English is an increasingly complex issue, the majority of the students featured in the study appeared to approve of Japanese English, given that this approval was quite verifiably related to their proficiency levels and identities as English users. Therefore, the author emphasizes the pressing need to provide opportunities for students that would expose them to a variety

of Englishes in order to investigate how their attitudes to, and perceptions of, Japanese English change over time on a continuous basis. The issues and insights presented in the paper uphold the use of authentic materials within world Englishes education as it can effectively raise awareness of the concept of EIL as well as the cultural and linguistic diversity of the English-speaking world among learners. In sum and spirit, the paper is an edifying affirmation of the primacy and immediacy of WE and the emergent heterogeneous global English speech communities that need to be reckoned with as a result.

The joint paper, "Individual factors in the motivation of learning L3 through L2 among minority students in Xinjiang", by Rayhangül Ahåt and Hori Shinya and employs the expectancy-value theory (EVT) model of achievement motivation, proposed by Eccles and her collaborators as a basis for exploring (1) the most influential effective variables in learning English as an L3 and (2) individual factors that influence the learners' L3 motivation. The Two hundred and ninety-nine student participants in this study, who voluntarily answered a motivational questionnaire and filled in a personal information sheet, were ethnic minority students of a one of the top universities and a prestigious middle school in the Xinjiang Uyghur Autonomous Region of China. Findings of the study state that L3 learners held higher utility and attainment value than intrinsic value and expectancy for success in their learning of L3. The authors are of the view that the age onset of bilingualism, L2 exposure and attitude towards L3 learning could account for the important individual factors related to their learners' L3 motivation. On the basis of their findings, the authors provide suggestions for an effective provision of L3 education, the medium of L3 instruction, as well as coming to terms with the influence of present bilingual education policy on teaching English as an L3 in the context of different bilingual teaching modes in the Xinjiang Uyghur Autonomous Region. More importantly, the study appears to recognize utility and attainment value as the most influential motivational variables that appear to have had the strongest influence on minority learners' L3 motivation. By the same token, the findings showed that L3 learners' expectancy is lower in comparison to other motivational variables of intrinsic, attainment and utility value even though they reached the L2 proficiency level set by educational authorities. While the authors believe that their study can have a number of important educational and policy-related implications, these can be specifically relevant to the different modes of bilingual education in Xinjiang. First, they underscore the importance of implementing a well-thought out bilingual education policy that is facilitative of the minority learners' L3 acquisition, and the dynamics of the medium of L3 instruction. Next, as English proficiency is not currently one of the mainstay evaluative measures in the pre- or post-university tests that all minority students must take if they wish to gain a place at university, they start learning it from the very beginning after they enter colleges. Therefore, the authors avow their faith in the efficacy of well formulated and established   as-

sessment policies that would help boost the minority students' L3 proficiency both before and after their graduation from the college.

The paper entitled, "Writing Instruction for English Learners in a Translingual Classroom by Sylvia Read and Michael Spooner signposts a translingual approach to teaching writing in the postsecondary EFL/EIL/ESL writing classroom. The authors make an informed use of three different strands of work on English writing research and instruction and attempt to harmonize them into a coherent whole. Drawing on five key principles of writing studies, they tease out some interesting insights and issues in order to develop their focus and orientation in the paper. They are of the view that while the work of researchers specifically in the writing of L2 speakers constitutes a contrasting perspective, some recent translingual scholarship appears to complicate the other two: the fundamental knowledge base of writing studies and research into the writing of L 2 speakers. As a way of triangulating the three different bodies of knowledge, the authors make use of two sample writing lessons. From an EIL classroom point of view, the authors are then able to identify the contrasting nature of the three key theoretical areas. However, they believe that these could be synthesized and synchronized around a finite set of principles that translate well into instruction and integrate well with what Li (2017) calls as an EIL paradigm. Pointing out that authentic writing is communicative and social, they eschew instructional strategies that are predicated on the mastery of language forms and conventions as such strategies neither help students develop themselves in their learning of English nor improve their ability to write well. In light of this, they argue that writing in the classroom should be primarily directed toward student interests rather than toward teacherly or programmatic convenience/ niceties as this can inspire a sumptuous affective investment in the student writer. Therefore, the authors advocate a stance of respect toward the intellectual resources of multilingual students, which would help design their classroom in ways that are negotiative, associative and facilitative in its character. Such a realization will not only help fine-tune writing instructional strategies aimed at optimizing the negotiation of meaning and authentic communication, but will also help synthesize the key issues of EIL with TESOL teacher preparation focused on the teaching of writing, which will then be seen as synonymous with writing instruction for English learners in a translingual classroom.

In closing, I wish to applaud the courage and clarity with which the contributing authors of this issue have showcased their alternate discourses of current reckoning in EIL. Such endeavours are pivotal to EILJ's declared mission of creating "a heterogeneous global English speech community, with a heterogeneous English and different modes of competence" (Canagarajah, 2006, p. 211). Therefore, I am certain that the agendas and insights discussed in this issue would serve as a lamp to all of us, who could otherwise be stranded in a "methodological wasteland of EIL". Read on!

Dr Sivakumar Sivasubramaniam
Chief Editor

A Contrastive Rhetoric Analysis of Three Court Decisions in American, Philippine, and Indonesian Englishes

Hjalmar Punla Hernandez
University of the Philippines Los Baños, Philippines

Cecilia F. Genuino
Philippine Normal University, Manila, Philippines

Abstract

The study was a humble attempt at cross-analyzing court decisions drafted in American, Philippine, and Indonesian Englishes in the perspective of world Englishes (WEs). Using the contrastive genre analysis framework of Le, Kui, and Ying-Long (2008), and Cheng, Sin, and Li (2008), the study examined three authentic court decisions taken from the Kachruvian inner, outer, and expanding Englishes, namely, American English, Philippine English, and Indonesian English. The data were analyzed three times in terms of (1) rhetorical segments and functions, and (2) moves and segments. In the level of rhetorical segments and functions, results revealed that (1) the three court decisions exhibited more similarities than differences. On the other hand, (2) the legal texts displayed certain moves and steps, regular with and distinct from each other. Furthermore, certain linguistic characteristics of the court decisions were also revealed. Cultures of the inner, outer, and expanding circles embedded in the discourse of the three court decisions were exposed. In conclusion, legal cultures through the lens of WEs have the potential of uncovering the underlying roots of court decisions as legal genre. It is, therefore, recommended that resilient initiatives in studying English for Legal Purposes (ELP) must be undertaken to thrive such field to a definite level of critical contrastive rhetoric with respect to WEs.

Keywords: Contrastive Rhetoric, Legal Texts, Court Decisions, World Englishes

Introduction

Contrastive Rhetoric (CR), more contemporarily known as Intercultural Rhetoric (IR), has been a trend in studies of second language writing since Kaplan in 1966 instigated the investigation of the rhetorical conventions of written texts. For more than 30 years, CR has focused on exploring cultural variations between written discourse regularities that possibly influence writing in a second language (L2) (Connor, 1996; Kubota & Lehner, 2004). In brief, CR hypothesizes that 1. each culture imbibes unique rhetorical patterns, and 2. rhetorical patterns of writers' first language (L1) obstruct with their L2 writing (Grabe & Kaplan 1989; Kaplan, 1966, 1972, 1988; Kubota & Lehner, 2004). Though there have been numerous contrastive rhetoric analyses on written academic discourse (e.g., argumentative essays) and professional communication (e.g., electronic mails, and application letters), there have been a dearth of contrastive rhetoric studies on legal genres. Cheng, Sin, and Li (2008) actually assert the need to study court decisions or judgments while the language of law has been a favorite topic for investigation by both legalists and linguists for just more than a decade (Mazzi, 2011). For the legal profession, court decisions have been one of the most vital legal documents (Cheng, Sin, & Li, 2008) as they reveal judgments to varieties of legal cases.

Court decisions, as texts in English for Legal Purposes (ELP), exhibit different discourse structures, message patterns, communicative goals, and discourse organization (Le, Kui, Ying-Long, 2008) regardless of the cultures they belong. However, they should not be restricted to the language itself but extend on their cultural underpinnings. Grounded on the CR tradition, this paper is a humble attempt at analyzing the rhetoric of court decisions of three distinctive cultures in three different varieties of English, that is, American English, Philippine English, and Indonesian English. Specifically, the study examines the court decisions' rhetorical segments and functions, and moves and steps vis-à-vis their underlying cultures.

Review of related literature

Contrastive rhetoric, Legal system, and World Englishes

Connor (1996) posits that contrastive rhetoricians uphold that L2 writers transfer their L1 textual and rhetorical strategies when writing in the L2, and that the expectations of various discourse communities are the main causes for cross-cultural differences in styles of writing. Writing styles from the east to the west regions of the world are disparate. As Kaplan (1966) postulates, different languages and their cultures have distinct thought patterns. Schematically, English discourse has a straight line, while other languages such as Semitic has a zigzag structure, Oriental discourse is in spiral direction, and Romance as well as Russian discourse has considerably crisscross pattern. A. Bhatia and V. K. Bhatia (2011) once remark that any culture whether professional or social shapes not only the manner that professional and disciplinary texts are written and understood but also pertains to professional practices in which it is embedded. Regarding legal communities, there exists a demarcation about the major divisions of legal systems namely, the Common Law and the Civil Law. In common law, the main ground of authority is case law or "judge-made" law in forms like judicial opinions. Judges function as arbitrators as they can moderate lawyers' proceedings, for example. Whereas in civil law regions, codified laws prevail, and a judge's roles focus on analyzing truths, investigating witnesses, and applying codified law in their findings (Syam, 2014). Each legal system of different countries may be alike in one aspect or another; however, no systems can be exactly the same. Each system imbibes the necessities, culture, and traditions a region epitomizes (Syam, 2014). Adopted from England, the American legal system is primarily a Common Law country, following the principles of *Stare Decisis,* that is, decisions of higher courts or precedents (Farley, 2010; LexisNexis, 2016) to ensure consistency and predictability (Farley, 2010). On the other hand, the Philippine legal system is a hybrid of the two laws plus Mohammedan Law (Carlota, 2010; Law Teacher, 2016; Mahy & Sale, 2014). This article, however, does not cover the latter law as it classifies dominantly the Indonesian legal tradition. Being colonized by America and Spain, the Philippines' Common Law (i.e. public law, constitutional law, administrative law, and public office law) is substantially patterned to that of America, while its Civil Law (i.e. law on individuals, family, obligations, contracts, and succession) is based on the tradition of Spain. Similarly, the Indonesian legal system is a confluence of three inheritance law systems: Adat (customary) Law, Islamic Law, and Western Law. Before the Dutch occupation, the system of Adat law, unwritten and the oldest, is grounded on the unique "collectivism values" and norms of local Indonesian community governing the aspects of personal conduct from birth to death, and covering criminal, civil, constitutional, maritime laws, amputation, summoned torture, and death (Encylopaedia Bri-

tannica, 1998). Islamic Law is based on al Qur'an (the holy book of Islam), and hadis (words, and acts of Prophet Mohammed). The law is dominated by three schools: Syafi'i's system (patrilineal), Hazairin's system (bilateral), and Compilation of Islamic Law (written by Indonesian ulama and experts). Lastly, the Western or Civil Law is a norm of heritage according to Burgerlijk Wetboek as legal product of Dutch régime when it colonized Indonesia. The legal systems of these countries determine their dominant legal traditions. America's legal tradition is Common Law, while other two have mixed legal traditions. The Philippines has both Common and Civil Law tradition, and Indonesia has customary, Muslim, and civil traditions. Such legal traditions can be communicated through the language and rhetoric of court decisions by which legal power and control can be reflected (Cheng, 2010).

With the economic modernizations and the developing connection of legal affairs among nations (Cheng, Sin, & Li, 2008), communicating court decisions whether to the public or people involved in a case demands the use of English as the international language (EIL) or world Englishes (WEs). WEs is the notion that socio-culturally there exist varieties of English in different countries across the globe unlike the mono-centric concept that native English varieties are the only norms. Its scholarship points towards the plurality of English and writing style around the globe that contradicts "standard" English (Khadka, 2012). While there are WEs paradigms, Braj Kachru's model of concentric circles best suits CR as both underlie social and cultural facets. The model is divided into three regions of the world: (1) *Inner Circle Region* (e.g. UK, USA, Canada, Australia, New Zealand) (Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008; Y. Kachru, 1988) where English is used as native language (ENL) and regarded as the standard; (2) *Outer Circle Region* (e.g. Bangladesh, Ghana, India, Kenya, Malaysia, Nigeria, Pakistan, the Philippines, Singapore, Sri Lanka, Tanzania, Zambia) where English is a second language (ESL), nativized or indigenized, and institutionalized. Being a product of post-colonization, English in the said countries is influenced by the non-native speakers' "regional and social identity" (Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008, p. 200) that undergoes acculturation of English to their languages, settings, and sociopolitical undertakings (Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008). It is instrumental in education, business, communication, media, and so on; and (3) *Expanding Circle Region* (e.g. China, Egypt, Indonesia, Israel, Japan, Korea, Nepal, Saudi Arabia, Taiwan, USSR, Zimbabwe) (Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008; Y. Kachru, 1988) where English is a foreign language (EFL) and treated as additional but instrumental. According to Y. Kachru (1997), inner circle writing is characterized by directness, while outer and expanding circle discourses are actually indirect. Yajun and Zhou (2006) argue on a "gap" which has restrained recent research into CR and WEs. This may be the unexplored or less explored lacuna on the relationship between the cultures underpinning the inner, outer, and expanding circles and various writings of these regions. Being the fast-pacing lingua franca of the academics, business, science, and media, English is also the language of law especially in the inner and outer circles where English is ENL and ESL, but infrequently in expanding circle where English is EFL. Regardless of the latter, CR analysis of court decisions highlights the likelihood of revealing the significance of the socio-cultural and legal traditions in the three Kachruvian circles towards court decision in legal communities. In fact, there are few CR studies mainly in the disciplines of language and law (Cheng, Sin, & Li, 2008) or more specifically, ELP.

Contrastive genre analysis and processing Legal texts

Being a sub-kind of English for Specific Purposes (ESP), ELP is not a type of English for Academic Purposes (EAP), but English for Occupational Purposes (EOP). Different elements of language are interspersed in the study of ESP. Some of which are syntax, lexicon, and genre analysis. Genre analysis has been a thriving and controlling means of examining and deciphering texts in cross or inter-disciplinary fields. As emphasized by Le, Kui, and Ying-Ling (2008), genre analysis is an "indispensable and feasible means employed in the analysis of court judgment, a discourse of professional communication and for specific purposes" (p. 51). It is the study of the linguistic and structural patterns of text types and the role they portray in a discourse community (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998). It treats language as a tool for achieving functional goals. Genre analysis started in ESP with Swales' (1981, 1990) work on the introduction of academic articles where he examined the introduction section of academic articles and revealed that the majority of them conformed a three-move pattern that he later adapted by including probable sub-moves: (1) Establishing a research territory, (2) Establishing a niche, and (3) Occupying the niche (Swales & Feak, 2012). More than this, Swales (1990) also analyzed other genres in other fields such as linguistics, and literature to name a few. Examining the socio-cultural functions of disciplinary genres has been promising in ELP. Take for instance Howe (1993) who analyzed "problem question" in law and the topographies of scripts from contract, criminal, and public laws. Bhatia (1993), moreover, explored the law cases from different aspects namely, communicative purpose and structural interpretation. From a structural ground, Bowles (1995) revealed his analysis of law reports. Genre analysis confirms textuality and it puts texts within social and textual contexts, and specific cultural contexts. As well as it serves to situate texts in historical contexts, genre analysis provides an opportunity to identify the comparisons and contrasts across written compositions.

Processing texts in ELP like court decisions involves four knowledge sources to understanding written discourse. First is explicit linguistic material, i.e. vocabulary, grammar, and transitions). Second are world knowledge structures, i.e. generic and specific knowledge structures. Third are the goals of the readers, i.e. to be informed, to cite, and so on, and last is the pragmatic context of communication (Graesser & Clark, 1985). Additionally, it is also vital that legal texts have schematic structure for the purpose of understanding broad texts, rhetorical devices that show the link between texts and/or sentences. Common themes are also used in order to see the close connections between generic structure and content. Court decisions demonstrate the idiosyncratic generic structures and message regularities. To facilitate the efficiency of working with legal documents and increase accuracy of processing, one should have the knowledge of the structure of legal texts (Cheng, Sin, & Li, 2008).

Related studies on Legal discourse

Studies of CR and legal discourse as mentioned a while ago are scarce. This section outlines several studies concerning legal discourse that to a relative extent are worthy of reference for the present study. Correo (2016) attempted at proving that the writers of the Philippine Supreme Courts Appellate Decisions (SCADs) shape their discourse in the field of legal language. Their aim is actually to respond communicatively to the necessity for mediation in legal cases through locating the distribution of linguistic and cognitive resources demonstrated in the court decisions. Correo combined Cas-

tro's (1991) and Bhatia's (1993) frameworks on cognitive structuring of court decisions, Halliday and Matthiessen's (2000) clause model, Huang's (2007) deixis model, and Hyland's (2007) code glossing model as complementary research pods. Based on the corpus composed of ten SCADs, results confirmed the moves allocated in Castro's (1991) and Bhatia's (1993) models. The findings also found emerging moves and sub-moves that were absent in previous studies. In addition, the highly complex sentences in some sections of the SCADs denoted clarity and specificity. Due to linearity, and repetitive density, they also manifest the innate cognitive aspect of the SCADs. In terms of deictic analysis, the participants and their roles in the legal discourse community where the SCADs belong were revealed. To reformulate the message, the pragmatic examination ratified elaborations of coding glosses used by the SCADs.

On the other hand, Cheng (2010) focused on Chinese court judgments as form of judicial discourse. The study examined the discursive representation of judicial thinking, and it used an eclectic approach (i.e. a combination of multidimensional (Bhatia, 2004), discourse (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975), and generic structure potential (Halliday & Hasan, 1989; Hasan, 1984) to take court judgments as complex signs, and use to analyze these signs being used in different discourse sub-communities. The findings can be summarized into three. (1) Court decisions in Taiwan and Mainland China demonstrate consistent pattern as far as generic structure and generic structure potential level, while Hong Kong court decisions are more different in terms of actual generic structure, and more intricate in terms of generic structure potential. This can be a reflection of power and control in judicial discourse of the three jurisdictions. (2) A study of the disparities of a particular genre within and across jurisdiction (culture) and jurisdictions (cultures) can leave the notion of temporality and spatiality. (3) The courts in Mainland China and Taiwan speak with unified institutional voice without disagreements. As reflected in agreeing and disagreeing opinions, the courts in Hong Kong speak both with a combined voice and with specific voices.

In addition, Le, Kui, and Ying-Long (2008) examined the linguistic characteristics, moves and rhetoric of two court decisions: Chinese and American, while having the goal of specifying the rhetorical preferences that are characteristics of "standard" judgments. One hundred court decisions in Chinese and English were analyzed using contrastive genre analysis. The English court decisions had an average size of 1000 to 4000 words with two to eight pages, while the Chinese ones had 3000 to 7000 words from three to seven pages. Using quantitative and qualitative approaches with the support of literature review and an interview of five jurists, results were realized. The moves of American court decisions are comprised of Move 1 (Heading), Move 2 (Summary), Move 3 (Facts and issues in dispute), Move 4 (Legislation applied), Move 5 (Arguments/Discussion), and Move 6 (Decision/Conclusion). Conversely, the moves of Chinese court decisions are longer in that they have Move 1 (Heading), Move 2 (Summary), Move 3 (Facts and evidence), Move 4 (Grounds of judgment), Move 5 (The results of judgment), Move 6 (The time limit for appeal and the competent appellant court), and Move 7 (Signature by the judge(s) and the recording clerk, and seal by the people's court). In terms of rhetorical segments and functional analysis, both American and Chinese documents use Heading, Introduction, and Contexts/Facts (Facts Ascertained) that are all informative, Analysis (Legal Analysis) which is expressive, and Decision/Conclusion that is performative or regulatory. They are dissimilar in terms of Jurisdiction (as it is optional) which is informative, Contexts/Facts (Facts Elucidated) that is also informative, Analysis (Statues) which is personal, and Judge's Postcript (as it is optional) that is evocative or expressive.

Similarly, Cheng, Sin, and Li (2008) analyzed the linguistic, moves, and rhetorical characteristics of the same type of court decisions. Examining 100 American and Chinese court decisions using genre analysis, findings revealed that court decisions have that basic act of adjudicating; thus, they are performative in terms of speech acts, and that decisions are declarative and justificatory. That is, the judge actually convinces the readers (e.g. professional and academic peers) of the legitimacy of his argument. A court decision is presented through various rhetorical roles: Heading (Informative), Introduction (Informative), Jurisdiction (optional in American court decisions) (Informative), Context/Facts (Informative), Analysis (Ratio Decidendi) (Expressive or personal), Decision/Conclusion (Performative/regulatory), and Judge's Postcript (Optional) (Evocative/expressive/personal), and Obiter Dictum. (Evocative/expressive/personal/persuasive). Their moves are different as American is more succinct while the Chinese is longer. Chinese has seven moves (i.e. Heading, Summary, Facts and Evidence, Grounds of Judgment, The Results of Judgment, The Time Limit for Appeal and the Competent Appellant Court, and Signature by the Judge(s) and the Recording Clerk, and Seal by the People's Court, while American has five namely Heading, Summary, Background, Discussion, and Conclusion.

Concluded that the discursive structure of focusing on various power causes can be traced in social construction, Cheng (2012) dealt with the designation in court judgments from distinct perspectives: the forms, authorial voices of appellate judgments, and attribution to the sources of law. Accordingly, Mainland China and Taiwan's appellate judgments were all from the judgment of the court. On the other hand, single-opinion and multiple-opinion judgments were discovered as Hong Kong's appellate judgments. In addition, only institutional self-references were found in the appellate judgments of Mainland China and Taiwan. Moreover, more opposing forms in terms of sources of law were found in Hong Kong in contrast with mainland China and Taiwan. Cheng, therefore, argues that a single judge's power in Hong Kong is foregrounded, and the court is backgrounded. Contrastingly, one can only hear the voices of the court rather than those of the individual judges in the Mainland China and Taiwan's judgments.

Focused on discourse markers, Mazzi (2011) carried out a corpus-based analysis of the open-ended category of reformulation markers as outstanding discursive items of judicial discourse in two corpora of authentic judgments issued by two different courts, namely, the Court of Justice of the European Communities and Ireland's Supreme Court. The study, being a qualitative and quantitative research, revealed that reformulation markers such as "first", "second", "that is", "namely", "rather", "instead", "in order" words, "notably", "i.e.", and "this means tend to activate a variety of discursive configurations across the two courts, that reformulation fortifies the quality of both judicial narrative as is clear from their clarification of the normative background and specification of the framework of disputes. In terms of reformulation markers' usefulness in judicial argument, judges can typify, polish or mark reported arguments or they can make their thinking stronger and more resounding.

In synthesis, what may be unarticulated in the previous studies was the interaction of culture and court decisions in the world Englishes perspective. Given this dispute along with the fact that there is little research literature as far as CR studies of language and law, and the belief that there exists a lack of studies of CR of court decisions, this paper humbly attempts at investigating answers to the following questions.

Research questions

1. What rhetorical segments and functions can be identified in the three court decisions?
2. What moves and steps can be determined in the three court decisions?

Answers to the questions above have to be supported by socio-cultural artifacts. In terms of significance, the current paper is viewed valuable to linguists, ELP instructors, and legal professionals from the inner, outer, and expanding circles. Linguists who aspire exploring the connection between the IR of language and law may be given insights upon studying this area. In addition, ELP instructors may be provided ideas on what to teach as far as the rhetoric of court decisions and their underlying culture are concerned. Finally, legal professionals such as judges may learn bits and pieces of the language behavior of court decisions.

Methodology

Research design

The study used a descriptive-qualitative research design cross-analyzing the rhetorical segments and functions, and moves and steps with respect to the legal cultures/traditions that are corresponding them.

Sources of data/Corpus of the study

The study examined three different court decisions from the inner, outer, and expanding circles, i.e. Supreme Court decisions in American, Philippine, and Indonesian Englishes. Through random selection, they were downloaded online in the following websites: https://www.supremecourt.gov/ for the court decision in American English; http://sc.judiciary.gov.ph/ for Philippine English; and https://www.mahkamahagung.go.id/en for Indonesian English. The legal texts' nature as Court decision was considered to check the data's intertextuality; thus, they meet the criterion, *Tertium comparationis,* which according to Connor (2004, as cited in Mabuan, 2017) pertains to the genre of comparison that is significant in determining corpora, choosing textual elements, and identifying linguistic topographies. All of them are sub-legislative statements, too (Hernandez, 2017). Originally, all of them were downloaded in portable document file (pdf); thus, the number of words cannot be determined, only their pages can be used to identify their length. The American corpus contains 77 pages. The Philippine corpus has 42 pages, while the Indonesian corpus has 176 pages respectively. Only three court decisions were analyzed as the study is, again, a modest effort at investigating the rhetoric of court decisions across and from the three Kachruvian circles.

Data coding/Framework of analysis

Genre analysis was used to cross-examine/analyze the three court judgments. By this framework, the researcher was able to cross-examine the moves and steps, and rhetorical segments and functions of the American, Philippine, and Indonesian court decisions. Moreover, legal cultures or traditions of the three from the research literature were considered to make the findings and analysis more substantial, objective, and thorough.

The framework used for analyzing the data was that of Le, Kui, and Ying-Long (2008) and Cheng, Sin, and Li (2008). Their framework exhibits the moves and steps, and rhetorical segments and functions of court judgments. The researcher had taken three rounds of analysis. Specifically, moves and steps, and rhetorical segments and functions of court decisions (Le, Kui, & Ying-Long, 2008; Cheng, Sin, & Li, 2008) are illustrated as follows.

Table 1
Moves of Court decisions

American	Move	Chinese
Heading	1	Heading
(Step 1 Court;		(Step 1 Headline;
Step 2 Written case no.;		Step 2 Written judgment no.;
Step 3 Parties;		Step 3 Parties)
Step 4 Judges)		
Summary	2	Summary
Facts and issues in dispute	3	Facts and evidence
		(Step 1 The facts, evidence and reasons by plaintiff or prosecutor;
		Step 2 The facts, evidence and reasons by defendant)
Legislation applied	4	Grounds of judgment
		(Step 1 The facts and evidence established by the court
		Step 2 The reasons for judgment
		Step 3 The law applied)
Arguments/Discussion	5	The results of judgment
Decision/Conclusion	6	The time limit for appeal and the competent appellant court.
N/A	7	Signature by the judge(s) and the recording clerk, and seal by the people's court.

Note: The table above illustrates Cheng, Sin, and Li's (2008) move analysis of American and Chinese's decisions by court. It can be observed that the moves of Chinese court decision are longer than that of the American.

Table 2
Rhetorical segments and functions of Court decisions

Rhetorical Segments	Functions	Linguistic Markers	Content
Heading	Informative	decision, judgment, reason, order; reasons for or- der, reasons	Making a brief summary of jurisdiction, decision time, title of proceeding, nature of the case the parties involved, etc.
Introduction	Informative	introduction, summary	Describing the situation before the introduction, summary court and answers these questions:

				who (the parties) did what (facts) to whom and how the court has dealt with the case.
Jurisdiction		Informative	This Court has jurisdiction to consider the merits, Before this Court is a Petition	Expressing the Court's authority of handling or administer a case
Context/Facts	Facts Elucidated Facts Ascertained	Informative	facts, background; The factual background, agreed statement of facts	Explaining the facts in chronological order, or by description. It might include the disputed facts, the agreed facts and the found facts.
Analysis	Legal Analysis	Expressive/personal/inform ative (binding)	analysis, discussion, arguments	To describe the comments or arguments of the judge the application of the law to
Decision/Conclusion		Performative/ regulatory	conclusion, disposition, costs, revert, remand, affirm	Expressing the final judgment disposition or decision made by the court and specifying

Note: Adapted from Le, Kui, and Ying-Long (2008) and Cheng, Sin, and Li's (2008), Table 2 shows the rhetorical segments and functions of court decisions with their respective linguistic markers and specific content.

Results and discussion

The findings of the study are outlined in this section. Where applicable, the current results will be compared and/or contrasted with the concepts in the related literature and findings revealed in the previous studies.

Rhetorical segments and functions

It is evident that in Table 3 the said legal documents possess more similar rhe- torical segments than different ones. In terms of macro-structure, their huge similari- ties are the Heading, Introduction, Jurisdiction, Context/Fats, Analysis, and Decision/Conclusion. These confirm the findings of Le, Kui, and Ying-Long (2008) and Cheng, Sin, and Li's (2008), and Cheng (2010) who found that court decisions in Taiwan and Mainland China demonstrate consistent pattern in terms of generic structure and generic structure potential level. It can be deduced that court decisions from the inner and outer circles of Kachru's WEs model namely American English and Philippine English are almost the same as far as rhetorical segments are concerned. This commonness may be traced to the parallel legal traditions that America and the Philippines have, brought by the American occupation to the latter. When America colonized the Philippines, the latter inherited significant inheritance including political laws (Sinco, 1962), Tydings-MacDuffie Law of 1934, for example, that granted the Philippines certain American common law principles. An outer circle English such as Philippine English can be construed as influenced by the legal culture in

American English from the inner circle region. This socio-cultural link between the two cannot be generalized as the Philippine legal system is also characterized by Civil Law that is based on Spain that also conquered the Philippines. However, one of the America's greatest contributions is the English language that continues to occupy the legislation discourse (Madrunio, 2013), oral or written, in the Philippines. It can be said that it is the Anglo-American legal tradition that has further influenced the legal written discourse in the country.

Table 3
Summary of the rhetorical segments of the three Court decisions

Rhetorical Segment	American English		Philippine English		Indonesian English	
1	Heading		Heading		Heading	
2	Introduction		Introduction/Jurisdiction		Introduction	
3	Jurisdiction		Context/Facts	Facts Elucidated Facts Ascertained	Jurisdiction	
4	Context/Facts	Facts Elucidated	Analysis	Legal Analysis	Context/Facts	Facts Elucidated
		Facts Ascertained		Statutes		Facts Ascertained
5	Analysis	Legal Analysis	Decision/Conclusion		Analysis	Legal Analysis
		Statutes				Statutes
6	Decision/Conclusion		Judge's Certification		Decision/Conclusion	
7	Obiter Dictum					

Note: Table 3 shows the summary of the rhetorical segments of course decisions in American, Philippine, and Indonesian Englishes.

On the other hand, Orts (2015) argues that Common Law is written based upon precedents as reflected by *stare decisis,* that is, the law must be applied according to earlier decisions and not on codes. Culturally, the judges who draft the court decision influence and play as rule-creators, and provide *ratio decidendi* (written in the Conclusion/Decision), an important component of their decisions embodying the core or binding power of their upcoming legal decisions (Cross & Harris, 1991) in the same or inferior court (Le, Kui, & Ying-Long, 2008). As this is so, the cognitive pattern for writing court decisions in American English and Philippine English can be interpreted as inductive since there is no one law previously drafted; thus, it is the language that is functional for the Common Law. Typically, *ratio decidendi* is associated with the use of first person plural pronoun (Le, Kui, & Ying-Long, 2008); however, the analyzed court decision in American English uses first person singular pronoun as shown below.

To the extent that the Court takes the position that the question of same-sex marriage should be resolved primarily at the state level, I wholeheartedly agree. I hope that the Court will ultimately permit the people of each State to decide this question for themselves. Unless the Court is willing to allow this to

occur, the whiffs of federalism in the today's opinion of the Court will soon be scattered to the wind.

The first person singular pronoun in the two instances above indicates individuality and originality as main traits of Western writing tradition (Y. Kachu, 1997) unlike other countries like China whose legal tradition is collective as symbolized by the use of third person plural pronoun, *We*. Likewise, legal writing in the inner circle English may be viewed as individualist or judges' decision may be based on individual court decision. On the contrary, the succeeding one below is taken from the court decision in Philippine English.

> The <u>Court DECLARES</u> the clustering of nominees by the <u>Judicial and Bar Council</u> UNCONSTITUTIONAL, and the appointments of respondents Associate Justices Michael Frederick L. Musngi and Geraldine Faith A. Econg, together with the four other newly-appointed Associate Justices of the Sandiganbayan, as VALID. The <u>Court</u> further DENIES the Motion for Intervention of the Judicial and Bar Council in the present Petition, but **ORDERS** the Clerk of Court En Banc to docket as a separate administrative matter…

The one above uses a lexical reference such as Court and Judicial and Bar Council that are both collective nouns. Therefore, the Philippine English court judgments culturally use the collective terms of address pertaining to panel or judge. This analysis is somehow similar with Le, Kui, and Ying-Long's (2008) claim that court decisions in China use lexical reference, but China is in the expanding circle and not in the outer circle like the Philippines. The Indonesian court decision also uses *ratio decidendi* with lexical reference in the third person noun, denoting collective court decision and not individualist, as in the example below.

> Based on the aforementioned considerations of facts and laws, the <u>Court</u> has come to the following conclusions:
>
> [4.1] The <u>Court</u> has authority to hear the petition a quo;
>
> [4.2] The Petitioner has legal standing to file the petition a quo;
> [4.3] The Petitioner's arguments are legally founded in part;
> Based on the State of the Republic of Indonesia Year 1945, Law Number 24 Year 2003 concerning the <u>Court</u> as amended by Law Number 8 Year 2011…

Like and unlike the study of Le, Kui, and Ying-Long (2008), *obiter dictum,* that is, an unessential statement without any binding precedent was found in the court decision in American English but not in Philippine English and Indonesian English. *Obiter dictum* is associated with first person singular pronoun as shown in the extract below that is based on the American court decision.

> For these reasons, <u>I</u> would hold that §3 of DOMA does not violate the Fifth Amendment. <u>I</u> respectfully dissent.

What may be unique in the court decision in Philippine English is the statement of certification that cannot be considered as *obiter dictum.* In the Philippines, it is

common that certifications signed by authorities such as judge, attorney or lawyer are necessary to strengthen an individual's declared statements and liabilities or any other legal matters. Certifications are a legal tradition in the Philippines.

Albeit Indonesia's tripartite legal system, i.e., customary, Muslim, and civil laws, the rhetorical segments of the court decision in Indonesian English are not in any way different from the rhetoric of court judgments in American and Philippine Englishes as based on the analysis. Indonesia was never colonized by the UK or USA and English is not used in law courts or has special role in the Indonesian legislation. According to Simatupang (1999), however, English is viewed as the most valuable foreign language in Indonesia. Indonesian court decisions are culturally written not in English but Bahasa Indonesia. Its rhetoric may be attributed to court decisions as a legal genre having essential parts. One positive note though, since Indonesian law particularly Civil Law is delineated from the Dutch, its court judgment usually mentions codes (World Bank Toolkit, 2006) as in the following example.

In their petition, the Petitioners filed review on <u>Article 1 point 6, Article 4 paragraph (3), Article 5, Article 67 of Forestry Law</u>;
- Whereas provision of <u>Article 1 point 6 of Forestry Law reads</u>: "Customary forest is a state forest situated in indigenous peoples area";
- Whereas Article 4 paragraph (3) of Forestry Law reads:
Forest concession by the state shall remain taking into account rights of indigenous peoples if any and its existence is acknowledged and not contradictory to national interest";...

On the other hand, Tables 4-6 show the separate rhetorical segments and functions of court decisions in the three varieties of English. The findings below are almost synonymous to the report of Le, Kui, and Ying-Long (2008) and Cheng, Sin, and Li's (2008).

Table 4
Rhetorical segments and functions of court decision in American English

Rhetorical Segments		Functions
Heading		Informative
Introduction		Informative
Jurisdiction		Informative
Context/Facts	Facts Elucidated	Informative
	Facts Ascertained	
Analysis	Legal Analysis	Expressive/personal/informative (binding)
Decision/Conclusion		Performative/regulatory
Judge's Postscript		Evocative/expressive

Note 4: Table 4 shows the summary of the rhetorical segments of course decisions in American English.

All the first four rhetorical segments, i.e. Heading, Introduction, Jurisdiction, Context/Facts (Elucidated or Ascertained) function as informative. Analysis that is a legal binding is expressive/personal and even informative. Regarding the latter, the study found that legal analysis is also informative through providing the reader like the researcher certain written laws that support particular arguments or claims in the court decision in American English. Lastly, Decision itself is regulatory or performative, and Judge's Postscript is evocative as well as expressive.

Table 5
Rhetorical segments and functions of court decision in Philippine English

Rhetorical Segments		Functions
Heading		Informative
Introduction/Jurisdiction		Informative
Context/Facts (Factual Antecedents)	Facts Elucidated Facts Ascertained	Informative
Analysis	Legal Analysis (Arguments of the Petitioners and Respondents) Statutes (Ruling of the Court)	Expressive/personal/persuasive (binding)
Decision/Conclusion		Performative/regulatory
Judge's Certification		Informative/ expressive/personal

Note: Table 5 shows the summary of the rhetorical segments of course decisions in Philippine English.

In the Philippine English court decision, the Introduction can be considered as the Jurisdiction. Therefore, they can operate as one. Other rhetorical segments and functions are actually alike except for Judge's Certification that was not evident in the American and Indonesian court decisions. The said segment is informative, expres- sive, and personal. It is informative as it informs what it is based on a legal code, is expressive as it reflects the judge's thoughts, and personal as it uses the first person singular *I*. It is exemplified as follows.

CERTIFICATION

Pursuant to Article VIII, Section 13 of the Constitution, I certify that the conclusions in the above Decision had been reached in consultation before the case was assigned to the writer of the opinion of the Court.

Table 6
Rhetorical segments and functions of court decision in Indonesian English

Rhetorical Segments		Functions
Heading		Informative
Introduction (Lengthy)		Informative
Jurisdiction (Authority of the Constitutional Court)		Informative
Context/Facts (Legal Standing and Constitutional Interest of Petitioners; Capacity of Petitioners; Grounds for Petition; Petition for Legislation; Petitioners' Experts; Petitioner Witness)	Facts Elucidated Facts Ascertained	Informative

Analysis (Lengthy) (Government's Statement on the Petition; Government Plead)	Legal Analysis Statutes	Expressive/personal (binding)
Decision/Conclusion Judge's Postscript		Performative/regulatory Evocative/expressive/personal

Note: Table 6 shows the summary of the rhetorical segments of course decisions in Indonesian English.

The Indonesian court decision has the same rhetorical segments and functions. It is, however, using more specific headings in the Context/Facts and Analysis. These facts and analyses are actually grounded by written codes, that is, a characteristic of Civil Law as one of the legal tradition in Indonesia.

Moves and steps

The three court decisions in different varieties of English were analyzed as having certain moves and steps, regular with and distinct from each other. These patterns, mainly with that of court decisions in American English and Philippine English, are more similar with than different from the analyses of Le, Kui, and Ying-Long (2008) and Cheng, Sin, and Li's (2008). Their regularities and distinctness are summarized in Table 7.

Table 7
Summary of the moves and steps of the three Court decisions

Move	American English	Philippine English	Indonesian English
1	Heading (Step 1 Court; Step 2 Parties; Step 3 Written Case No. plus Date of Argument and Decision; Step 4 Judges)	Heading (Step 1 Court; Step 2 Parties; Step 3 Written Case No. plus Date of Argument and Decision; Step 4 Judges)	Heading (Step 1 Written Case No.; Step 2 Parties; Step 4 Date of Argument; Step 4 Judges)
2	Summary	Summary	Facts of the case
3	Background	Background	Introduction
4	Facts and issues in dispute	Facts and issues in dispute	Issues in dispute
5	Legislation applied	Legislation applied	Arguments/Discussion/ Analysis (Step 1 Authority of the Constitutional Court; Step 2 Legal Standing and Constitutional Interest of the Petitioners; Step 3 Capacity of Petitioners; Step 4 Grounds for Petition; Step 5 Petition for Legisla-

			tion; Step 6 Petitioners' Experts; Step 7 Petitioner Witness; Step 8 Government's Statement on the Petition; (Sub-step 1 Substance of Judicial Review; Sub-step 2 Elucidation on the Petition); Step 9 Government Plead; (Sub-step 1 Provisions; Sub-step 2 Constitutional Rights and/or Authorities; Sub-step 3 Statement of The House of Representatives)
6	Arguments/Discussion/ Analysis (Step 1 Counter-argument; Step 2 Reason 1)	Arguments/Discussion/ Analysis (Step 1 Evidence by Petitioners 1; Step 2 Argument by the Respondent 1)	Conclusion/Decision
7	Decision/Conclusion	Decision/Conclusion	Names of the Justices
8	Obiter Dictum	Signatures by the Justices	

Note: Table 7 shows the summary of the moves and steps in the court decisions in the three varieties of English.

It is evident in Table 7 that the said legal documents possess more similar moves than different ones. In terms of macro-structure, their huge similarities are the Heading including its Steps, Background or Introduction, Summary specifically court decisions in American and Philippine Englishes, Facts and issues in dispute, Legation applied, that is, for court decisions in American and Philippine Englishes, Arguments/Discussion, Conclusion//Decision, and Names of Justices particularly court decisions in Philippine and Indonesian Englishes. It can be deduced that court decisions from the three circles of Kachru's WEs model are almost the same as far as move patterns are concerned.

The Arguments/Discussion move in American court decision is not thematic unlike the Philippine court decision the uses labels namely, *Arguments of the Petitioners, Arguments of the Respondents,* and *The Ruling of the Court* coded in the study as *Step 1 Evidence by Petitioners and Step 2 Argument by the Respondent.* The Indonesian court decision is even more thematic as it has nine different steps in the Arguments/Discussion move. Among the three, the last one was the most convenient to analyzed because of outright thematic facet. The most challenging moves to be identified were that of American English court decision. This remark espouses Le, Kui, and Ying-Long's (2008) investigation that certain moves such as moves 3 and 4 cannot be clearly identified in a court decisions, and that some moves may have embedded steps or sub-steps especially in some court judgments as some of them are tangled with each other, or absent. Thus, Indonesian English has the most identifiable moves. Second is Philippine English, and last is American English. The latter, how-

ever, is paradoxical as western English writing tradition is straight to the point (Kaplan, 1966).

The court decisions are micro-structurally distinct in terms of certain steps in certain moves. While the court decisions in American and Philippine Englishes can be characterized having the plain steps in Move 5 Arguments/Discussion/Analysis *(Step 1 Counter-argument and Step 2 Reason 1 for the court decision in American English; and Step 1 Evidence by Petitioners 1 and Step 2 Argument by the Respondent 1 for the court decision in Philippine English),* the court decision in Indonesian English is actually occupied with lengthy steps with corresponding sub-steps, and they are as follows: Arguments/Discussion/Analysis *(Step 1 Authority of the Constitutional Court; Step 2 Legal Standing and Constitutional Interest of the Petitioners; Step 3 Capacity of Petitioners; Step 4 Grounds for Petition; Step 5 Petition for Legislation; Step 6 Petitioners' Experts; Step 7 Petitioner Witness; Step 8 Government's Statement on the Petition; (Sub-step 1 Substance of Judicial Review; Sub-step 2 Elucidation on the Petition); Step 9 Government Plead; (Sub-step 1 Provisions; Sub-step 2 Constitutional Rights and/or Authorities; Sub-step 3 Statement of The House of Representatives).* Traceable from Indonesia's adaption of Dutch Civil Law whose facts and legal codes are articulated in detail (World Bank Toolkit, 2006), it is apparent that these steps are truly lengthy compared to the steps in Arguments/Discussion/Analysis, while the first two court decision steps are more succinct. This makes a huge opposite between the number of steps in Indonesian English's Arguments/Discussion/Analysis and the number of steps in American and Philippine Englishes' Arguments/Discussion/Analysis. The nine steps of Indonesian court decision make it long; thus, being an Asian region, Indonesia's legal discourse may probably be spiral as the researcher of this paper observed that many repetitions are evident across the text. As argued by Correo (2016), dense repetition manifests the innate cognitive nature of court decisions. But the length may also be associable with control and power of judicial discourse (Cheng, 2010) with respect to the three various court decisions from the different Kachruvian circles.

The Philippine court decision among the three used evident reformulation markers such as *First, Second, Third, Fourth, Fifth* particularly in Step 2 Argument by Respondents. These markers activate or strengthen the quality of judicial narrative as is clear from their clarification of the normative background and specification of the framework of disputes (Mazzi, 2011) as it is in the court decision analyzed. Extracts are shown below.

> <u>First</u>, President Aquino should be dropped as a respondent in the instant case on the ground of his immunity from suit.
> <u>Second,</u> petitioners Aguinaldo, et al. cannot institute an action for quo warranto because usurpation of public office, position, or franchise is a public wrong, and not a private injury. Hence, only the State can file such an action through the
> Solicitor General….
> <u>Third,</u> petitioner IBP can only institute the certiorari and prohibition case, but not the action for quo warranto against respondents Musngi and Econg because it cannot comply…
> <u>Fourth,</u> petitioners have erroneously included Jorge-Wagan, Romero Maglaya, Zuraek, Alameda, and Fernandez-Bernardo (Jorge-Wagan, et. al.) as unwilling co-petitioners in the Petition at bar

And <u>fifth,</u> petitioners disregarded the hierarchy of courts by directly filing the instant Petition for Quo warranto and Certiorari and Prohibition before this Court.

The apparent use of reformulation markers can be delineated from the fact that English rhetorical or transitional devices are taught in the professional and academic writing courses in the Philippines and they have been a part of the Philippine English language curricula across levels. On the other hand, the tables on the move analyses of court decisions in American, Philippine, and Indonesian Englishes with their extracts from the Court decisions can be seen in Appendices A, B, and C.

Conclusion and recommendations

In a nutshell, this paper made a humble attempt at analyzing the rhetoric of three court decisions in American, Philippine, and Indonesian Englishes drawing from the lacuna on the link between culture and court decisions in the world Englishes perspective along with scarce CR studies of language and law. Using contrastive genre analysis with the support of research literature, two questions were answered: 1. What rhetorical segments and functions can be identified in the three court decisions? and 2. What moves and steps can be determined in the three court decisions? Findings were supported by literature, compared/contrasted at the same time. Delineated with the findings discussed in the previous section, certain conclusions have been formulated as outlined below.

1. The rhetorical segments covering *stare decisis, ratio decidendi* and *obiter dictum* of court decisions in American and Philippine Englishes can be associated with the Common Law that both inner and outer circle regions, America and the Philippines share.
2. The underlying legal culture on the rhetorical segments (similar to that of American and Philippine Englishes court decisions) of the court decision in Indonesian English seems challenging to detect but it is viewed as grounded by the Civil Law tradition as its court decision typically cites the rules of the court.
3. The court decision in American English is individualist; thus, it may be based on one judge's opinion, whereas court decisions in Philippine and Indonesian Englishes are collectivist; hence, they could be drafted or created by adjudicators.
4. Associable with the fact that legal certifications are highly valued, and are legally powerful in the Philippines, Certification may be a unique rhetorical segment in court decisions in Philippine English as the said legal text is the only one that has it among the three.
5. Macro-structurally, court decisions from the three circles of Kachru's WEs model are almost consistent as far as move patterns are concerned which may be attributed to the structural nature of court decisions.
6. Micro-structurally, Indonesian court decisions are lengthy unlike the other two – a notion that can be related with control and power of judicial discourse (Cheng, 2010), vis-à-vis the three various court decisions from the Kachruvian circles.

7. The court decision in American English, in terms of Arguments/Discussion move, is not thematic somewhat conflicting its Anglo-American culture of direct written discourse.

8. The dominance of reformulation markers in Philippine English court decision can be deduced from the fact that English rhetorical devices are culturally taught in the professional and academic writing classes in the Philippines.

While the three court decisions drafted in three different varieties of English have clear comparisons and contrasts, and seemingly sound cultural grounding of WEs, the study recommends the following in various facets. First, the coding process of the study may improve its reliability or trustworthiness by involving inter-coders and consulting law professionals. Second, further cultural underpinnings from the Karchuvian circles may be needed to edify the contrastive rhetorical traditions backing the rhetorical segments and functions, and moves and steps of the legal discourse of court decisions. Third, analyzing the legal discourse through other contrastive rhetoric frameworks may produce more sound findings. Fourth, a critical CR approach can be tried-out to arrive at a more convincing underpinning cultures that explain legal writing traditions. Indeed, this IR or intercultural rhetoric analysis portrays a small contribution in the field of language and law. Though the article may be perceived as viable to linguists, ELP instructors, and legal professionals from the inner, outer, and expanding circles of WEs, what is certain is that CR studies persist as an axiom in forensic linguistics (Le, Kui, & Ying-Long, 2008); therefore, conscious effort must be undertaken to enrich and grow such field to a certain degree of critical CR in the WEs perspective.

References

Bhatia, V. K. (1993). *Analysing genre: Language use in professional settings.* London: Longman.

Bhatia, V. K. (2004). *Worlds of written discourse: A genre-based view*. London: Continuum.

Bhatia, V. K., & Bhatia, A. (2011). Legal discourse across cultures and socio-pragmatic contexts. *World Englishes, 30*(4), 481–495. doi: 10.1111/j. 1467–971X.2011.01727.

Bowles, H. (1995). Why are newspaper law reports so hard to understand? *English for Specific Purposes, 14*(3), 201-222.

Carlota, S. T. (2010, May 20-22). *The three most important features of the Philippine legal system that others should understand.* Paper Presented at the Learning from Each Other: Enriching the Law School Curriculum in an Interrelated World. Milan, Italy.

Castro, C. D. (1991). A linguistic analysis of legal cases as a genre. [Unpublished Master's thesis]. University of Malaya, Kuala Lumpur.

Cheng, L. (2010). Discourse and judicial thinking: A corpus-based study of court judgments in Hong Kong, Taiwan and Mainland China. *The International Journal of Speech, Language and the Law, 17*(2), 295-298. doi: 10.1558/ijsll.v17i2.295

Cheng, L. (2012). Attribution and judicial control in Chinese court judgments: A corpus-based study. *The International Journal of Speech, Language and the Law, 9*(1), 27-49. doi: 10.1558/ijsll.v19i1.27

Cheng, L., Sin, K. K., & Li, H. (2008). A discursive approach to Legal texts: Court judgments as an xxample. *The Asian ESP Journal, 4*(1), 14-28.

Connor, U. (1996). *Contrastive rhetoric: Cross-cultural aspects of second language writing.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Connor, U. (2004). Intercultural rhetoric research: Beyond texts. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes, 3*, 291-304.

Correo, C. B. (2016, July 7-9). *Conventionalized linguistic features and cognitive structures of Supreme Court Appellate decisions in the Philippines.* Paper presented at the 2nd Asian Regional Conference of the International Association of Forensic Linguists (IAFL). University of Santo Tomas, Manila Philippines.

Cross, R., & Harris, J.W. (1991). *Precedent in English Law.* London: Clarendon.

Dudley-Evans, T., & St John, M. (1998). *Developments in ESP: A multidisciplinary approach.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Encylopaedia Britannica. (1998). *Adat Malaysian and Indonesian tradition.* Retrieved from https://www.britannica.com/topic/adat

Farley, C. H. (2010). *The three most important features of my country's legal system that others should understand.* Paper Presented at the Learning from Each Other: Enriching the Law School Curriculum in an Interrelated World. Milan, Italy.

Grabe, W., & Kaplan, R. B. (1989). Writing in a second language: Contrastive rhetoric. In D. M. Johnson & D. H. Roen (Eds.), *Richness in writing: Empowering ESL students* (pp. 263–283). New York, London: Longman.

Graesser, A.C., & Clark, L.C. (1985). *Structures and procedures of implicit knowledge.* Norwood, NJ: Ablex.

Halliday, M.A.K., & Matthiessen, C. (2000). Construing experience through meaning: A language based approach to cognition. In V. Burns & O. Coffin (Eds.), *English in a Global Context,* (pp. 20-35). London: Routledge.

Hasan, R. (1984). The nursery tale as a genre. *Nottingham Linguistic Circular, 13,* 71–102.

Hernandez, H. P. (2017). A (forensic) stylistic analysis of adverbials of attitude and emphasis in Supreme Court decisions in Philippine English. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics, 7*(2). 455-466. doi: dx.doi.org/10.17509/ijal.v7i2.8354

Hon. Philip a. Aguinaldo, et al, *v.* His Excellency President Benigno Simeon C. Aquino III, et al, G.R. No. 224302 (November 29, 2016)

Howe, P.M. (1993). The problem of the Problem Question in English for Academic Legal Purposes. *English for Specific Purposes, 9,* 215-236.

Huang, Y. (2007). *Pragmatics.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Hyland, K. (2007). Applying a gloss: Exemplifying and reformulating in academic discourse. *Applied Linguistics, 28*(2), 266–285.

Ir. Abdon Nababan v.H. Bustamir v.H. Moch. Okri alias H. Okri, Number 35/PUU-X/2012 (March 9, 2012)

Kachru, Y. (1988). Writers in Hindi and English. In A. C. Purves (Ed.), *Writing Across Languages and Cultures: Issues in Contrastive Rhetoric*, (pp. 109-137). Los Angeles, CA: Sage Publications.

Kachru, Y. (1997). Culture and argumentative writing in world Englishes. In M. Forman & L.E. Smith (Eds.). *World Englishes 2000,* (pp. 48-67). Honolulu: University of Hawaii Press.

Khadka, S. (2012). Rhetoric of world Englishes, writing instruction around the world and a global outlook for the U.S. composition classroom. *Journal of Global Literacies, Technologies, and Emerging Pedagogies, 1*(1), 21-37.

Kaplan, R. B. (1966). Cultural thought patterns in inter-cultural education. *Language Learning, 16,* 1–20.

Kaplan, R. B. (1972). *The anatomy of rhetoric: Prolegomena to a functional theory of rhetoric.* Philadelphia: Center for Curriculum Development.

Kaplan, R. B. (1988). Contrastive rhetoric and second language learning: Notes towards a theory of contrastive rhetoric. In A. C. Purves (Ed.), *Writing Across Languages and Cultures* (pp. 275–304). Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.

Kubota, R., & Lehner, A. (2004). Toward critical contrastive rhetoric. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 13,* 7–27. doi:10.1016/j.jslw.2004.04.003

Law Teacher. (2016). *Philippines has a civil legal tradition.* Retrieved from http://www.lawteacher.net/free-law-essays/international-law/regionalisation-is-evident-in-the-philippines-in-different-manners-international-law-essay.php

Le, C., Kui, S. K., & Ying-Long, Z. (2008). Contrastive analysis of Chinese and American court judgments. *Critical Approaches to Discourse Analysis across Disciplines, 2*(1), 49-58.

LexisNexis. (2016). *How to write a case brief for law school: Excerpt reproduced from Introduction to the Study of Law: Cases and Materials.* Retrieved from http://www.lexisnexis.com/en-us/lawschool/pre-law/how-to-brief-a-case.page

Mabuan, R. A. (2017). A contrastive rhetorical analysis of Philippine and Sri Lankan English news commentaries. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics, 6*(2), 330-340. Retrieved from http://ejournal.upi.edu/index.php/IJAL/article/view/4918

Mahy, P., & Sale, J. P. (2014). Classifying the legal system of the Philippines: A preliminary analysis with reference to Labor Law. *Philippine Journal of Labor and Industrial Relations, 32*(1- 2), 1-28.

Mazzi, D. (2011). "'…SPHK activation may play an important role in the regulation of haematopoietic malignant cells…": Phraseology as a Tool for the Discursive Construction of Knowledge in Scientific Discourse". In G. Di Martino, L. Lombardo & S. Nuccorini (Eds.), *Challenges for the 21st Century: Dilemmas, Ambiguities, Directions, 2* (pp. 331-338). Roma: Edizioni Q.

Mesthrie, R., & Bhatt, R. M. (2008). *World Englishes: The study of new linguistic varieties.* Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Orts, M. A. (2015). Legal English and legal Spanish: The role of culture and knowledge in the creation and interpretation of legal texts. *ESP Today: Journal of English for Specific Purposes at Tertiary Level, 3*(1), 25-43.

Simatupang, M. (1999). Bahasa Inggris: Variasi Yang Mana? Suatu Tinjauan Ulang Tentang Status Bahasa Inggris di Indonesia. In B.K. Purwo (Ed). *PELLBA 12 (Pertemuan Linguistik Lembaga Bahasa Atma Jaya: Kedua Belas),* (pp. 63-84). Jakarta: Pusat Kajian dan Budaya Unika Atma Jaya.

Sinclair, J., & Coulthard, M. (1975) *Towards an analysis of discourse: The English used by teachers and pupils.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Sinco, V. G. (1962). *Philippine Political Law: Principles and concepts* (11th ed.). Manila: Community Publishers. [KPM1710 .Si 62 1962] Loc.: Civil Law.

Swales, J. M. (1981). *Aspects of article introductions.* Birmingham, UK: Aston University Languages Study Unit.

Swales, J. M. (1990). *Genre analysis: English in academic and research settings.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Swales, J. M., & Feak, C. B. (2012). *Academic writing for graduate students: Essential tasks and skills.* Michigan, USA: University of Michigan.

Syam, P. (2014). *What is the difference between Common Law and Civil Law?* [Weblog post]. Retrieved from https://onlinelaw.wustl.edu/blog/common-law-vs-civil-law/

World Bank Toolkit. (2006). *Approaches to private participation in water services.* Paper presentation at IFC on Some Differences between Civil Law and Common Law in a "nutshell." Gide Loyrette Nouel 2 United States *v.* Windsor, Executor of the Estate of Spyer, et al., No. 12–307

(June 26, 2013)

Yajun, J., & Zhou, C. (2006). World Englishes and contrastive rhetoric. *English Today, 22*(2), 11-22. doi: https://doi.org/10.1017/S0266078406002033

Notes on Contributors

Hjalmar Punla Hernandez is a PhD in Applied Linguistics candidate at the Philippine Normal University, Manila and an Assistant Professor in the Department of Humanities at University of the Philippines Los Baños. He considers World Englishes, Philippine English, Corpus Linguistics, Second Language Acquisition, Contrastive Rhetoric, Technology in English Language Education, and Academic Writing as his research interests. E-mail: hernandezhjalmar070@gmail.com; hphernan- dez1@up.edu.ph

Dr. Cecilia F. Genuino earned her PhD in Applied Linguistics at De La Salle University, Manila. She is an Associate Professor in the College of Graduate Studies and Teacher Education Research handling specialization courses in Applied Linguistics and English Language Education programs at the Philippine Normal University, Manila. Her research interests focus on Grammatical Models, Advanced Structure of English, and Language Policy and Planning. Email: genuino.cf@pnu.edu.ph

Appendix A: Move analysis of Court decision in American English

Move	Label	Instances
1	Heading	
	Step 1 Court	SUPREME COURT OF THE UNITED STATES
	Step 2 Parties	UNITED STATES *v*. WINDSOR, EXECUTOR OF THE ESTATE OF SPYER, ET AL.
	Step 3 Written Case No. plus Data of Argument and Decision	No. 12–307. Argued March 27, 2013—Decided June 26, 2013
	Step 4 Judges	Bipartisan Legal Advisory Group (BLAG) of the House of Representatives (indirectly mentioned)
2	Summary	1. This Court has jurisdiction to consider the merits of the case. This case clearly presented a concrete disagreement between opposing parties that was suitable for judicial resolution… 2. DOMA is unconstitutional as a deprivation of the equal liberty of persons that is protected by the Fifth Amendment. (a) By history and tradition the definition and regulation of marriage has been treated as being within the authority and realm of the separate States… (b) By seeking to injure the very class New York seeks to protect, DOMA violates basic due process and equal protection principles applicable to the Federal Government. The Constitution's guarantee of equality "must at the very least mean that a bare congressional desire to harm a politically unpopular group cannot" justify … DOMA's principal effect is to identify and make unequal a subset of state-sanctioned marriages. It contrives to deprive some couples married under the laws of their State, but not others, of both rights and responsibilities, creating two contradictory marriage…
3	Background	Two women then resident in New York were married in a lawful ceremony in Ontario, Canada, in 2007. Edith Windsor and Thea Spyer returned to their home in New York City. When Spyer died in 2009, she left her entire estate to Windsor. Windsor sought to claim…
4	Facts and issues in dispute	In 1996, as some States were beginning to consider the concept of same-sex marriage, see, *e.g.*, *Baehr* v. *Lewin*, 74 Haw. 530, 852 P. 2d 44 (1993), and before any State had acted to permit it, Congress enacted the Defense of Marriage Act (DOMA), 110 Stat. 2419. DOMA contains two operative sections: Section 2, Section 3 is at issue here. It amends the Dictionary Act in Title 1, §7, of the United States Code to provide a fed- eral definition of "marriage" and "spouse." "In determining the meaning of any Act of Congress, or of any ruling, regulation, or interpretation of the various administrative bureaus and agencies of the United States, the word 'marriage' means only a legal union between one man and one woman as husband and wife, and the… Spyer died in February 2009, and left her entire estate to Windsor. Because DOMA denies federal recognition to same-sex spouses, Windsor did not qualify for the marital exemption from the federal estate tax, which excludes from taxation "any interest in property which passes or has

		passed… Although "the President . . . instructed the Departmentnot to defend the statute in *Windsor*," he also decided "that Section 3 will continue to be enforced by the Executive Branch" and that the United States had an "interest in providing Congress a full and fair… In an unrelated case, the United States Court of Appeals for the First Circuit has also held §3 of DOMA to beunconstitutional. A petition for certiorari has been filed in that case. Pet. for Cert. in *Bipartisan Legal Advisory Group* v. *Gill*, O. T. 2012, No. 12–13.
5	Legislation applied	It is appropriate to begin by addressing whether either the Government or BLAG, or both of them, were entitled to appeal to the Court of Appeals and later to seek certiorari and appear as parties here.
6	Arguments/Discussion/Analysis	
	Step 1 Counter-argument 1	*There is no dispute that when this case was in the District Court it presented a concrete disagreement between opposing parties, a dispute suitable for judicial resolution.* "[A] taxpayer has standing to challenge the collection of a specific tax assessment as unconstitutional; being forced to pay such a tax causes a real and immediate economic injury to the individual taxpayer."
	Step 1 Counter-argument 2	*The decision of the Executive not to defend the constitutionality of §3 in court while continuing to deny refunds and to assess deficiencies does introduce a complication.* Even though the Executive's current position was announced before the District Court entered its judgment, the Government's agreement with Windsor's position would not have deprived the District Court of jurisdiction to entertain and resolve the…
	Step 2 Counter-argument 3	The *amicus'* position is that, given the Government's concession that §3 is unconstitutional, once the District Court ordered the refund the case should have ended; and the *amicus* argues the Court of Appeals should have dismissed the appeal. The *amicus* submits that once the President agreed with Windsor's legal position and the District Court issued its judgment, the parties… …this Court to grant certiorari and proceed to rule on the merits; for the United States seeks no redress from the judgment entered against it. *This position, however, elides the distinction between two principles: the jurisdictional requirements of Article III and the prudential limits on its exercise.*
	Step 2 Reason 1	There are, of course, reasons to hear a case and issue a ruling even when one party is reluctant to prevail in its position. One consideration is the extent to which adversarial presentation of the issues is assured by the participation of *amici curiae* prepared to defend with vigor the constitutionality of the legislative act.
	Step 2 Reason 2	For these reasons, the prudential and Article III requirements are met here; and, as a consequence, the Court need not decide whether BLAG would have standing to challenge the District Court's ruling and its affirmance in the Court of Appeals on BLAG's own authority.

7	Conclusion/ Decision	To the extent that the Court takes the position that the question of same-sex marriage should be resolved primarily at the state level, I wholeheartedly agree. I hope that the Court will ultimately permit the people of each State to decide this question for themselves. Unless the Court is willing to allow this to occur, the whiffs of federalism in the today's opinion of the Court will soon be scattered to the wind.
8	Obiter Dictum	For these reasons, I would hold that §3 of DOMA does not violate the Fifth Amendment. I respectfully dissent.

Appendix B: Move analysis of Court decision in Philippine English

Move	Label	Instances
1	Heading	
	Step 1 Court	Republic of the Philippines Supreme Court Manila
	Step 2 Parties	HON. PHILIP A. AGUINALDO, HON. REYNALDO A. ALHAMBRA, HON. DANILO S. CRUZ, HON. BENJA-MIN T. POZON, HON. SALVADOR V. TIMBANG, JR., and the INTEGRATED BAR OF THE PHILIPPINES (IBP), Petitioners, versus HIS EXCELLENCY PRESIDENT BENIGNO SIMEON C. AQUINO III, HON. EXECUTIVE SECRETARY PAQUITO N. OCHOA, HON. MICHAEL FREDERICK L. MUSNGI, HON. MA. GERALDINE FAITH A. ECONG, HON. DANILO S. SANDOVAL, HON. WILHELMINA B. JORGEWAGAN, HON. ROSANA FE ROMERO-MAGLAYA, HON. MERIANTHE PACITA M. ZURAEK, HON. ELMO M. ALAMEDA, and HON. VICTORIA C. FERNANDEZ-BERNARDO, Respondents
	Step 3 Written Case No. plus *Date of Argument and Decision*	G.R. No. 224302 November 29, 2016
	Step 4 Judges	SERENO, *CJ.;* CARPIO** VELASCO, JR., LEONAR-DO-DE CASTRO, BRION, PERALTA, BERSAMIN, DEL CASTILLO, PEREZ, MENDOZA, REYES, PER-LAS-BERNABE, LEONEN, JARDELEZA, and CAGUI-OA, *JJ.*
2	Summary	Before this Court is a Petition for *Quo Warranto* under Rule 66 and *Certiorari* and Prohibition under Rule 65 with Application for Issuance of Injunctive Writs1 filed by petitioners Judge Philip A. Aguinaldo (Aguinaldo) of the Regional Trial Court (RTC), Muntinlupa City, Branch 207; Judge Reyn-aldo A. Alhambra (Alhambra) of RTC, Manila, Branch 53; Judge Danilo S. Cruz (D. Cruz) of RTC, Pasig City, Branch 152; Judge Benjamin *T:* Poz.on (Pozon) of RTC, Makati City, Branch 139; Judge Salvador V. Timbang, Jr. (Timbang) of RTC, Las Pifias City, Branch 253; and the Integrated Bar of the Philippines (IBP), against respondents former President Benigno Simeon C. Aquino III (Aquino), Executive Secretary Paquito N. Ochoa (Ochoa), Sandiganbayan Associate Justice…
3	Background (Factual Antecedents)	On June 11, 1978, then President Ferdinand E. Marcos (Marcos) issued Presidential Decree No. 1486, creating a special court called the Sandiganbayan, composed of a Presiding Judge and eight Associate Judges to be appointed by the President, which shall have jurisdiction… On July 20, 2015, the Judicial and Bar Council (JBC) pub-lished in the Philippine Star and Philippine Daily Inquirer and posted on the JBC website an announcement calling for applications or recommendations for the six newly cre-ated positions of Associate Justice of the Sandi-ganbayan.After screening and selection of applicants, the

		JBC submitted to President… President Aquino issued on January 20, 2015 the appointment papers for the six new Sandiganbayan Associate Justices, namely: (1) respondent Musngi; (2) Justice Reynaldo P. Cruz (R. Cruz); (3) respondent Econg; (4) Justice Maria Theresa V. Mendoza-Arcega (Mendoza-Arcega); (5) Justice Karl B. Miranda (Miranda); and (6) Justice Zaldy V. Trespeses (Trespeses). The appointment papers were transmitted on January 25, 2016 to the six new Sandiganbayan Associate Justices, who took their oaths…
4	Facts and issues in dispute	Petitioners Aguinaldo, Alhambra, D. Cruz, Pozon, and Timbang (Aguinaldo, *et al.),* were all nominees in the shortlist for the 16th Sandiganbayan Associate Justice. They assert that they possess the legal standing or *locus standi* to file the instant Petition since they suffered a direct injury from President Aquino's failure to appoint any of them as the 16th Sandiganbayan Associate Justice.
5	Legislation applied	Petitioner IBP avers that it comes before this Court through a taxpayer's suit, by which taxpayers may assail an alleged illegal official action where there is a claim that public funds are illegally disbursed, deflected to an improper use, or wasted through the enforcement of an invalid or unconstitutional law. Petitioner IBP also maintains that it has *locus standi* considering that the present Petition involves an issue of transcendental importance to the people as a whole, an assertion of a public right, and a subject matter of public interest. Lastly, petitioner IBP contends that as the association of all lawyers in the country, with the fundamental purpose of safeguarding the administration of justice, it has a direct interest in the validity of the appointments of the members of the Judiciary.
6	Arguments/Discussion/Analysis	Petitioners base their instant Petition on the following arguments:
	Step 1 Evidence by Petitioners 1	PRESIDENT AQUINO VIOLATED SECTION 9, ARTICLE VIII OF THE 1987 CONSTITUTION IN THAT: (A) HE DID NOT APPOINT ANYONE FROM THE SHORTLIST SUBMITTED BY THE JBC FOR THE VACANCY FOR POSITION OF THE 16rn ASSOCIATE JUSTICE OF THE SANDIGANBA YAN; AND
	Step 1 Evidence by Petitioners 2	(B) HE APPOINTED UNDERSECRETARY MUSNGI AND JUDGE ECONG AS ASSOCIATE JUSTICES OF THE SANDIGANBA YAN TO THE VACANCY FOR THE POSITION OF 21st ASSOCIATE JUSTICE OF THE SANDIGANBA YAN.
	Step 1 Evidence by Petitioners 3	(C) THE APPOINTMENTS MADE WERE NOT IN ACCORDANCE WITH THE SHORTLISTS SUBMITTED BY THE JUDICIAL AND BAR COUNCIL FOR EACH VACANCY, THUS AFFECTING THE ORDER OF SENIORITY OF THE ASSOCIATE JUSTICES.
	Step 1 Evidence by Petitioners 4	Petitioners contend that only nominees for the position of the 16th Sandiganbayan Associate Justice may be appointed as the 16th Sandiganbayan Associate Justice, and the same goes for the nominees for each of the vacancies for the 17th, 18th, 19th, 20th, and 21st Sandiganbayan Associate Justices. However, on January 20, 2016, President Aquino issued the appointment papers for the six new Sandiganbayan Associate Justices, to wit:

		Step 2 Argument by the Respondent 1	First, President Aquino should be dropped as a respondent in the instant case on the ground of his immunity from suit.
		Step 2 Argument by the Respondent 2	Second, petitioners Aguinaldo, et al. cannot institute an action for quo warranto because usurpation of public office, position, or franchise is a public wrong, and not a private injury. Hence, only the State can file such an action through the Solicitor General….
		Step 2 Argument by the Respondent 3	Third, petitioner IBP can only institute the certiorari and prohibition case, but not the action for quo warranto against respondents Musngi and Econg because it cannot comply…
		Step 2 Argument by the Respondent 4	Fourth, petitioners have erroneously included Jorge-Wagan, Romero Maglaya, Zuraek, Alameda, and Fernandez-Bernardo (Jorge-Wagan, et. al.) as unwilling co-petitioners in the Petition at bar
		Step 2 Argument by the Respondent 4	And fifth, petitioners disregarded the hierarchy of courts by directly filing the instant Petition for Quo warranto and Certiorari and Prohibition before this Court.
7	Decision/ Conclusion		The Court DECLARES the clustering of nominees by the Judicial and Bar Council UNCONSTITUTIONAL, and the appointments of respondents Associate Justices Michael Frederick L. Musngi and Geraldine Faith A. Econg, together with the four other newly-appointed Associate Justices of the Sandiganbayan, as VALID. The Court further DENIES the Motion for Intervention of the Judicial and Bar Council in the present Petition, but ORDERS the Clerk of Court *En Banc* to docket as a separate administrative matter…
8	Signatures by the Justices		TERESITA J. LEONARDO-DE CASTRO Associate Justice MARIA LOURDES P.A. SERENO Chief Justice ANTONIO T. CARPO Senior Associate Justice, Presiding …

Appendix C: Move analysis of Court decision in Indonesian English

Move	Label	Instances
1	Heading	
	Step 1 Written Case No.	Number 35/PUU-X/2012
	Step 2 Court	FOR THE SAKE OF JUSTICE UNDER THE ONE ALMIGHTY GOD THE SUPREME COURT OF THE REPUBLIC OF INDONESIA
	Step 2 Parties	THE INDIGENOUS PEOPLES' ALLIANCE OF THE ARCHIPELAGO (AMAN) Ir. Abdon Nababan (Representative) INDIGENOUS PEOPLES OF KENEGERIAN KUNTU H. BUSTAMIR (Representative) INDIGENOUS PEOPLES OF KASEPUHAN CISITU H. MOCH. OKRI alias H. OKRI (Representative)
	Step 4 Date of Argument	March 9, 2012
	Step 4 Judges	Sulistiono, S.H., Iki Dulagin, S.H., M.H., Susilaningtyas, S.H., Andi Mut-taqien, S.H., Abdul Haris, S.H., Judianto Simanjutak, S.H., Erasmus Ca-hyadi, S.H., all of whom are advocates and Legal Aid assistants, incorpo-rated as Team of Advocates of Indigenous Peoples of the Archipelago, having address at Jalan Tebet Utara II C Nomor 22 South Jakarta, Jakarta, Indonesia, to act individually or jointly as authorizer;…
2	Facts of the Case	Considering whereas the Petitioners filed a petition dated 19 Maret 2012, which was received at the Registrar's Office of the Constitutional Court (hereinafter referred to as the Registrar's Office of the Court) on March 26, 2012, under Deed of Petition File Receipt Number 100/PAN.MK/2012 and recorded in the Registry of Constitutional Cases on April 2, 2012 under Number 35/PUU-X/2012 and…
3	Introduction	The fourth paragraph of the Preamble of the 1945 Constitution of the Re-public of Indonesia (hereinafter referred to as the 1945 Constitution) has very clearly stated the aim of the establishment of the Unitary State of Republic of Indonesia (NKRI) is … In implementing constitutional mandate, in the forestry sector as one of natural resources, the government prepared Law Number 41 Year 1999 on Forestry (hereinafter referred to as the Forestry Law). Article 3 of the Forestry… In fact for more than 10 years of enactment, the Forestry Act has been used as a tool by the state to take over the rights of indigenous peoples… Rejection over enforcement of Forestry Law is continuously voiced by indigenous peoples, which reflected through demonstrations, and reports of complaints…

4	Issues in Dispute	Some of conflict typologies over forest area related to indigenous peoples resulting from implementation of Forestry Law which often occur in the field, include: 1. indigenous peoples with a company(as experienced by Petitioner II), and; 2. indigenous peoples with Government (as experienced by Petitioner III); Two forms of conflict over forest area illustrates that regulation on forest area in Indonesia ignores the existence of the rights of indigenous peoples over their customary territories. Though indigenous peoples have their own history… Whereas debates on indigenous peoples in the context of a country that was being built in the early days of independence have gained a large portion of BPUPKI sessions, which then crystallized in Article 18 of 1945 Constitution… Sociologically, indigenous peoples have a very strong attachment to the forest and have built intensive interaction with the forest. In many parts of Indonesia, the interaction…
5	Arguments/ Discussion/ Analysis	
	Step 1 Authority of the Constitutional Court	*1.* Whereas Article 24C paragraph (1) of the third amendment to the 1945 Constitution states that: "*The judicial power shall be implemented by a Supreme Court and judicial bodies underneath it in the…* 2. Furthermore, Article 24C paragraph (1) of the third amendment to the 1945 Constitution states that: "*Constitutional Court shall have the authority to hear cases at the first and final levels the decisions of which…*
	Step 2 Legal Standing and Constitutional Interest of the Petitioners	5.Whereas recognition of the right of every Indonesian citizen to submit a petition to review the 1945 Constitution is a positive indicator of constitutional development which reflects the progress for strengthening the principles of rule of law;… 6. Whereas, Article 51 paragraph (1) of the Constitutional Court Law in conjuction with Article 3 Constitutional Court Regulation Number 06/PMK/2005 on the Procedures of Judicial Review of Law states that: the Petitioner shall…
	Step 3 Capacity of Petitioners	64. Whereas the Petitioners as part of Indonesian community are entitled to equal recognition, assurance, protection and fair rule of law and equal treatment before the law";.. 65. Whereas the Petitioners are also entitled to develop themselves, in order to meet their basic needs, to improve the quality of life, and human welfare;

	Step 4 Grounds for Petition	Scopes of articles, paragraphs and phrases in Law Number 41 of 1999 on Forestry which judicially reviewed against 1945 Constitution 1. Whereas provision of Article 1 point 6 of Forestry Law reads: "*Customary forest is a state forest situated in indigenous peoples area*"; 2. Whereas Article 4 paragraph (3) of Forestry Law reads;
	Step 5 Petition for Legislation	Based on abovementioned matters, we petitions the Panel of Justices of Constitutional Court of Republic of Indonesia who hear and make decision on judicial review petition related to Article 1 point 6, Article 4 paragraph (3), Article 5 paragraph (1), paragraph (2), paragraph (3), paragraph (4), Article 67 paragraph (1), paragraph (2), paragraph (3) of Forestry Law to pass the following decisions: 1. to accept and grant the Petitioners' Petition in its entirety; 2. to declare provision in Article 1 point 6 of Forestry Law on the word "*state",* as
	Step 6 Petitioners' Experts	1. Dr. Saafroedin Bahar 1. Introduction The expert argue that although material of this is directly related to the relationship between the state forest with customary forest in the context of the Forestry Law, indirectly it will related to the status and recognition on the existence of indigenous peoples and its constitutional… 2. Noer Fauzi Rachman Whereas the Expert entitled his testimony "Rectifying Statization of Customary Land". Statization is a process where land and customary land designated by the Government as a special categories of state land… 3. Prof. Dr. Ir. Hariadi Kartodihardjo, M.S. I. Scientific Forestry Doctrines and the contents of Law The foundation of the doctrine of forestry scholars or forester is important to be known to understand how certain beliefs, which manifested through narratives of policies, affecting forestry scholars in Indonesian in general, in the way…
	Step 7 Petitioner Witness	Petitioner Witness 1. Lirin Colen Dingit The witness comes from Bentian Indigenous peoples Community in East Kalimantan, West Kutai District, which stated several witness experiences and forest-related conflict inside the… 2 Yoseph Danur That the Witness comes from Biting Village, Ulu Wae Village, Poco Ranaka sub-district, District of East Manggarai NTT province…
	Step 8 Government's Statement on the Petition	Based on the aforementioned considerations of facts and laws, the <u>Court</u> has come to the following conclusions: [4.1] The <u>Court</u> has authority to hear the petition *a quo;* [4.2] The Petitioner has legal standing to file the petition *a quo;* [4.3] The Petitioner's arguments are legally founded in part; Based on the State of the Republic of Indonesia Year 1945, Law Number 24 Year 2003 concerning the <u>Court</u> as amended by Law Number 8 Year 2011…
	Sub-step 1 Substance of Judicial Review	FOR REVIEW A. General Substances of judicial review petition on Article 1 point 6 on the word "state", juncto Article 4 paragraph (3) on the phrase "if any (read: indigenous peoples) still in existence and their existence is acknowledged as well as consistent with the national interest…
	Sub-step 2 Elucidation on the Petition	B. Elucidation on Articles Petitioned for Judicial Review The Government delivers its statement on judicial review of articles of Forestry Law petitioned as follow: 1. The Petitioners argued that Article 1 point 6, Article 4 paragraph (3),

		Article 5 paragraph (1), paragraph (2), paragraph (3), and paragraph (4) of Forestry Law are inconsistent with Article 1 paragraph (3) of 1945 Constitution that states bahwa "Indonesia is a state based on the rule of law";…
	Step 9 Government Plead	IV. CONCLUSION Based on descriptions and arguments abovementioned, the Government plead to the Panel of Justices of the Court to examine, to decide and to adjudicate judicial review petition on articles of Forestry Law against 1945 Constitution, to pass the following decisions: 1. to declare that the Petitioners do not have legal standing; 2. to reject the petition in its entirety or at least to declare that Petitioners' petition cannot be accepted *(niet onvankelijk verklaard)*; 3. to accept Government's statement in its entirety; 4. to declare that following provisions in Article 1 point 6 on the word *"state"*, Article…
	Sub-step 1 Provisions	In their petition, the Petitioners filed review on Article 1 point 6, Article 4 paragraph (3), Article 5, Article 67 of Forestry Law; - Whereas provision of Article 1 point 6 of Forestry Law reads: *"Customary forest is a state forest situated in indigenous peoples area";* - Whereas Article 4 paragraph (3) of Forestry Law reads: *"Forest concession by the state shall remain taking into account rights of indigenous peoples if any and its existence is acknowledged and not contradictory to national interest";…*
	Sub-step 2 Constitutional Rights and/or Authorities	Petitioners in the petition *a quo* stated that their constitutional rights have been impaired and violated or at least potentially according to reasonable reasoning can ascertained to cause loss by the enforcement of Article 1 point 6, Article 4 paragraph…
	Sub-step 3 Statement of The House of Representatives	In regard to Petitioners' argument as described in the petition *a quo*, DPR in delivering its statement will first describe legal standing as follows:…
6	Conclusion/ Decision	Based on the aforementioned considerations of facts and laws, the Court has come to the following conclusions: [4.1] The Court has authority to hear the petition *a quo;* [4.2] The Petitioner has legal standing to file the petition *a quo;* [4.3] The Petitioner's arguments are legally founded in part; Based on the State of the Republic of Indonesia Year 1945, Law Number 24 Year 2003 concerning the Court as amended by Law Number 8 Year 2011… 5. INJUNCTION OF DECISION Handing Down the Decision, Declaring: To grant the Petitioner's petition in part;… 1.1. The word "*state*" in Article 1 point 6 of Law Number 41 Year 1999 concerning Forestry (State Gazette of the Republic of Indonesia Year 1999…
7	Names of the Justices	sgd. M. Akil Mochtar sgd. Achmad Sodiki sgd. Ahmad Fadlil Sumadi sgd. Harjono sgd. Muhammad Alim

The Cooperation Principle in President Obama's second inaugural Chicago speech

Euphrem Ngoy
Prosper Cirhuza
Université Officielle de Bukavu
Democratic Republic of Congo

Abstract

The full text of the speech given by President Barack Hussein Obama in Chicago after he won a second term in office as US President has been broken into its minimal communicative speech acts. This strategy has been used to analyse and understand how the whole speech is consistent with the cooperative maxims of Quality, Quantity, Relation and Manner. Being a corpus-based work the study goes through the Rhetorical Criticism Approach with the Textual Analysis as the method at hand. The resulting interpretation shows that President Obama's speech fascinated and positively affected his listeners' emotions because it was highly consistent with all the four maxims of Cooperation, that is, the speech was cooperative in design. With these results we can confirm that the cooperative quality of a political speech is crucial to the audience's appreciation of the speaker and the value of his public talk.

Keywords: Speech act maxims, Rhetorical criticism, Textual analysis

Introduction

When people think of crucial, vital and very important persons we tend to think of doctors, politicians, teachers, philosophers, attorneys, police officers etc. Yet none of these can achieve their job without communication. To achieve the funding facilities, or support any of the above must communicate with large audiences (or have someone do it). That is where the communication specialist comes in (Gumperz, 1982).

A glance at recent history will show that in public situations it is easier to get things done when everyone concerned has the same background than when the backgrounds differ. As Gumperz (1982, p. 187) puts it: "The way we talk, along with what we say, determine how effective we are in dealing with the public."

This study aims to analyse an already-produced message and try to prove its cooperative quality-content as a factor favouring the happy reception of the message by its intended audience, in the light of the cooperative principle of Pragmatics that operates through four maxims as already indicated in the section above.

Quality and Quantity maxims

Many writers have given these two maxims separately. But now that we have to deal with the corpus speech through a practical pragmatic analysis, it looks smarter to present quality as entailing quantity. Leech (1989, p. 82) observes that both maxims frequently work in competition with one another so that the amount of information **S** gives is limited **S**'s wish to avoid telling an untruth. Harnish (1976, p. 362, as cited in Leech, 1982, p. 85) has even proposed a combined maxim as follows: maxim of quality-quantity = make the strongest relevant claim justifiable by your evidence. This goes to say that unless there are outweighing reasons for the contrary, one should   not

make a weaker statement rather than a stronger one if the audience is interested in the extra information that could be conveyed by the latter. Strength here refers to the amount of information communicated.

From a pragmatic view of things the speech that is analyzed here proves itself full of evidence for quality and quantity combinations: "Tonight more than 200 years after a former colony won the right to determine its own destiny, the task of perfecting our union moves forward" (paragraph 1) is the strongest way for a president who wants to express neutrally that in voting for him and accepting these vote results the union of the Americans is reinforced. If he had said instead "I am satisfied because you have voted for me, and not only my voters but also the opposite camp has willingly accepted the vote results, which to my opinion justifies our union", this would prove as lacking evidential justification since the speaker is in front of a diversified audience and nothing proves that these are the people who actually voted for him and who willingly accept the vote results. Moreover, it is often proved that some magazines reported cases of some Americans who decided to leave the country as soon as it was established that Obama was becoming the US president. Yet many other Americans rejoiced and enjoyed his reign as US president. Thus, the most relevant way of saying it is that neutrality (avoiding discrimination and overgeneralization) found in the line that I have just quoted.

It is possible to identify some more examples from the same speech text, like:

> Some of you were new this time around, and some of you have been at my side since the very beginning. But all of you are a family. No matter what you do or where you go from here, you will carry the memory of the history we made together and you will have the lifelong appreciation of a grateful president (paragraph 8).

Furthermore, we cannot take it for randomness that all these sentences appear in the same paragraph one after another. Suppose we just considered "you have been at my side since the very beginning", then the speaker would not only appear pompous but also he would be making a claim that is not supported by evidence. Fortunately it appears in a much longer sentence that follows: "some of you were new this time around, and some of you have been at my side since the beginning", and which is followed by another sentence that goes: "But all of you are a family. No matter what you do or where you go from here…"
Notice here that the use of "all" in the second sentence addresses the limitedness (mistake) of "some" in the first sentence. We say it is a mistake because it sounds like breaking the politeness principle by discriminating one part of the audience.

Paragraph 20 is a powerful rhetorical discourse made of a series of "buts". The understanding of this paragraph brings into play what is termed implication. To begin with here reads the paragraph:

> This country has more wealth than any nation, but that's not what makes us rich. We have the most powerful military in history, but that's not what makes us strong. Our university, our culture, are all the envy of the world, but that's not what keeps the world coming to our shores (paragraph 20)

While any hearer possessing any proof of the contrary would feel the above paragraph as full of exaggerations, and untruths, it remains possible to consider that the speaker

does not break the maxims of quality and quantity insofar as he is addressing a truly American audience. Most Americans believe that theirs is the best nation on earth in all aspects.

Considering the complete sentences containing the "buts", we realize that the first sentence of 21 comes to given sense within the conventional illocutionary force of the utterance as accepted by both the speaker and his audience. That sentence reads: "what make America exceptional are the bonds that hold together the most diverse nation on earth." That is a sentence full of optimisms and self-esteem, imploring once again unity in diversity in such sentences as this; it is precisely the state of potentiality as opposed to the actual act of performance that is given prominence (Leech, 1989, p. 89).

As a matter of fact, the recurrent use of referential pronouns such as "I", "we" and "you" are crucial for a pragmatic analysis and comprehension of the overall speech in that they provide the necessary tools for the determinacy of the speaker-hearer context. The speaker is "I", "you" stands for the addressees or hearers, and "we" stands for "I + you". The reader of this paper should remember that in an earlier section of this paper we have already identified Obama's audience as being entirely Americans because he defines this in his speech (paragraphs 2, 3, 11, 17, 20 …). Of course not all the Americans were present at the very public place where the speech was held – not even all those true voters of Obama. The speaker knows his audience – real as well as visual – and he determines it, and he holds the right speech for them, and the speech's illocutionary meaning needs to be found on these very grounds.
The whole Paragraph 7 presents other unusual speech acts demonstrating the application of the quality-quantity maxims as it reads:

> And I wouldn't be the man I am today without the woman who agreed to marry me 20 years ago. Let me say this publically: Michelle, I have never loved you more. I have never been prouder to watch the rest of America fall in love with you too, as our nation's first lady. Sasha and Malia, before our very eyes you're growing up to became two strong, smart beautiful young women, just like your mom. And I'm so proud of you guys. But I will say that for now one dog's probably enough.

If we consider the first sentence of paragraph 7 it seems to present a condition: "I wouldn't be the man I am today without the woman who agreed to marry me 20 years ago …" Can it be said that a man is only a man because a certain wife accepts to marry him? That condition is only pragmatic and belongs more to the speaker-hearer contextual conventions to mean, for instance "you have supported my campaign so much and that's why I am a president today." Knowledge of the politeness principle comes in for a better interpretation of that speech act. The speaker, we assume, might be meaning that the speaker gives so much consideration to his wife's contribution in the improvement of his socio-political activities.

Later in the same paragraph the following sentence appears: "Let me say this publically: Michelle, I have never loved you more". This requires a common ground of presuppositions for its better appreciation. "I have never loved you more" presupposes that I have ever been in love with you to some extent, and today something more adds up to my love for you. In this the hedging device "more" is to be analyzed as a semantic amplifier.

Last, yet not least, something must be said with the sentence in the paragraph; I have never been prouder to watch the rest of America fall in love with you too, as our

nation's first lady. Then the semantic meaning of "fall in love" needs to be wide enough for the hearer as for the speaker. Once again this requires a common ground of illocutionary knowledge for both speaker and hearer. Otherwise, would a man really feel proud to see the whole country (that is many persons) fall in love with his own wife. Well, the common grounds needed here are implicatures. And yet, implicatures are something so probabilistic. It is not so obviously a sure thing that the hearer is ultimately certain of what the speaker means by an utterance.

According to Leech (1989), "the observable condition, the utterance and the context, are determinants of what S (speaker) means by U (utterance); it is the task of H (hearer) to diagnose the most likely interpretation'' (p. 30) Now since utterances are liable to illocutionary indeterminacy, it is not always possible for H, although a reasonable diagnostician, to come to a definite conclusion about what S means.

The relation maxim

Before addressing this issue let us say as an offset that the speech acts should be analyzed from the speaker's conversational goals. This study is more interested in the speaker's goals because the study is based on a record of his words, his speech acts. The audience, even though defined has not reacted as such in the records that we have on paper so that their reactions could be confronted with the speaker's words of course such public speech are not generally meant to be dialogic. Their conversational structure is only implied.

Now for a start in the relation maxim it is important to go from Leech's (1989, p. 94) statement: "An utterance U is relevant to a speech situation if U can be interpreted as contributing to the conversational goals of S or H." This definition of relevance stands up from the core characteristic of the maxim of relation: be relevant.

Jordan (1984) speaking about textual rhetoric gives a position that could be adapted to interpersonal rhetoric in the following way:

> All informative speech can be seen as a solution to a need-to-know problem. The speaker, in attempting to meet the needs of hearers, tries to predict exactly what his hearers need to know and then directs his writing to meeting those needs. Even road signs and notices are such solutions, and notices can be analyzed in these terms of problem solving. (p. 86)

With that paragraph it is understood that the main concern of participants is with the communicative effect of what they are saying (result). Selection among linguistic alternates is automatic, not subject to social recall. The social norms which govern language usage here form part of the underlying element which speakers use to convey meaning.

Now let us turn again and look into president Obama's speech in order to discover whether or not, and how much he has been relevant. We revisit the goals he had in holding that speech, as a politician. With regard to this concern Leech (1989, p. 134) states: "conversational goals may include both social goals (observing politeness) and personal goals (finding what one is looking for)." If we consider these two goals proposed by Geoffrey Leech, then we admit, for sure, that cooperation as a pragmatic principle entails, for the speaker, tying good relations with his interlocutor within the speech situation. Here then we need to identify president Obama's personal goals, which is only possible by looking into his words. We are borrowing an English popular phrase that goes: "our words, our world".

First of all, the politeness goal is overtly manifest in the speech because president Obama has reserved most of his to friendship and respect and politeness. For example, paragraph 6 reads: "I want to thank my friend and partner of the last four years, America's happy warrior, the best vice president anybody could ever hope for, Joe Biden." Here the expression of politeness goes with acknowledgements. The same sign of politeness through thanksgiving is noticeable in the content of paragraphs 4, 7, 8 and 30. In paragraph 4, for example, the speaker is expressing thanks to all American people, his intended audience: "I want to thank every American who participated in this election whether you voted for the very first time or waited in line for a very long time" (4).

Let us fix that in saying: "whether you pounded the pavement or picked up the phone, whether you held an Obama sign or a Romey sign, you made your voice heard and you made the difference", the speaker goes eloquently beyond the confines of the speaker's side to satisfy the needs of his hearers in terms of personal consideration.

Furthermore, we must clearly state that through his speech, president Obama does not only express politeness but also thanksgiving. Most of his statements are polite, not rude. He avoids reflecting a triumphal mind and seems to forget self-praise. Beside the referential devices, such as the pronoun "we", the elegance of paragraphs 12 and 18 are worth the mention, as they look complementary with each other.

> That won't change after tonight, and it shouldn't. these arguments we have are a mark of our liberty. We can never forget that as we speak, people in distant nations are risking their lives right now just for a chance to argue about the issue that matter, the chance to cast their ballots like we did today (Paragraph 12).

> Tonight you voted for action, not for politics as usual. You elected us to focus on your jobs, not ours. And in the coming weeks and months, I am looking forward to reaching out and working with leaders of both parties to meet the challenges we can only solve together. Reducing our deficit. Reforming our tax code. Fixing our immigration system. Freeing ourselves from foreign oil. We've got more work to do (Paragraph18).

The speaker does not use the pronoun "we" to escape responsibility but rather to reinforce his identity as belonging to the family. "you elected us", "focus on your jobs not ours." When it comes to taking responsibilities, he shifts to the pronoun "I": "I am looking forward to reaching …" (paragraph 18). I want to thank … (paragraphs 4 and 6), "I wouldn't be the man I am today…" (paragraph 7), "I have listened to you, I have learned from you, and you've made me a better president…" (paragraph 17)

Enough about the maxim of relation through politeness, now let us look at another not less important facet of the Relation maxim. This is the relevance of the speaker's speech to its orientation toward a particular goal. The goal here is not a social one but a very personal goal. One might wonder what the special goal there is in Obama's inaugural speech. Hickey's arguments provided above make notice of one thing: that nearly all politicians have a personal goal in their public speeches. That is to defend their political decisions, directly or indirectly, criticizing the ideas and actions of their opponents. If we cannot put it that president Obama's speech under study here is built upon this very goal, and fearing overgeneralization, at least we need to listen to the speaker again with this particular focus: personal goal orientation. From the early paragraphs (1, 2 and 3) we hear him saying:

> Tonight, more than 200 years after a former colony won the right to determine its own destiny, the task of perfecting our union moves forward. It moves forward because of you (paragraph 1). It moves forward because you reaffirmed the spirit that has triumphed over war and depression, the spirit that has lifted this country from the depths of despair to the great heights of hope, the belief that while each of us will pursue our own individual dreams, we are an American family and we rise or fall together as one nation and as one people (paragraph 2). Tonight, in this election, you, the American people, reminded us that while our road has been hard, while our journey has been long, we have picked ourselves up, we have fought our way back, and we know in our hearts that for the United States of America the best is yet to come (paragraph 3).

And this gives us the impression that the speaker has a personal goal which he overtly expresses. That goal is more of awaking people's consciousness for determination to lift the country upper. It is like the speaker's sensitization mission that will have an end: that all Americans be united in their diversities.

Now what about the election winning itself as part of the goal? Because we should not forget that it is an inaugural speech held by a politician just after winning the elections. For the speaker: "the task of perfecting our union moves forward… in this election, you, American people, reminded us that… but the best is yet to come… tonight you voted for action, not politics as usual"

The speaker decides to accommodate his audience in his own worldview. All the few extracts given above are instances illustrating that Obama held his speech with some goal. What is much of pragmatic analyst interest is how the weaving of these speech utterances has contributed to the fulfilling of the illocutionary goal. Almost all the ideas contained in the speech lines are evidences for this. But something remains even more striking with the statements in paragraphs 11 and 12 as they are complementary:

> That's why we do this. That's what politics can be. That's why elections matter. It's not small, it's big. It's important. Democracy in a nation of 300 million can be noisy and messy and complicated. We have our own opinions. Each of us has deeply held beliefs. And when we go through tough times, when we make big decisions as a country, it necessarily stirs passions. Stirs up controversy (paragraph 11).

> That won't change after tonight, and it shouldn't. These arguments we have are a mark of our liberty. We can never forget that as we speak, people in distant nations are risking their lives right now just for a chance to argue about the issues that matter, the chance to cast their ballots like we did today"(paragraph 12).

Beside the fact of evidencing his ideology and dreams for the country, the speaker is now drawing the audience's attention to one thing: the electoral struggle or competition is a proof of our determination to lift our country further and further. There's somewhere to go, with this mobilization. Being part of his own personal goal to take his audience into his boat, he tries to describe where he wants to take them, and what it looks like being there. The paragraph 15 reads:

> We believe in a generous America, in a compassionate America, open to the dreams of an immigrant's daughter who studies in our schools and pledges to our flag. To the young boy on the south side of Chicago who sees a life beyond the nearest street corner. To the furniture worker's child in North Carolina who wants to become a doctor or a scientist, an engineer or an entrepreneur, a diplomat or even a president –that's the future we hope for. That's the vision we share. That's where we need to go- forward. That's where we need to go.

The Manner Maxim

According to Leech (1989) the maxim of manner -be perspicuous- appears like the Cinderella of Grice's (1975) four categories: others have followed Grice in mentioning it last, and it rarely figures in explanations of conversational implicature. Grice himself sees this maxim as in some sense less important than the maxim of quality, and as differing from the others in relating not to what is said, but rather, to how it is said, is to be said (as cited in in Leech, 1989). Some of the critics often equate this maxim to the Clarity Principle, yet the difference between˝being perspicuous and being clear is to say the least meaningful.

Other diverging arguments are whether a maxim of manner would better serve textual rhetoric or better interpersonal rhetoric. Leech (1989, p. 100) suggests that it might serve both. In fact, there exist two kinds of clarity. One kind consists in an unambiguous use of the syntax and phonology of the language in order to construct a clear text. Another type of clarity consists framing a clear message; there is a message which is perspicuous or intelligible in the sense of conveying the intended illocutionary goal to the addressee. Perspicuity in this sense is hand in glove with relevance: both the maxim of manner and the maxim of relation will favour the most direct communication of one's illocutionary point. And indeed, this is why addresses will normally assume the most direct interpretations are blocked.

Looking into our speech as corpus with these lenses it comes forth that the maxim of manner is the most widely used of all by Obama. To start with, except for some very few instances, most of the speech statements are devoid of any ambiguity or unnecessary verbiage. If we must start by exceptions we shall start by elaborating on the cases of ambiguity and unperspicuity. For example in paragraph 7, when the speaker mentions his wife, the audience might have expected him to say: I want to thank my wife Michelle for … just as he did in the preceding paragraphs. But this time the speaker turns it otherwise and delivers his message of acknowledgements to his wife in a rather indirect statement: [and I wouldn't be the man I am today without the woman who agreed to marry me 20 years ago. Let me say this publicly: "Michelle, I have never loved you more…" Some critics might take this as the expression of the president's unavoidable sentimentality. For sure, it might be understood as a way of introducing his wife to the audience. But let us remember that they already know her. This was Obama's second term election as a US President and he had been married. The second interpretation is that since this paragraph comes just in a series of other paragraphs in which the speaker has been expressing thanks, then we might think that he is saying this as a way to thank his wife for her participation in the political battle.

Before looking at it differently, it becomes quite obvious that the syntactic clarity impacts on the illocutionary clarity. Ambiguity might mislead the hearer in this interpretation of the speaker's illocutionary message. Fortunately, most of the statements through this speech are unambiguous. Paragraph 19, just as an instance reads:

> But that doesn't mean your work is done. The role of citizen in our democracy does not end with your vote. America's never been about what can be done for us. It's about what can be done by us together through the hard and frustrating, but necessary work of self-government. That's the principle we were founded on.

In that paragraph the speaker expresses his dreams for an effective mobilisation of all Americans. He struggles to make them understand that what they have done with the vote is one more step forward and not the end aim.
Moreover, paragraph 27 completes:

> America, I believe we can build on the progress we've made and continue to fight for new jobs and new opportunity and new security for the middle class. I believe we can keep the promise of our founders, the idea that if you've willing to work hard, it doesn't matter who you are or where you come from or what you look like or where you love. It doesn't matter whether you're black or white or Hispanic or Asian or native American or young or old or rich or poor, able disabled, gay or straight, you can make it here in America if you're willing to try.

The overall structure of this speech presents a logical sequence that aids the best understanding of its illocutionary meaning. For example, the fact the five successive paragraphs (4 through 7) are made of acknowledgments, helps the hearer to interpret paragraph 7 as being rather a polite and mannered thanksgiving than just a mere introduction of Obama's wife or a deliberate expression of Obama's wife or a deliberate expression of Obama's sentimentality, as might have been interpreted otherwise. The paragraphs 1, 2 and 3, as they are successive are opening the speech by providing the context of understanding of the rest of the text. Paragraph 9 through 13 constitute a particular block that presents the state of things (elections) as a manifestation of the determination to build unity through or in diversity. That is the speaker's point of view. There are provided arguments to support this point of view and to make his audience believe and trust it. In paragraph 14 and 19 is a complement to the preceding by providing more reasoned arguments to convince his audience. The speaker uses a bock of 8 paragraphs (21 through 28) to express his dreams for the country.

Conclusion

This pragmatic look into president Obama's inaugural speech of November 2012 in Chicago has focused more on the cooperative principle as seen through its maxims of quality, quantity, manner and relation. The intention was to discover through technical pragmatic lenses how much the speech producer endeavoured to conform to the cooperative requirements. Since communication skills are commonly considered as critical for desirable managers, executives, staff, and other employees then, people having influence and control over mass-mediated messages deserve equal attention. They can have immediate and long-term impact on thousands or millions of people-sometimes at an incredible speed.
Just like any political speech, anyone who watched the video might have realised that the audience of president Obama's second inaugural speech in Chicago, as they were attending the assembly during which this speech was given clapped and cheered continually at every pause of the speaker. The question was whether they clapped and cheered because there were beautiful and exciting promises throughout

the speech or just because of the speech's particularly striking content.All things being equal, it was assumed the president's speech was washed enough and therefore was pragmatically ready to be chewed and digested by the hearers without any misunderstanding. In search for this pragmatic guarantee through textual evidence this analysis has taken into account a combination of strategies. Strategic techniques and procedures were all put work under the umbrella of the rhetorical criticism approach.

It has been discovered, through such probing analysis, that the speech given in Chicago by President Barack Obama in November 2012 was consistent with the audience's discursive expectations. This consistence was due in part to the fact that the speech was orderly in structure and consistent with contextual interpretation. It is not that the speaker communicated only what the audience was expecting him to say in terms of content, but he consistently and competently communicated his own prepared message, through coherent argumentation. The second level consistency lies in how much cooperative the speech was as a whole. The speaker started by defining the illocutionary context in order to avoid any misunderstanding or misinterpretation. He tried to present all his thoughts without many ambiguities. He avoided unnecessary speculations by saying, at every instance, just the rhetorical truth in its most minimal informative way. There is no obscurity of expression since the speaker used less and less implicative and ambiguous statements avoiding unnecessary prolixity.

This analysis has embarked us into confirmation of pragmatic hypotheses by analysis of corpus data. We acknowledging some limitations in the present study which are due in part to the nature of the research, that corpus study in pragmatics is probabilistic. There is still much to be done for example about the Processibility Principle in relation to an articulation on theme and focus. A textual rhetoric approach can be also possible used in exploring for instance the Expressivity Principle as well as aesthetic aspects of this public communication considering it in its textual form. We are sure that through such studies as well as other kinds of related concerns one could come closer to bringing more and more people into this area of research and contribute to clearing out the clouds that are due to the lack of objective information.

References

Gumperz, J. (1982). *Discourse strategies*. London: Cambridge University Press.
Jordan, M. (1984). *Rhetoric of everyday English texts*. London: Cambridge University Press.
Leech, G. (1989). *Principles of p6ragmatics*. Singapore: Longman.

Note on Contributors

Euphrem NGOY is currently working as Teaching Assistant in the Department of English Language and Civilisations of the "Université Officielle de Bukavu" in the Democratic Republic of Congo. Email contact: euphremngoy@gmail.com

Prosper CIRHUZA is currently working as Teaching Assistant in the Department of English Language and Civilisations of the "Université Officielle de Bukavu" in the Democratic Republic of Congo. Email contact: prospercirhuza@gmail.com

The Ecology of English and Chinese in the English Language Policies and Practices of A Chinese University

Hongmei Xu
Xi'an International Studies University. China

Abstract

There has been a widespread concern in China about language education that while much emphasis has been put on English and English education, Chinese language and culture seem to have been neglected. Debates have arisen over what role English should play in China's education, as well as how the role of English is related to Chinese language and culture. Taking ecological language planning and policy as its conceptual orientation and following an embedded single-case study design, this study explores the role of English and its relationship with Chinese in the English language policies and practices of a Chinese university. Data drawn upon mainly include documents, in-depth interviews, and observational field notes. In addition, questionnaires were administered to document circulating beliefs among teachers and students at this higher education institution. Analysis indicates that English is most valued by its utilitarian value, in particular, the competitive advantage it brings to different stakeholders. Analysis also highlights the dynamic relationship between English and Chinese in the language ecology of this university.

Keywords: language ecology, English language policy, Chinese language and culture, bilingual instruction, case study

Introduction

China's recent national policy has unprecedentedly emphasized the teaching of Chinese in higher education institutions. In September 2006 the General Office of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of China and the General Office of the State Council of China jointly issued "the Outline of Cultural Development during the National Eleventh Five-Year Plan Period." In this outline, as a means to carry on Chinese traditional culture, higher education institutions are urged to provide Chinese course to all their students (The General Office of the CCCPC & The General Office of the State Council of China, 2006).

Such an effort on the part of China's central government reflects the widespread concern in China about language education that while much emphasis has been put on English and English education, Chinese language and culture seems to have been neglected (F. Li, 2004; Y. Li, 2004; Peng, 2005; Tong, 2010; Wu, 2006; Zhang, 2007).

Concerns have arisen over what role English should play in China's education, as well as how the role of English is related to Chinese language and culture (Feng, 2007; Gu, 2006). Some researchers take a utilitarian perspective, arguing that English mainly plays the role of a skill or a language tool in China's economic development and international communication (Chang, 2006; Fong, 2009); however, some consider culture an integral element of language education, and are concerned that English education in China's higher education institutions have emphasized English culture while at the same time neglected Chinese culture (Shi, 2010; L. Xiao, D. Xiao, L. Li, & Song, 2010; Zhou, 2010). Still others are interested in exploring this issue from the perspective of the paradoxical Chinese learning principle of *ti* and *yong*, "Chinese

learning for essence (*ti*); Western learning for utility (*yong*)" (Gao, 2009, p. 60). Norton, Ramanathan, and Pennycook (2009) put forward that "on the one hand, the notion of *ti* [sic] seems to suggest that it is possible to learn a language as a neutral set of structures, leaving cultural identity intact; on the other hand, the notion of *yong* [sic] suggests that any learning … is integral to cultural identity" (p. xi).

However, despite the critical importance of these issues, debates are mostly based on opinions, and few empirical studies have been conducted to investigate these issues. Reagan and Schreffler (2005) point out that of all the educational levels "nowhere is the juxtaposition of English and national languages clearer or more significant than at the tertiary level" (p. 122). The present study explores the role of English in the English language policies and practices of a Chinese university. By doing so, the present study attempts to provide empirical evidence for the accommodation of the issues concerning the role of English as well as its relationship with Chinese in China's higher education institutions.

Language ecology as conceptual orientation

The ecology of language policy provides the present study with significant insights. Haugen (1972) defines language ecology as "the study of interactions between any given language and its environment" (p. 325). In this definition the environment is used in its broad sense beyond the linguistic context and refers to the society where the language is used, together with other languages. In this view, Haugen argues that there are two fundamental features that characterize language ecology, i.e., as "language exists only in the minds of its users, and it only functions in relating these users to one another and to the nature, i.e. their social and natural environment," language ecology is psychological as well as sociological. In other words, according to Hult (2009, p. 89), this view of the ecology of language suggests "a two-fold focus on individual and societal dimensions of multilingualism: How do languages interact in the minds of speakers? How do languages interact in the societies where they are used?"

Researchers who embrace the ecology of language approach to language planning and policy (LPP) especially emphasize the underpinning of multilingualism suggested in the metaphor of ecology (Hornberger, 2002; Mühlhäusler, 1997). In particular, this model essentially sees any language as existing in relation to other languages, as well as its environments, and stresses the significance of environmental support to its sustainability (Hornberger, 2002; Mühlhäusler, 1997). Therefore, highlighted in this model is the importance of sustaining the diversity of languages, which reflects a multilingual rather than a monolingual perspective on language planning (Hornberger, 2002; Mühlhäusler, 1997).

Another major reason that the ecology of language is acclaimed by LPP researchers is its holistic nature in that it suggests the multi-dimensional language practices be linked all together in LPP research. Specifically, it emphasizes relationships between languages, language users, and their social contexts (Hornberger & Hult, 2008; Hult, 2010).

The perspective of the ecology of language is especially instrumental in language policy research concerning the global spread of English. Tsuda (1997) proposes that the issues on the global spread of English can be approached by two alternative paradigms, the "diffusion of English paradigm" (Tsuda, 1994, as cited in Tsuda, 1997, p. 26), or "hegemony of English paradigm," and the "ecology of language paradigm." The hegemony of English paradigm suggests uncritical acceptance of the dominance of English over other languages in intercultural communication, which has detri-

mental impact on other languages and non-English speakers in multiple aspects (Tsuda, 1997). On the contrary, proposed to act against the hegemony of English paradigm, the ecology of language paradigm emphasizes the perspectives such as equality between languages and their speakers in intercultural communication, language rights and maintenance, and multilingualism (Phillipson & Skutnabb-Kangas, 1996; Tsuda, 1997). According to Phillipson and Skutnabb-Kangas (1996), the two paradigms provide a framework to look at language policy issues; in particular, if the hegemony of English paradigm and the ecology of language paradigm represent the "endpoints on a continuum," "language policy initiatives can thus be seen as attempt to shift the political or educational ground toward one end … or the other" (p. 436). And to facilitate multilingualism and language rights, it is the ecology of language paradigm that language policy efforts should be directed towards (Phillipson & Skutnabb-Kangas, 1996).

The ecology of language is not without criticism. One of the sharpest criticisms is made by Pennycook (2004). Pennycook (2004) urges caution on "the political consequences of biomorphic metaphors" associated with the ecological view of language (p. 213). According to Pennycook (2004), the risk with the metaphor of ecology of language mainly lies in that it tends to naturalize the unequal power relations; "language ecology, whether seen as a metaphor or as a relationship between languages and the natural environment, is inevitably tied to this cultural climate to negate the social, cultural and political" (Pennycook, 2004, p. 220). However, in terms of the implications of the ecology of language for LPP, as is suggested by Hult (2007), "we should not dismiss it out of hand but focus on the useful analytical orientations it permits us to take as researchers of multilingual language education policy" (pp. 76-77).

Research Design

The present study follows an embedded single-case study design (Yin, 2009) and was conducted at West University (pseudonym, hereafter WU), with a particular focus on its two schools, i.e., School of English Studies and Business School.

As one of the earliest higher education institutions in China established specifically for foreign language education after the founding of the People's Republic of China in 1949, WU has always been a major site for the instruction of English and other foreign languages, and has played a unique role in foreign language education in China, particularly in the western part of China. Therefore it is a useful illustrative setting for exploring the focal issues of the present study. It is thus considered as information-rich, and an "atypical but theoretically interesting" case for the present study (Duff, 2008, p. 45).

School of English Studies (hereafter SES) is developed from the Department of English, which was founded in the late 1950s. SES has a faculty of about 75 in nine teaching and research divisions. More than 2,000 full-time undergraduate students are registered in the major program of English Language. Business School (hereafter BS) was established in 2002. There are 85 faculty members in eight teaching and research divisions. Of all BS faculty members, 35 are teachers of English, and 50 are teachers of specialized areas. Altogether there are over 2,500 undergraduate students registered in eight programs.

Data were collected between December 2010 and July 2011 and include mainly documents, interviews, observational field notes, artifacts, and questionnaires. Documents were mainly obtained directly in hard copies from individual administrators

and teachers of WU. In addition, the websites of WU, SES, and BS were also accessed for documents published online.

To collect data on the circulating beliefs at the institutional level and to help triangulate against the other data collected, I developed and administered two questionnaires, one for teachers and the other for students, which in qualitative studies may be used as a complementary data collection method (Marshall & Rossman, 2006). Altogether 222 students from BS and 152 students from SES were sampled, following cluster random sampling (Johnson & Christensen, 2008), to participate in the questionnaire for students, and 18 teachers of BS and 20 teachers of SES were sampled through convenience sampling (Dörnyei, 2003) to participate in the questionnaire for teachers.

Based on questionnaire analysis, I selected individual teachers of English and individual teachers of English-Chinese bilingual instruction for one-on-one interviewing, following purposeful sampling (Creswell, 2008). Specifically, I interviewed Hua and Yun, teachers of English from SES, Song and Yi, teachers of English from BS, and Jie and Min, teachers of bilingual instruction from BS. In addition, I also had one-on-one interviews with three administrators, who are Qin, President of WU, Chen, Associate Dean of SES, and Lin, Dean of BS. Pseudonyms are used for all teacher participants.

I developed different interview protocols for the university administrator, school administrators, teachers of English, and teachers of bilingual instruction, all with open-ended questions, in order that "participants can best voice their experiences unconstrained by any perspectives of the researcher or past research findings" (Creswell, 2008, p. 225). Each of the interviews lasted 30 to 60 minutes.

I observed three classrooms of the teachers interviewed. These include two English classrooms, one in SES, "A General Introduction to Britain and the United States," and the other in BS, "Intensive English Reading;" and one bilingual instruction classroom in BS, "Economics." Each class at WU consisted of two 50-minute sessions. I visited and observed these classes for three to four weeks, and took field notes of all my observations. I also collected artifacts, such as lesson plans and classroom handouts.

The analysis of all textual data of the present study, including documents, interview transcripts, observational field notes, and responses to open-ended questions of the questionnaires, was approached by qualitative content analysis as described in Dörnyei (2007). Responses to the closed-ended questions in the questionnaires were approached mainly through counting, and then presented in percentages.

Role of English at West University

Questionnaire responses indicate that in the perceptions of students and teachers, English enjoys a high status in China's higher education. Specifically, 87.7% of student respondents and 84.2% of teacher respondents believe that "English is currently being given high priority in China's higher education." In addition, to students and teachers English is a tool of communication associated with advanced science and technology, modernization, and intercultural communication. Overall 97.9% of student respondents and 97.4% of teacher respondents agree that "English is a tool of communication;" 85.8% of student respondents and 78.9% of teacher respondents consent that "English is associated with modern science and technology;" and almost all student and teacher respondents support the statement that "English plays a critical role in China's modernization and global communication."

In accordance to its high status in the perceptions of student and teacher respondents, English occupies a very important place in Curriculum of Undergraduate Programs of WU (hereafter WU Curriculum) for all major programs, in particular non-foreign language major programs. This is reflected not only in the goal statement of WU Curriculum, but also in its allocation of credit hours to various types of courses across different major programs.

WU Curriculum describes the goal of all major programs as to "cultivate outstanding multi-competent talents with strong foundation, a broad range of specialized knowledge, great foreign language proficiency, superior essential qualities, and a spirit of innovation and practical abilities." As is shown, this goal description identifies five essential qualities that characterize "multi-competent talents," and "great foreign language proficiency" is one of them. In a later section WU Curriculum makes it explicit that to non-foreign language majors, the required foreign language is English. This indicates that English proficiency is seen as one of the essential qualities of all non-foreign language majors of WU.

The privileged status of English is consolidated by the credit hours allocated to it as stated in WU Curriculum. According to WU Curriculum, the curriculum of each major program consists of six components. For foreign language major programs, including English major programs, the component that obtains the most credit hours is major-specific required courses, which take up nearly three fifths of the total credit hours. For non-foreign language major programs, major-specific required courses also receive the most credit hours, but overall they take up only less than two fifths of the total; in comparison, required foreign language courses, which in this case refer to English courses, account for nearly one third of the total credit hours, second to major-specific required courses. So in terms of the allocation of credit hours, concerning non-foreign language majors, English courses are the second most important courses, more important than major-specific elective courses, which reinforces the role of English in the essential qualities of non-foreign language majors of WU.

English and competitive advantage

Analysis indicates that the most important role of English at WU lies in the competitive advantage it brings to various stakeholders of WU. Specifically, to BS and SES English represents their competitiveness; to teachers English may help secure their teaching positions, and to students English means better job opportunities.

English: competitiveness. To BS, the competitive advantage that English brings is mainly achieved through bilingual instruction and TEM-4 and TEM-8 (Test for English Majors Band-4 and Band-8). According to Lin, Dean of BS, also Director of the Department of Teaching Affairs of WU, since 2002 BS has taken various measures to encourage bilingual instruction. These measures include bringing in qualified bilingual teachers and original English textbooks, and setting up incentive system for bilingual instruction. As of summer 2011 BS had had more bilingual teachers than any other schools of WU. Overall bilingual teachers take up over one third of the faculty of BS. In addition, courses of bilingual instruction take up a high percentage of the total courses for various major programs of BS; for example, courses of bilingual instruction for the program of International Economics and Business take up 50% of all its content courses. In each semester there are more than 15 courses of bilingual instruction provided (Interview, June 10, 2011).

To BS, bilingual instruction represents the features of its non-English major programs that distinguish them from those of other schools and universities. When

asked whether or not more courses should be taught bilingually in English and Chinese, Lin says, "Definitely, there is no doubt about this [...] the construction of all major programs has to succeed by its distinguishing feature, and our resource is the foreign language" (Interview, June 10, 2011). According to what Lin says, with bilingual instruction BS gains an advantage in its competition with other schools or universities. Interestingly, while bilingual instruction represents strength to BS, it means weakness to SES. Chen, Associate Dean of SES, says the following:

Bilingual instruction perhaps is, teachers of some schools and departments are not for the moment able to teach in English monolingually, or students are not ready for monolingual English classes, perhaps is transitional [stress original]. But School of English Studies, [students are] all English majors, and then teachers are all required to teach in English, teach in English monolingually; this is the most basic requirement. So this means that there is no way we can carry out bilingual instruction. So sometimes some teachers joke around, saying that the courses that rank last in our school are perhaps the courses of bilingual instruction. (Interview, May 13, 2011)

Chen's words clearly indicate that bilingual instruction is actually not desired at SES. It is a temporary solution to teachers or students' lack of English proficiency for monolingual instruction. To teachers and students of SES the amount of English used in class is an indicator of the quality of a course; less English used in class, less desirable the course.

TEM-4 and TEM-8 also provide BS with competitive advantage. In China's higher education, CET-4 and CET-6 (College English Test Band-4 and Band 6) are English tests intended for non-English majors, and TEM-4 and TEM-8 are English tests intended for English majors. However, all students of WU, regardless of their major programs, are encouraged to take TEM-4 and TEM-8, including non-English majors of BS. Lin explains that this is because "now more and more employers … have found that students who have passed TEM-4 and TEM-8 do have very good English proficiency" (Interview, June 10, 2011). Here the national language policies are negotiated as an effort to better prepare students for job market, given that TEM-4 and TEM-8 are widely recognized in job market as better representative of high level of English proficiency than CET-4 and CET-6.

English: teacher's job security. To some teachers, English help secure their jobs. Min makes the following comments in the interview:

If I teach in Chinese […] I taught in Chinese at the beginning, and if someone comes and he can teach management and he may teach it. All [teachers of] courses in Chinese can be replaced. He can replace [me] and teach organizational behavior and human resources management […] making some preparations, anyone can come and teach. But if you teach in both English and Chinese, it's very hard to find someone to replace [you]. (Interview, May 24, 2011)

With bilingual instruction Min is able to ensure that he will not be easily replaced by other teachers who can only teach in Chinese; if Min teaches in Chinese, it is likely that he loses some of his teaching positions.

English: students' employment opportunities. The view that English enhances students' job opportunities is shared among all the administrators and teachers interviewed. As for English majors, Chen comments that to students of SES "English is their major, and their future employment depends on it" (Interview, May 13, 2011). Lin makes a similar comment in the interview concerning the importance of English to non-English majors:

The major programs in our school [BS] are all on economics, management, and law. These programs, as they cultivate internationalized talents, that is, talents that can adapt to international competition, his English should be very good in the first place. Our goal of cultivation is for the students to have an international vision, and then have intercultural communicative ability, and then be able to work in foreign corporations, organizations and institutions. (Interview, June 10, 2011)

According to Lin, students of BS are expected to be "internationalized talents" working in international workplace, and to achieve this, English proficiency is the most important precondition. In addition to Chen and Lin, teachers also perceive employment opportunities as a very important objective of students' English learning. For example, when talking about the benefits of English learning to students, Song says,

[The benefit of] English to them is obvious, because in addition to their knowledge on their specialized areas, the employers also evaluate their competence in English speaking and listening […] practical objectives, what else do you think it would be? (Interview, May 23, 2011)

As is shown, English is seen as highly instrumental in bringing students competitive advantage in job market. This view is also widely shared among students, as indicated by questionnaire responses.

English and Western Culture

To students and teachers of SES and BS, learning English also means learning culture, especially American culture. Analysis of questionnaire responses shows that the vast majority of student and teacher respondents agree that "learning English is to learn about Western culture too" and that "English is associated with American culture." When asked whether he thinks that English can be learned as a culture-free tool, Song says "absolutely not." He then further explains that "culture is inseparable from language; otherwise, language is water without source" (Interview, May 23, 2011). In fact, according to Hua, learning culture is encouraged by teachers of English because "to have a better grasp of this language you should not only learn the language but also learn about this country and its culture as well" (Interview, May 30, 2011).

Students and teachers also show a preference for Western culture, particularly American culture. Concerning her students' attitudes towards American culture, Hua says the following:

I have found that there is a phenomenon with English majors, that is … they have a kind of, especially popular culture of the United States, sometimes I feel that, they have a blind admiration without screening or judgment, for example, American soap operas, many students in my class, when we have presentations in class, are talking about American soap operas, are talking about American Hollywood movies, running after them. (Interview, May 30, 2011)

Here Hua expresses her concern that students have a blind admiration for American culture. In addition to students, teachers also prefer Western culture. When asked what culture is usually focused on in his class, Song says, "[I] suggest students to read some classics, such as the Bible, Greek and Roman mythology, to understand Western culture" (Interview, May 23, 2011). Similarly, when asked the same question, Yun says, "A lot, British culture and American culture, such as the Bible, Greek and Ro-

man mythology, their local traditions and customs, and religions, and so forth" (Interview, May 26, 2011)

What Yi says in the interview provides a possible explanation as to why Western culture, especially American culture, is preferred in teaching. To Yi, the course book used for his intensive reading course has placed great emphasis on the United States. Commenting on the course book, he says, "I think the biggest problem [with the course book] is the narrow scope of the readings it has included […] almost ninety percent of the readings are about the United States. So I deliberately skipped some readings" (Interview, May 24, 2011).

Yi resists the excessive focus on the United States by skipping readings that he thinks are redundant. Shohamy (2006) remarks that "policies often take the form of specific curricula that ensure that the policy is implemented; it is then translated into textbooks and other types of materials" (p. 79). Based on what Yi says, and given that the coursebook Yi uses is from a key series for English education in China's higher education institutions, it can be reasonably inferred that China's national language policy concerning English education in higher education institutions has emphasized Western culture, in particular American culture, which is then translated into course materials.

Relationship between English and Chinese in circulating beliefs

Questionnaire results show that students and teachers at WU are highly positive about the relationship between English and Chinese. Most student and teacher respondents perceive that Chinese is especially important for foreign language majors, and that learning English positively affects Chinese and Chinese culture. In particular, 83.7% of student respondents and 83.3% of teacher respondents agree that "all Chinese university students should be required to take Chinese classes," and at the same time, 71.8% of student respondents and 71.5% of teacher respondents believe that "Chinese classes are more important to students that are majoring in foreign languages than students that are not majoring in foreign languages." In addition, 85.2% of student respondents and 94.5% of teacher respondents disagree that "English learning has negative impact on Chinese language and culture." At the same time, 76.9% of student respondents and 75% of teacher respondents agree that "English learning has positive impact on Chinese and Chinese culture."

A mutually facilitative relationship

The view that Chinese lays the foundation for foreign language learning is widely held among the teachers interviewed. Saying that "how can you improve your English if your Chinese is not good," Yi believes that students' proficiency in Chinese sets a limit on their proficiency in English (Interview, May 24, 2011). According to Hua and Chen, Chinese helps develop students' thoughts and critical thinking, which facilitates their English learning (Interview, May 30, 2011; Interview, May 13, 2011).

In Song's point of view, English learning also facilitates Chinese learning; for example, to translate a Chinese prose into English, students need to have a very good understanding of the original Chinese prose in the first place (Interview, May 23, 2011). In this point of view, English learning is not at the cost of Chinese learning, or vice versa; instead they facilitate each other.

Positive impact of English learning on Chinese culture

Different teachers interviewed talk about the different aspects of the positive influence of English learning on Chinese culture. Qin believes that a culture that is vigorous is a culture that opens to innovation and change, and the more open a culture, the stronger its vitality (Interview, May 20, 2011). Min holds a similar viewpoint that Chinese civilization was fully developed in ancient times, and in modern time Western civilization has developed faster; therefore it is good for Chinese culture to absorb the positive side of Western civilization (Interview, May 24, 2011). To Yi and Yun, more knowledge about Western culture facilitates deeper understanding of it, which provides students with a critical perspective to examine it, and further, the comparison between Western culture and Chinese culture helps students better understand Chinese culture (Interviews, May 24, May 26, 2011).

In addition, it is also held that students' attitudes towards Chinese culture are not necessarily associated with the influence of Western culture. To Jie, it is students' own attitudes towards Chinese culture that matter:

> If you really identify with your national culture, you won't be disturbed by foreign culture in your process of learning foreign languages. But if [you] don't identify, even if there is no disturbance of foreign culture, you are not going to identify with your national culture, and you become someone that has no culture and no belief, and this is it. (Interview, May 24, 2011)

To Jie if Western culture has influence on someone, it has less to do with learning English than with his or her own belief in Chinese culture.

These perceptions point to the possible functional links between English and Chinese. Not only Chinese has a role in the learning of English, but also English has a role in the learning of Chinese. In addition, Western culture is perceived as having multiple positive influences on Chinese culture. Mühlhäusler (1997) remarks that the functional links between languages construct "a mutually supportive system" (p. 5) in the ecology of language. These perceived links between English and Chinese should therefore be instrumental to a linguistic ecosystem that supports both languages.

Relationship between English and Chinese in classrooms

Evidence has been found that in both bilingual instruction and English classrooms, where more English use is always preferred, Chinese plays roles that seem irreplaceable.

English and Chinese in bilingual instruction classrooms
To both Min and Jie, the use of English as the medium of instruction should not be at the cost of students' comprehension of content knowledge, and Chinese plays an important role in their instruction (Interviews, May 24, 2011). My observation of Jie's classes illustrates how English and Chinese interact in Jie's bilingual instruction.

> During the class the teacher uses Chinese for all explanations and English for key terms and definitions. Occasionally the teacher gives instruction to students in English as well. When talking about monopolistic competition, the teacher says, "shuode haoting dian, jiao hezuo; shuode nanting dian, jiao gou-

jie [to say it nicely it is cooperation; to say it bluntly it is collusion]. […] gua-
tou longduan de goujie jiao rongyi, liru OPEC, danshi yehui 'hejiu bifen fenjiu
bihe,' goujie yiduan shijian hou youren dapo, ranhou you yishidao goujie de
haochu, youzai goujie [Oligopolistic collusion is easier, for example OPEC.
But 'separation after long combination and combination after long separation,'
they collude for a while and then someone breaks the collusion, and then the
benefit of collusion is recognized, and so they collude again]." The students
burst into laughter. Later in class when talking about an example, the teacher
uses a Chinese traditional idiomatic expression "maidu huanzhu [purchasing
the casket and returning the jewels in it] to help with students' comprehen-
sion." (Field notes, May 25, 2011)

As is shown in the above excerpt, Chinese is very important in Jie's class; Chinese is
the language that is used for all the explanations of the content. In addition, the use of
"hejiu bifen fenjiu bihe [separation after long combination and combination after long
separation]," and "maidu huanzhu [purchasing the casket and returning the jewels in
it]," which are traditional Chinese idioms, and "goujie", which, in addition to being an
economic terminology, is also used in plain Chinese and has negative connotation
meaning collaboration for wrongful acts, not only facilitates students' comprehension
but also entertains students; the role of Chinese in this case may not be replaced by
English.

English and Chinese in English classrooms

Code switching (Sridhar, 1996, p. 56) is a salient characteristic of Yi and Hua's Eng-
lish classes. Hua and Yi, and their students often switch codes from English to Chi-
nese, and they code switch for different purposes.

   For clarification. Chinese is often used for clarification of understanding in
English classrooms. For example, after she introduces "Henry VIII," *Hua* repeats the
name of the king in Chinese by saying "hengli bashi" (Field notes, May 23, 2011).
Another example is with one of *Yi*'s classes. The following is an excerpt of my obser-
vational field notes of one of *Yi*'s classes where after several unsuccessful attempts of
using English to ask *Yi* a question, the student switches to Chinese.

   A student asks Yi a question in English. She repeats her question several times,
   but it still does not make sense to Yi. Then Yi asks the student in English to re-
   peat her question in Chinese, but the student does not hear Yi clearly, and then
   almost the whole class join Yi and tell the student in Chinese in cho-
   rus,"zhongwen, zhongwen [Chinese, Chinese]." The student then understands,
   and repeats her question in Chinese. (Field notes, May 23, 2011)

Apparently the student who asks the question has some difficulty communicating with
Yi in English, and code switching to Chinese here serves as a "strategic competence"
strategy "to compensate for breakdowns in communication" (Canale & Swain, 1980,
p. 30).
   For ease of communication. Sometimes Chinese is used for ease of communi-
cation. Once when explaining a quote of John F. Kennedy, "For only when our arms
are sufficient beyond doubt can we be certain beyond doubt that they will never be
employed," Yi says to the class that he happened to have read a Chinese quote days

ago that is analogous, and he tells the class the Chinese quote in Chinese, which is, "yi ge ren didiao de yuanyin shi ta you shili keyi suishi gaodiao [the reason why someone keeps a low profile is that he has the power to become high profile at any time he wants] ." With the help of the Chinese quote students make sense of Kennedy's quote easily (Field notes, May 18, 2011). In another hour, Yi asks the students to summarize the characteristics of the Americans. A boy student sitting in the back row says out loudly to the class and Yi, "American culture is zhimin wenhua [colonial culture]." Another girl student says, "Americans are baofahu [nouveau riche]," and the whole class burst into laughter (Field notes, June 1, 2011). In these two instances of code mixing (Sridhar, 1996, p. 57), the students switch to Chinese probably because they do not know the English phrases.

For important topics. Chinese is used by both Hua and Yi when the topic is important to students. For example, when introducing question types of the final exam, Hua uses Chinese, and students take notes of what she says (Field notes, June 13, 2011). In Yi's classes, when making important explanations about translating techniques, Yi uses Chinese.

Other purposes. Hua and Yi also switch to Chinese to make announcements or to give comments and suggestions. For example, at the end of a class, Hua announces to the class in Chinese, "zuo presentation de tongxue qing dao wo zheli lai yixia [those who are going to present please come to me]" (Field notes, May 23, 2011).

In the English classes, Chinese does not play a prominent role in teaching as it does in the class of bilingual instruction; however, as is shown in the instances of code switching, teachers as well as students employ Chinese for various communicative purposes, some of which may not be achieved as successfully if English is employed instead. In addition, as code switching and code mixing also serve the function of "identity marking" (Sridhar, 1996, p. 58), Chinese may have been used by the students and teachers as an index of their Chinese identity in both *Hua*'s and *Yi*'s classes.

As is shown in the above analysis, in the English classes and the class of bi- lingual instruction I observed, there is space for both English and Chinese in instruction, and each has roles that may not be replaceable. This suggests that in the ecology of these classrooms English and Chinese may be functionally "structured" (Mühlhäusler, 1997, p. 4).

Conclusion

Analysis indicates that West University highlights the utilitarian value of English, in particular, the competitive advantage English brings to different stakeholders. The "supporting habitat" (Mühlhäusler, 1997, p. 5) of English includes, for example, its privileged status reflected in the curriculum, and its perceived association with Western culture, in particular American culture.Concerning how English is related to Chinese, in the perceptions of students and teachers and classroom practices at West University, English and Chinese are functionally linked in multiple ways. Not only Chinese learning and English learning are perceived as mutually facilitative, but also English and Western culture are seen as having positive impact on Chinese culture. English and Chinese are also functionally linked in classroom practices. In both English classes and the class of bilingual instruction, English and Chinese each plays roles that may not be replaced by each other. This illustrates the "structured" functions (Mühlhäusler, 1997, p. 4) of English and Chinese in the ecosystem. The rela-

tionship between English and Chinese represented in the policies and practices of West University is also characterized by a hierarchy where English is positioned over Chinese. The superiority of English is constructed by the perceived association between English and the highly valued domains of use (Sridhar, 1996, p. 53), i.e., access to advanced science and technology, modernization, international communication, competitive advantage, and Western culture, and is further reinforced by the factors that have contributed to its habitat.

Evidence is also found that at West University national language policies are carried out, and yet at the same time are negotiated or resisted. Examples include non-English majors being encouraged to take TEM-4 and TEM-8, and the teacher of English avoiding excessive attention to American culture by bypassing certain contents in the course book, which illustrate that there is often disparity between language policy and its implementation (Hornberger, 1998), and that at different educational levels, language policies could be "interpreted, negotiated, and ultimately (re)constructed in the process of implementation" (Menken & Garcia, 2010, p. 1).Mühlhäusler (1997) suggests that a functional and sustainable ecosystem where new species are introduced means on the one hand "the disempowerment … of killer plants … in creating a situation … that will weaken their spread," and on the other hand "increasing links between different species" (p. 13). As far as English and Chinese in higher education are concerned, for China's educational language planning and policy to protect the language ecology, issues need to be addressed concerning the hegemony of English, and the functional links between English and Chinese.

Inequalities in relation to the dominance of English exist not only between societies but also within societies (Tollefson, 1991). The fact that English is seen by students and teachers of West University as a linguistic instrument indispensable to China's economic development in the era of globalization implies the impact of global dominance of English on China's educational language planning and policy concerning English education in higher education institutions. In addition, According to Tsuda (1997, p. 23), behind the hegemonic power of English is "the reality of unequal power relations existing in the world." At West University, behind the competitive advantage English provides to different stakeholders is a socially stratifying function of English, producing inequalities among universities and their schools, as well as teachers and students. Based on Mühlhäusler's (1997), apart from addressing issues concerning the hegemony of English, for the linguistic ecosystem to sustain, efforts are also required to establish and facilitate functional links between English and Chinese. In addition, Mühlhäusler (2000) remarks that the linguistic ecosystem is "layered" (p. 341) in terms of the use of languages for intragroup or intercultural communication, and that "it is layered functionality complementary ecology that provides these functional links and keeps the ecology balanced" (p. 342). As is already pointed out in the analysis, possible evidences of such links are found in the practices at West University. At this point I suggest that more efforts be taken to research in this direction.

References

Canale, M., & Swain, M. (1980). Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing. *Applied Linguistics, 1*(1), 1-47.

Chang, J. (2006). Globalization and English in Chinese higher education. *World Englishes, 25*(3/4), 513-525.

Creswell, J. W. (2008). *Educational research: Planning, conducting, and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Dörnyei, Z. (2003). *Quesionnaires in second language research: Construction, administration, and processing*. Mahwah, NJ.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Dörnyei, Z. (2007). *Research methods in applied linguistics: Quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methodologies*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Duff, P. A. (2008). *Case study research in applied linguistics*. New York: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Feng, A. (2007). Intercultural space for bilingual education. In A. Feng (Ed.), *Bilingual education in China: Practices, policies and concepts* (pp. 259-286). Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.

Fong, E. T. Y. (2009). English in China: Some thoughts after the Beijing Olympics. *English Today, 25*(1), 44-49.

Gao, Y. (2009). Sociocultural contexts and English in China: Retaining and reforming the cultural habitus. In J. L. Bianco, J. Orton & Y. Gao (Eds.), *China and English: Globalisation and the dilemmas of identity* (pp. 56-78). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.

Gu, P. Y. (2006). Towards a coherent foreign language policy in China: Lessons from Hong Kong. *Asian Journal of English language teaching, 16*, 67-87.

Haugen, E. (1972). The ecology of language. In A. Dil (Ed.), *The ecology of language: Essays by Einar Haugen* (pp. 325-339). Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.

Hornberger, N. H. (1998). Language policy, language education, language rights: Indigenous, immigrant, and international perspectives. *Language in Society, 27*(4), 439-458.

Hornberger, N. H. (2002). Multilingual language policies and the continua of biliteracy: An ecological approach. *Language Policy, 1*(1), 27-51.

Hornberger, N. H., & Hult, F. M. (2008). Ecological language education policy. In B. Spolsky & F. M. Hult (Eds.), *The handbook of educational linguistics* (pp. 280-296). Malden, MA: Blackwell.

Hult, F. M. (2007). Multilingual language policy and English language teaching in Sweden. *Dissertation Abstracts International, A: The Humanities and Social Sciences, 68*(05), 1778.

Hult, F. M. (2009). Language ecology and linguistic landscape analysis. In E. G. Shohamy & D. Gorter (Eds.), *Linguistic landscape: Expanding the scenery* (pp. 88-103). New York: Routledge.

Hult, F. M. (2010). Analysis of language policy discourses across the scales of space and time. *International Journal of the Sociology of Language, 202*, 7-24.

Johnson, B., & Christensen, L. (2008). *Educational research: Quantitative, qualitative, and mixed approaches* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA.: Sage.

Li, F. (2004). Yingyu rechao xia dui hanyu de leng sikao [Reflections on the status of Chinese in the English craze]. *Wuhan University Journal (Humanity Science), 57*(4), 499-502.

Li, Y. (2004). *Dangqian yuyan shenghuo de wenti jiqi duice [Problems in current language situation and the solutions]*. Paper presented at the The Fourth National Academic Seminar on Social Linguistics, Beijing.

Marshall, C., & Rossman, G. B. (2006). *Designing qualitative research* (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA.: Sage.

Menken, K., & Garcia, O. (2010). Introduction. In K. Menken & O. Garcia (Eds.), *Negotiating language policies in schools: Educators as policymakers* (pp. 1-10). New York: Routledge.

Mühlhäusler, P. (1997). Language ecology - contact without conflict. In M. Pütz (Ed.), *Language choices: Conditions, constraints, and consequences* (pp. 3-15). Amsterdam, the Netherlands: John Benjamins.

Mühlhäusler, P. (2000). Language planning and language ecology. *Current Issues in Language Planning, 1*(3), 306-367.

Norton, B., Ramanathan, V., & Pennycook, A. (2009). Preface. In J. L. Bianco, J. Orton & Y. Gao (Eds.), *China and English: Globalisation and the dilemmas of identity* (pp. ix-xiii). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.

Peng, Z. (2005). "Yinghan shuangyu jiaoxue" gen "guojia hanyu zhanlue" maodun: Yuyan xuejia nankai daxue boshisheng daoshi Ma Qingzhu jiaoshou fangtan lu [The conflict between English-Chinese bilingual instruction and national strategy of Chinese: An interview with the linguist Ma Qingzhu]. *Journal of Beihua University (Social Sciences), 6*(2), 24-27.

Pennycook, A. (2004). Language policy and the ecological turn. *Language Policy 3*(3), 213 - 239.

Phillipson, R., & Skutnabb-Kangas, T. (1996). English only worldwide or language ecology? *TESOL Quarterly, 30*(3), 429-452.

Reagan, T., & Schreffler, S. (2005). Higher education language policy and the challenge of linguistic imperialism: A Turkish case study. In A. M. Lin & P. W. Martin (Eds.), *Decolonisation, globalization: Language-in education policy and practice* (pp. 115-130). Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.

Shi, L. (2010). Qianyi daxue yingyu jiaoxue zhong zhongguo wenhua jiaoxue de queshi [On the lack of Chinese culture in English teaching in higher education institutions]. *Huazhang, 19*.

Shohamy, E. (2006). *Language policy: Hidden agendas and new approaches*. New York: Routledge.

Sridhar, K. K. (1996). Societal multilingualism. In S. L. McKay & N. H. Hornberger (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics and language teaching* (pp. 47-70). New York: Cambridge University Press.

The General Office of the CCCPC, & The General Office of the State Council of China. (2006). *Guojia "shiyi wu" shiqi wenhua fazhan guihua gangyao. [The outline of cultural development during the national eleventh five-year plan period]*. Beijing, China: People's Publishing House. Retrieved from http://www.gov.cn/jrzg/2006-09/13/content_388046.htm

Tollefson, J. W. (1991). *Planning language, planning inequality: Language policy in the community*. London: Longman.

Tong, X. (2010, May 12). Quanqiuhua xia de waiyu jiaoyu zhengce [Foreign language policy under globalization]. *Guangming Daily*. Retrieved from http://edu.gmw.cn/2010-05/12/content_1118820.htm

Tsuda, Y. (1997). Hegemony of English vs. ecology of language: Building equality in international communication. In L. E. Smith & M. L. Forman (Eds.), *World Englishes 2000* (pp. 21-31). Honolulu: College of Languages, Linguistics and Literature, University of Hawai'i and the East-West Center.

Wu, L. (2006, October 30). Muyu wenhua "shiyu" xianxiang fansi [Reflections on the phenomenon of "Chinese culture aphasia"]. *Guangming Daily*. Retrieved from http://www.gmw.cn/content/2006-10/30/content_495452.htm

Xiao, L., Xiao, D., Li, L., & Song, Y. (2010). Gaoxiao yingyu jiaoyu zhong de "zhongguo wenhua shiyu" xianzhuang yanjiu [A study on the "Chinese culture aphasia" in the English education in higher education institutions]. *Foreign Language Teaching, 1*.

Yin, R. K. (2009). *Case study research: Design and methods* (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Zhang, W. (2007, September 3). Yingyu re zhong hanyu de diwei ruhe baochi [How to maintain the status of Chinese in the English craze]. *Guangming Daily*. Retrieved from http://news.xinhuanet.com/theory/2007-09/03/content_6652769.htm

Zhou, X. (2010). Daxue yingyu jiaoxue zhong zhongguo wenhua shiyu xianxiang de yanjiu [A study on "Chinese culture aphasia" in university English education]. *Journal of Language and Literature Studies, 5*, 152-159.

Note on Contributor

Hongmei XU is a lecturer at Xi'an International Studies University. She holds a Ph.D. degree in Culture, Literacy and Language from the University of Texas. Her major research interest is educational language planning and policy with a focus on issues concerning English and Chinese education in China's higher education institutions. Email: xuhongmei@xisu.edu.cn

Past-Time Marker -*ed* in the Speech and Written Work of Indonesian English Majors

Maskanah Mohammad Lotfie
International Islamic University Malaysia

Diyah Fitri Wulandari
Sultan Agung Islamic University, Semarang, Indonesia

Idha Nurhamidah
Sultan Agung Islamic University, Semarang, Indonesia

Abstract

This paper presents a descriptive investigation on verbal and written use of past-time inflectional marker -*ed* by Indonesian English majors. Given that English has a foreign language status in Indonesia, acquiring grammatical forms and specific to this study, the -*ed* inflection, is challenging to learners. Difficulties in acquiring the form is amplified by cross-linguistic influence as the majority of EFL learners in Indonesia speak Javanese as their first language and Indonesian as the second, while exposure to English and to this study's temporal target form is minimal. The salience of -*ed* and its allomorphs plays a part in determining the learners' usage of the form, with syllabic forms predicted to be perceptually more prominent and easier to acquire. Thirty undergraduates who were English Literature and English Education majors in Central Java participated in this study. Due to the two-fold nature of the investigation, data were collected using two instruments; one elicited written usage of the target form while the other stimulated the participants' verbal output. Although there were missing -*ed* inflections where obligatory, results suggest students' ease and considerable consistency in using the written form of the -*ed* temporal marker. On the contrary, the English majors generally used the default form of the regular verbs when -*ed* allomorphs [t], [d] and [ɪd] were required in their speech. To a certain extent, cross-linguistic influence and saliency are relevant in discussing the acquisition of the forms. Instructional intervention should help the English majors and others comparable to them, whose closer approximation to Standard English is very important, in completing their university academic programmes as well as in enhancing chances of employability which includes teaching English.

Keywords: Past-time inflection, -*ed* allomorphs, Indonesian EFL users, English majors, cross-linguistic influence, salience

Introduction

A common language is needed for communication in Indonesia, a vast country of more than 1400 islands and 700 spoken languages (Lewis, 2009). It is stated in the constitution of Indonesia that Indonesian or Bahasa as it is referred to in Indonesia is its national language (Ministry of Education and Culture, 2011). Javanese is another influencing linguistic feature of Indonesia and it is the mother tongue of approximately 75 million people in Java (UCLA Language Materials Project, 2014). Other languages like Sundanese and Madurese are spoken on the island but by relatively smaller groups of people. The usage of English, which has a foreign language status, is in a

distant third place in Java. To use the term from Kachru's (2005) concentric circles model of countries where English has been diffused, Indonesia belongs to the Expanding Circle. Its status is reflected in terms of language curriculum in public schools where English is currently taught from junior high school but an optional subject at elementary level (Kirkpatrick, 2012). This would mean that many Indonesian children start formal English instruction from the age of 13 making the exposure to the language limited by the time they enter higher education institutions, compared to their counterparts in most other countries in ASEAN (Association of Southeast Asian Nations). With those linguistic dynamics in mind, this paper presents an investigation on Indonesian English majors' use of a specific morphological form, the -ed past-time marker, a form that has often been reported as challenging for non-native speakers of English to acquire (Lotfie, Salleh, & Kadir, 2015; Lotfie, Kadir, & Pilus, 2016, Napitupulu, 2002; Widyastuti, 2015). This investigation also comparatively describes the written and verbal use of -ed by the English majors.

The English language -ed inflection, Perceptual Salience Hypothesis and cross-linguistic influence

The English language, although it is a less synthetic language after evolving for more than 1500 years (Lieber, 2016), has a set of inflections that indicate temporality. References to the past or past-time are differently marked in irregular and regular verbs and the scope of this study is the latter. The inflection -ed of verbs indicates pastness in past tense forms (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 1999).

The written marker -ed, however, has allomorphic differences in speeches. Allomorph refers to variant pronunciations of a morpheme determined by phonological, grammatical or lexical contexts. In Standard English, the additive allomorphs of -ed are represented by three variants that are phonologically determined by preceding sounds (Carstairs-McCarthy, 2002). The allomorphic features are summarized in Table 1.

Table 1
Features of the English language -ed allomorphs

	Preceding sound	Allomorph	Examples
1	[t] or [d]	[ɪd] or [əd]	*branded, prodded, agitated, elected*
2	Voiceless	[t]	*clapped, picked, renounced* (non-syllabic)
3	A vowel or a voiced consonant	[d]	*played, mugged* (non-syllabic)

Table 1 summarises the sounds preceding the allomorphs [ɪd]/[əd], [t], and [d], provides examples of inflected regular verbs and shows that while verbs followed by [ɪd] has syllabic forms, those with [t] and [d] are non-syllabic. Table 1 also shows that when the last consonant of the verb ends with a [t] or a [d], native speakers would insert the epenthetic vowels of either [ɪ] or [ə] (LeBlanc & Koffi, 2013).

This study draws attention to the concept of salience in acquiring linguistic items. Salience refers to a linguistic item's property that makes it perceptually and cognitively prominent (Kerswill & Williams, 2002). Goldschneider and DeKeyser (2001) state that perceptual salience is the ease of hearing or perceiving a given linguistic feature, unit, or structure and may be related to the available mount of phonet-

ic substance and lexical stress level in an input. The Perceptual Salience Hypothesis predicts that a second language learner faces fewer difficulties in perceiving and producing a syllabic grammatical suffix than a non-syllabic one (Klein et al., 2003). Syllabic forms are more perceptually salient (Solt et al., 2004) and may assist acquisition of a form due to learners' noticing the items easier. The English past-time *-ed* has three allomorphs which are [ɪd], [d] and [t], so the syllabic [ɪd] as in "agitated" should hypothetically be the easier for second language (L2) learners to perceive and produce compared to [d] as in "played" and [t] as in "announced" which are non-syllabic. The link between saliency, syllabic forms and usage of *-ed* allomorphs is later explained in the discussion section.

This paper also highlights cross-linguistic influence or language transfer in acquiring a language. Cross-linguistic influence concerns the significance of mother tongue in the acquisition of a second language (Odlin, 2003). This concept is based on Contrastive-Analysis Hypothesis which emphasizes predicting difficulties faced by learners learning a language according to structural differences between the native language and that of the target language (Lado, 1957). From cross-linguistic influence perspective, the past-time *-ed* and its allomorphs would be difficult for Javanese speakers of English to acquire because a comparable form does not exist in both Indonesian and Javanese. It was predicted that the form and its allomorphs could not be easily produced by the participants of this study in both verbal and written forms, though the findings suggest the multifaceted nature of language acquisition where cross-linguistic influence is present but not all encompassing.

Temporal reference and past-time forms in Indonesian and Javanese

This section provides an overview on past-time indicators of the participants' national language (Indonesian) and mother tongue (Javanese). Indonesian is categorised as a language with a verb system that does not require the use of inflectional markers (Boroditsky, Ham, & Ramscar, 2002; Deterding & Poedjosoedarmo, 2001; Prentice, 1987). In other words, its verbs do not undergo change of default forms and do not require morphological alterations in indicating temporality. The notion of time in the language is signalled by the use of verbs with adjuncts of time (Sneddon, 1996) and adverbials (Puspitorini, Suhardiyanto, & Yuwono, 2014). The adjuncts include *sekarang* (now) and *besok* (tomorrow), and examples of adverbials are *sedang, masih,* and *akan*. Both *sedang* and *masih* indicate on-going processes while *akan* refers to the future.

Specifically, *kemarin* (yesterday) as well as *telah, sempat, pernah* and *sudah* (all four could represent the auxiliaries "has", "have" or "had") are used to indicate past time. *Kemarin* is an adjunct of time, while *telah, sempat, pernah* and the most frequently used *sudah* are adverbials or aspect markers (Grangé, 2010). The following sentences using the verb *pulang (to return, to come back)* provide the illustration that the adjunct and the adverbials provide time reference while the verb remains in its default form.

(1) *Laila pulang ke Yogya kemarin.*
Laila returned to Yogya yesterday.
(2) *Laila sempat pulang sebentar.*
Laila (has) managed to return for a while.
(3) *Laila pernah pulang sekali sebelum kecelakaan itu.*
Laila had returned once before that accident.

(4) Laila sudah pulang.
  Laila has returned.
(5) Laila telah pulang ke Rahmatullah.
  Laila has returned to God.

Examples (1) to (5) show that there is no change in *pulang* regardless of the different temporal references, while the English equivalent of *pulang,* return, vary in attached inflectional form. It should be noted that in (4) and (5), *telah* and *sudah*, share the same meaning. However, *sudah* is more commonly used, unlike *telah* which often denotes poetic or religious undertones in the message. The usage of *telah* in a religious context is exemplified in (5) whereby a person's passing is described as returning to God.

In Javanese, past time is traditionally expressed in two ways; through context and temporal markers. The examples are as follows. In (6) and (7), Javanese examples are followed by Indonesian ones.

(6) *Motormu kok apik banget, tukumu ing ngendi?*
   Motormu kok bagus sekali, kamu membelinya dimana?
   Your motorcycle is great, where did you buy it?

Example (6) does not employ any time signal nor an equivalent to verbal English past tense marker *-ed*. The context provides the meaning that the action of buying the motorcycle occurred in the past.

 (7) Aku tilik putu wingi.
   Saya jenguk cucu kemarin.
   I visited my grandchild yesterday.

In (7), an example from Mintaraga and Tofani (n.d.), the verb *tilik* is inflectionless but paring it with *wingi (kemarin,* yesterday) indicates its pastness. In addition, *wingi as* exemplified in (7), an adjunct of time to mean "yesterday", may be paired as follows: *wingi esuk (kemarin pagi,* yesterday morning), *wingi sore (kemarin sore,* yesterday afternoon), and so forth. It may also be specifically marked with a day, a month or a year and in such structure means "last" as in *Rejeb wingi (Rajab kemarin,* last *Rajab – Rajab* being the 5th month of the Islamic calendar) and *tahun wingi (tahun kemarin,* last year). Other temporal markers are *mau* or *dhek (tadi,* just now) and can be used such as follows: *mau/dhek esuk (tadi pagi,* this morning) and *mau bengi (tadi malam*, last night*).*

It is reiterated that the indicators for temporal references are hugely different between both Indonesian/Javanese and English whereby the Indonesian and Javanese verb systems are devoid of inflectional temporal markers (Boroditsky, Ham, & Ramscar, 2002; Deterding & Poedjosoedarmo, 2001; Prentice, 1987) and by extension, allomorphic forms. Javanese as well as Indonesian do not have the equivalent form of the English past-time inflectional marker *-ed*. Both languages employ adjuncts of time and adverbials to indicate past-time.

Limited studies have been found on the acquisition of English language inflections by Indonesian/Javanese EFL students. The available ones include Ihsan (1988), Napitupulu (2002), Widyastuti (2015), and Zhang and Widyastuti (2010). The researchers essentially found that their participants face difficulties in acquiring the inflection *-ed.* Ihsan (1988) reported in his study that Indonesian students who were

learning English followed grammar rules inconsistently and this was especially true for present and past tenses. Similarly, Napitupulu (2002) carried out a study on the problems of erroneous forms in the written essays of tertiary level students. After concord, sentence fragments and participle forms, tense errors were high with 69.64% of the errors on past-time forms. It can be deduced from the findings of both studies that Indonesian EFL learners have difficulties in acquiring temporal markers including -*ed*.

Zhang and Widyastuti (2010) carried out a research identifying the stage of morphological development for three participants who were a family from Indonesia, after having lived in Australia for a year. It should be highlighted that the environment in which their subjects learned English had changed from foreign language to naturalistic. In assessing the acquisition outcome of morphemes, the participant showed emerging usage of morphological items such as plural –*s* and progressive *be+V-ing,* but not past-time -*ed*. The authors attributed the problem in acquiring the form to first language (L1) transfer where no morphological inflection is used in Indonesian to mark past-time. It should be noted that the data elicited for this study by Zhang and Widyastuti was from participants' speech while no written evidence was solicited.

In a study on Indonesian EFL learners' developmental stages, all participants who were second year university students were observed to have not acquired the -*ed* form (Widyastuti, 2015). Most of the participants used default English verb forms while speaking even though the contexts of the conversations during data collection were designed to elicit past forms. Widyastuti proposed that one of the reasons for the finding was that their first language, Indonesian, caused interference in acquiring the target language. The participants who were English majors did not regularly use English among course mates but showed preference for their mother tongue. When they did speak English, they were not particularly concerned with morphological conventions, aiming only to be understood. In the case of Javanese Indonesian students learning English, the second language could cause interference too as to most of them Javanese is their L1 while Indonesian is L2. This is the setting in which the current study is carried out.

The current study is an investigation of not only Indonesian students' written use of the -*ed* form in past-time references, but also their oral production of the –*ed* allomorphs. In other words, this study seeks to find out about Javanese English majors' usage of -*ed* in written and verbal forms. Relevant to that purpose of investigation are studies on Malaysian students by Lotfie et al. (2015, 2016) as the first study investigated past-time forms in the written English of English majors while the second investigated -*ed* allomorphs in social science undergraduates' speech. Lotfie et al. (2015) found that of the two inflectional forms required in referring to the past (-*en* and -*d*), the students were more successful in producing the latter. In Lotfie et al. (2016), results indicated that the students' verbal usage of the target items lacked approximation to Standard English pronunciation or the forms were largely dropped altogether. The two studies are also relevant because the national language of participants in those studies and the current (Malay and Indonesian) historically share the same linguistic roots. Instruments from Lotfie et al. (2015, 2016) have been adapted for the current study.

Methodology

In this study, two piloted instruments were used to provide data for textual analysis. The tests are as follows:

1. Verbal Output Test (VOT) - Participants spoke individually on the topic "My Childhood". Each student's verbalisation was recorded for 7 minutes.
2. Written Output Test (WOT) - Participants wrote an essay on "My Childhood" emphasising their life in childhood days and during school years as well as their achievements in life.

Data collection involved 30 English Literature and English Education under-graduates at a university in Central Java, Indonesia. English Literature refers to a programme where students undergo four years of studying English literature and linguistics while English Education refers to a programme that prepares students to teach the English language. After having obtained consent from the participants, data collection procedure started with WOT followed by VOT. Data from VOT were transcribed and two coders classified past-time *-ed* usage according to the three allomorphs [t], [d] and [ɪd] (Carstairs-McCarthy, 2002) and checked against Jones, Gimson, and Ramsaran (1989). Another category was added to account for verbs with obligatory use of *-ed* but were missing in the students' speech. The WOT essays were coded by 2 coders and target items, where obligatory, were identified, classified and calculated. The summary of the design of the research is shown in Table 1.

Table 2
Summary of research design

	Research Question	Data collection	Data Analysis - Content analysis
1	How do Indonesian English majors pronounce the English language -*ed*allomorphs?	Verbal essay on "My Childhood"	Obligatory usage of -*ed*identified. Categorised according to allomorph variants and missing -*ed*allomorphs. Frequencies and percentages calculated.
2	How do Indonesian English majors use past-time regular verb marker -*ed*in their written output?	Written essay on "My Childhood"	Obligatory usage identified. Categorised according to whether the -*ed* marker was used or missing. Frequencies and percentages calculated.

Findings and Discussion

Indonesian English majors' usage of English past-time –ed allomorphs in their speech

The results of *-ed* allomorph usage are shown in Table 3.

Table 3
Usage of -ed allomorphs in English majors' speech

	Standard English -ed allomorphs	Verbs requiring -ed allomorphs	Tokens of verbs marked with -ed allomorphs				Tokens of unmarked verbs	Total
			/t/	/d/	/ɪd/	/əd/		
1	[t]	16	2	6			27	35 18.23%
2	[d]	31		42			63	105 54.69%
3	[ɪd]/[əd]	13			1	32	19	52 27.08%
			2 2.41%	48 57.83%	1 1.20%	32 38.56%		
	Total	60		83 43.23%			109 56.77%	192 100%

Table 3 summarises *-ed* allomorphs in Standard English, the number of verbs used by the participants in their speech, the tokens of inflected allomorphs according to their variants and the unmarked ones. A total of 60 regular verbs where *-ed* allomorphs were obligatory were used by the students. Repeated usage produced the total number of verb tokens of 192 (100%). Of that total of verbs requiring *-ed* allomorphs, the participants marked fewer than half of them (43.23% - 83) in their speech while 56.77% (109) were unmarked. Of the 3 allomorphic variants for *-ed*, 18.23% (35) required [t], 54.69% (105) [d] and 27.08% (52) [ɪd]/[əd]. The analysed data show that from the total of marked verbs, [d] is the most frequently used (57.83% - 48) and this followed by the combination of [ɪd] and [əd] (39.76% - 33), while [t] was only found twice in the participants' speech. The following tables will provide allomorph-specific explanations.

The *-ed* allomorph variants are described next starting with [t], the allomorph when it occurs, is preceded by voiceless sounds (Carstairs-McCarthy, 2002) as in the [k] in "ask" and [ʃ] as in "crash" (Table 4).

Table 4

Usage of -ed allomorph [t] in English majors' speech

	Verbs in default form	Tokens of marked verbs as pronounced by students		Tokens of verbs with unmarked -ed allomorphs
		/t/	/d/	
1	ask		1	8
2	crash			1
3	finish			4
4	force		1	
5	influence		1	
6	laugh			1
7	learn	1		3
8	like	1		2
9	look			1
10	pass		1	
11	push			1
12	punish			2
13	shock		2	1
14	spoil			1
15	talk			1
16	work			1
		2 5.74%	6 17.13%	27 77.13%
	Total	35 100%		

Note: "Learn" and "spoil" can also be placed in [d] allomorph category but placing the unmarked items there does not change the finding.

Table 4 shows the 16 verbs used in the English majors' speech. Repeated usage resulted in 35 verb tokens altogether. The table also shows that in the case of the allomorph [t], only 2 were produced, as in /lɜ:nt/ and /laɪkt/, while 6 participants produced the –ed verb inflections with [d] sound, as exemplified by /æskd/, /fɔ:sd/, and /ɪnflʊənsd/. It can be concluded that where [t] is required in the past forms of the verbs, the participants essentially left the verbs unmarked (77.13% - 27).

Table 5 summarises the results for the –ed allomorph variant [d]. In Standard English, this variant is employed when the preceding sounds are either a vowel/diphthong or a voiced consonant, as in [u:] in "continue' and [l] in "call".

Table 5
Usage of -ed allomorph [d] in English majors' speech

	Verbs in default form	Tokens of verbs marked with /d/	Tokens of unmarked verbs
1	argue		3
2	answer		1
3	call	1	1
4	change	2	
5	continue	4	6
6	cry	2	
7	die	2	
8	embarrass		1
9	enrol		2
10	enter	2	
11	follow	4	2
12	happen	1	7
13	help		3
14	join		2
15	live	1	9
16	love		3
17	move	1	2
18	name	1	
19	occur	1	
20	play	8	2
21	reach		1
22	realize		1
23	remember	1	2
24	share	1	
25	show		1
26	stay		2
27	study	5	8
28	surprise		1
29	train	1	
30	try	3	
31	use	1	3
		42	63
		40%	60%
	Total	105	
		100%	

Table 5 shows the results for the allomorph [d] in the participants' speech. Similar to the results for [t], the allomorph [d] is required in 105 verbs but only 40% (42) of that total were marked with the allomorph while the rest, 60% (63), were unmarked. Of the 31 verbs produced by the participants, the [d] required in /kəntɪnju:d/, /hæpənd/ and /lɪvd/ seem have been unmarked the most by the EFL speakers.

Table 6 summarises the results for -*ed* allomorph [ɪd]/[əd]. Their usage is required when the -*ed* inflections are preceded by [t] or [d] sounds as in "decide" and "expect".

Table 6
Usage of -ed allomorph [ɪd] or [əd] in English majors' speech

	Verb in default form	Tokens of verbs as pronounced by students		Tokens of unmarked verbs
		/ɪd/	/əd/	
1	command			1
2	decide		5	
3	divide		1	
4	expect		1	
5	graduate		17	2
6	interest		1	
7	invite			2
8	motivate		1	
9	need			1
10	pretend		1	
11	reject		1	
12	start		1	3
13	want	1	3	10
		1	32	19
		1.92%	61.54%	36.54%
	Total	52		
		100%		

Table 6 shows 52 verb tokens that require the allomorph [ɪd]/[əd]. Only 1 was pronounced with the Standard English [ɪd] in /wantɪd/ while the rest were produced favouring the schwa /əd/ (61.54% - 32). It should be noted that unlike the results in other allomorphic categories [t] and [d], fewer *-ed* inflections (36.54% - 19) were unmarked in this category of verbs. "Want" is an example of a verb that is often unmarked by the participants, while "graduate" is almost always marked. It can be summarised that:

1. Of the 3 allomorphic possibilities for *-ed*, [d] is the most frequently used and this is followed by [ɪd]/[əd] while [t] was minimally found in the speech of the English majors.
2. More than half of the required *-ed* allomorphs were produced in default form or unmarked by the participants. The highest is [d] and a similar observation can be said of [t] suggesting that at this point of the English majors' usage of English, dropping the required Standard English allomorph is consistently occurring.
3. In the case of *-ed* preceded by voiceless sounds, the allomorphic variant [əd] are used for items that are largely pronounced [ɪd] in Standard English. In other words, the [əd] allomorph is overwhelmingly favoured over [ɪd] by the participants. In general, the [ɪd]/[əd] options were different from [t] and [d] whereby a lower percentage were unmarked.
4. In terms of saliency and that syllabic forms should be easier for learners' to acquire (Solt et al., 2004; Kerswill & Williams, 2002; Klein et al., 2003), there is evidence that this is supported by the results above where syllabic verbs requiring [əd] allomorph were inflected relatively more that the rest.

Indonesian English majors' written use of past-time marker-ed

The summary of results for the written usage of *-ed* is presented in Table 7. Detailed results listing all verbs appear in Appendix - Table 8. Although focussing on the written use of *-ed* past-time inflection, Table 7 summarises the verbs used by the participants according to allomorphic variants for the purpose of comparing written and verbal output where appropriate.

Table 7
Written usage of -edby Indonesian English majors

	Standard English -ed allomorphs	Tokens of -ed inflected verbs	Tokens of un-marked verbs	Total
1	[t]	31	10	41
2	[d]	101	11	112
3	[ɪd]/[əd]	77	14	91
	Total	209	35	244
		85.66%	14.34%	100%

Table 7 summarises the participants use of verbs requiring *-ed* inflection to mark past-time. The participants used 85 verbs (see Appendix) but repeated usage of some verbs in their output resulted in 244 tokens of verbs used in total. Of that total 85.66% (209) were marked with the required inflection while 14.34% (35) were unmarked. Akin to the result for the participants' speech, among verbs with the highest number of usage are "graduated" and "continued" and the two are consistently inflected in their written form while verbs including "want", "start" and "live" are at times unmarked. The result of the written output differs greatly than that extracted from the participants' speech. The verbs were largely marked than unmarked in the students written essays.

The findings of this study, like studies before it (Ihsan, 1988), Napitupulu, 2002, Widyastuti, 2015, Zhang & Widyastuti, 2010) confirm the problems that Indonesian EFL learners' difficulties in acquiring the past-time inflection *-ed. S*pecifically, however, it can be deduced that the participants in this study were largely successful in producing the required inflection in written usage. Unlike their usage of *-ed* allomorphs in their speech, there seems to be no evidence to suggest that the participants consistently produce the forms according to any particular allomorphic categories nor can it be said that their use of past-time *-ed* inflections reflects the notion of saliency. If the latter was the case, the non-syllabic forms would have emerged to have more missing target inflection.

Conclusion

Utilising both verbal and written data, this study presents Javanese English majors' usage of past-time *-ed* and their approximation to Standard English in *-ed* allomorphs usage. The findings suggest the students' acquisition of the form has stabilised more in their written output but conspicuously less so in their speech. In their speech, the English majors showed the preference or ease of use for certain allomorph variants -[d] for *-ed* preceded by a vowel or a voiced consonant, and [ed] and not [ɪd] for those preceded by [t] or [d] sounds. The English majors of this study remarkably showed consistency in using the *-ed* temporal marker in their written output, providing evidence that their L1 (Javanese) and L2 (Indonesian) may not have caused interference despite the differences in marking past-time in those two languages and in English.

Nevertheless, the results for the verbal usage support to a certain extent the notion that one's mother tongue influences the acquisition of a target language. The inflectionless nature of Indonesian and Javanese languages may have influenced the participants acquisition of the *-ed* allomorphs. Cross-linguistic influence is evident in the speech of the English major participants in this study whereby more default form of verbs were used when *-ed* was obligatory. The lack of approximation to Standard English pronunciation of the three *-ed* allomorphs also indicate the presence of language transfer. There is also evidence that the Perceptual Salience Hypothesis is supported by the findings for the verbal data of this study. Due to the findings for the speech of the participants, it could have been predicted that the same would apply to the written output. However, language transfer is less detected in the written form where the use of default form is considerably minimal.

As previously mentioned, the results for the written work and the speech of the participants indicate that the English majors applied the required inflection in the written work more successfully than their verbal output. Investigating the reasons for this interestingly contrastive phenomenon is beyond the scope of this study but it could be predicted preliminarily that this was cause by non-linearity of writing compared to speaking. The spontaneity of the latter did not allow the students the time to apply the morphological rule that they know as is apparent in their written work. It is also possible that the difference in the findings for the written and spoken output could be caused by the participants being in an EFL and therefore presumably largely passive non-robust environment for English language learning. They had more practice in writing than in speaking and consequently received more feedback on written form than spoken form.

This study, though limited by the relatively small data size, has provided preliminary evidence on the use of the past-time marker *-ed* by Indonesia EFL students. Their ability in their written work that is not matched by their speech suggests that they could benefit from formal instruction that will expose them and allow them to practise the form orally. The participants involved in this study were English majors so such instruction that encourage approximation to Standard English, for not only the specific case of *-ed* and its allomorphs but also other linguistic items, can allow them to be effective in their academic courses and programmes and also help in the future where the job market is tremendously competitive. These intriguing contradictory findings between the written and spoken usage of the Indonesian EFL learners need to be further investigated and ideally with a larger data.

References

Boroditsky, L., Ham, W., & Ramscar, M. (2002). What is universal about event perception? Comparing English and Indonesian speakers. Proceedings from: *The 24ʰ Annual Meeting of the Cognitive Science Society*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Carstairs-McCarthy, A. (2002). *An introduction to English morphology: Words and their structure*. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.

Celce-Murcia, M., & Larsen-Freeman, D. (1999). *The grammar book: An ESL/EFL teacher's course.* (2nd ed.). Boston: Heinle & Heinle.

Deterding, D. H., & Poedjosoedarmo, G. R. (2001). *The grammar of English: Morphology and syntax for English teachers in Southeast Asia.* Boston: Prentice Hall.

Goldschneider, J. M., & DeKeyser, R. M. (2001). Explaining the "Natural order of L2 morpheme acquisition" in English: A meta-analysis of multiple determinants. *Language Learning, 51*(1), 1-50.

Grangé, P. (2010). Aspect and modality in Indonesian. The case of *sudah, telah, pernah,* and *sempat. Wacana*, *12*(2), 243-268.

Ihsan, D. (1988). *A linguistic study of tense shifts in Indonesian-English interlanguage autobiographical discourse*. (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Ball State University, United States of America.

Jones, D., Gimson, A. C., & Ramsaran, S. (1989). *English pronouncing dictionary.* (14th ed.). London: J. M. Dent & Sons Ltd.

Kachru, B. B. (2005). *Asian Englishes: Beyond the canon*. Hong Kong: Hong Kong University Press.

Kerswill, P., & Williams, A. (2002). "Salience" as an explanatory factor in language change: Evidence from dialect levelling in England. In M. C. Jones (Ed.), *Language change*: *The interplay of internal, external and extralinguistic factors* (pp. 64-81). New York: Mouton de Gruyter.

Kirkpatrick, A. (2012). English as an Asian Lingua Franca: The 'Lingua Franca Approach' and implications for language education policy. *Journal of English as a Lingua Franca, 1*(1), 121–139.

Klein, E. C., Stoyneshka, I., Adams, K., Rose, T., Pugach, Y., & Solt, S. (2003). Past tense affixation in L2 English: the effects of lexical aspect and perceptual salience. *The CUNY Graduate Centre*: New York. Retrieved from http://www.bu.edu/bucld/files/2011/05/28-klein.pdf

Lado, R. (1957). *Linguistics across cultures*. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.

LeBlanc, D., & Koffi, E. (2013). A laboratory phonology account of the past tense suffix <-ed> and its allomorphs. *Linguistic Portfolios, 1*(15), 1-12. Retrieved from, http://repository.stcloudstate.edu/cgi?article=1013&context=stcloud_ling

Lewis, M. P. (2009). Ethnologue: Languages of the world. (16th ed.). *SIL International*. Retrieved from http://www.ethnologue.com/product/19-Report-ID

Lieber, R. (2016). *Introducing morphology.* (2nd ed.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Lotfie, M. M., Kadir, A. M., & Pilus, Z. (2016). The *-ed* allomorphs of Malay speakers of English and linguistic knowledge types. Third International Conference on Language, Literature and Society 2016. 18-19 January. Bangkok, Thailand.

Lotfie, M. M., Salleh, N. A., & Kadir, A. M. (2015). Malay English users' past-time inflectional output and linguistic knowledge types. *Asiatic, 9*(2), 139-157.

Ministry of Education and Culture. (2011). *Legislations of the Republic of Indonesia number 24 year 2009 on Flag, Language, and National Symbols, as well as National Anthem.* Jakarta. Agency for Improvement and Development of Language: Indonesia.

Mintaraga, B., & Tofani, M. A. (n.d.). *Pinter pepak Basa Jawa.* Surabaya: Anugrah.

Napitupulu, S. (2002). *Analisis kesalahan sintaksis karangan Bahasa Inggris jurusan Bahasa Inggris FKIP Universitas HKBP Nommensen Pematang Siantar.* (Unpublished MA dissertation). Universitas HKBP Nommensen Pematang Siantar: Indonesia.

Odlin, T. (2003). Cross-linguistic influence. In C. Doughty & M. Long (Eds.), *Handbook of second language acquisition* (pp. 436-486). Oxford: Blackwell.

Prentice, D. J. (1987). Malay (Indonesian and Malaysian). In B. Comrie (Ed.), *The world's major languages* (pp. 129-142). London: Routledge.

Puspitorini, D., Suhardiyanto, T., & Yuwono, U. (2014). *Jalan bahasa: Pelajaran praktis tata Bahasa Indonesia.* Jakarta: Penaku.

Solt, S., Pugach, Y., Klein, E. C., Adams, K., Stoyneshka, I., & Rose, T. (2004). L2 perception and production of the English regular past: Evidence of phonological effects. *The CUNY Graduate Centre:* New York. Retrieved from http://www.zas.gwz-berlin.de/fileadmin/mitarbeiter/solt/bu_paper.pdf

Sneddon, J. N. (1996). *Indonesian reference grammar.* St Leonards, NSW: Allen & Unwin.

UCLA Language Materials Project. (2014). *Javanese.* UCLA International Institute, Center for World Languages. Retrieved from http://lmp.ucla.edu/Default.aspx

Widyastuti, I. (2015). A processability theory study: Past *-ed* acquisition in university learners in Indonesia. *Ahmad Dahlan Journal of English Studies, 2*(3), 78-84.

Zhang, Y., & Widyastuti, I. (2010). Acquisition of English morphology: A family case study. *Australian Review of Applied Linguistic, 33*(3). 29.1-29.17.

Note on Contributors

Maskanah MOHAMMAD LOTFIE, a graduate from Moray House College of Education, Scotland and Universiti Putra Malaysia, is attached to the Department of English Language and Literature, International Islamic University Malaysia. Her areas of interest are morphology, historical and cultural concerns of language acquisition, language policy and research design. Email: maskanah@iium.edu.my

Diyah Fitri WULANDARI is a lecturer at the Faculty of Languages and Communication Studies, Sultan Agung Islamic University, Semarang, Indonesia. Her interests are morphological and literary studies. Email: diyahfitriwulandari88@gmail.com

Idha NURHAMIDAH is also a lecturer at the Faculty of Languages and Communication Studies, Sultan Agung Islamic University, Semarang, Indonesia. Her research interests include phonology, pragmatics, sociolinguistics and studies on poetry. Email: idhanurhamidah@unissula.ac.id

Appendix

Table 8 shows evidence that the participants produced 85 verbs requiring –*ed* inflection to mark past-time. Though focussing on the written use of -*ed* inflection, the table lists the verbs according to allomorphic variants for the purpose of comparing participants written and verbal output. It should be noted that 'learn' appears twice, once under the [t] category of and another under [əd] to reflect how the verb was produced by the participants.

Table 8

Written usage of -edby Indonesian English majors in written output

	Verbs in default form	Standard English -*ed*allomorphs	Tokens of -*ed*inflected verbs	Tokens of unmarked verbs	Total
1	ask	[t]	4	1	
2	base		1		
3	dip		1		
4	dress		1		
5	finish		1	1	
6	force			1	
7	help		1	2	
8	join		4	2	
9	laugh		1		
10	learn		1		
11	like		3	1	
12	look		1	1	
13	pass		5		
14	pick		1		
15	sentence		1		
16	shock			1	
17	talk		1		
18	walk		2		
19	watch		1		
20	work		1		
			31	10	41
21	absorb	[d]		1	
22	abuse		1		
23	allow		2		
24	belong		1		
25	call		5		
26	change		1		
27	command		2		
28	continue		10		
29	cry		3		
30	deliver		4		
31	embarrass		1		
32	enrol		2		
33	enter		5		
34	experience		1		

35	fill		1		
36	follow		1		
37	happen		8		
38	learn		3	1	
39	live		9	3	
40	love		5		
41	move		6		
42	name		2		
43	order			1	
44	organize		1		
45	perform		1		
46	play		8		
47	realize		5		
48	refuse		1		
49	register		3		
50	remove		1		
51	show		1	1	
52	spoil		2		
53	stay			1	
54	strengthen		1		
55	struggle			1	
56	surprise		1		
57	try		1		
58	turn			1	
59	use		1		
60	welcome		1	1	
			101	11	112
61	accept		1	1	
62	accompany		3		
63	bully		3		
64	avoid		1		
65	award		1		
66	bike			1	
67	complete		1		
68	contribute		1		
69	decide		5	1	
70	end		1		
71	expect	[ɪd]/[əd]	1		
72	flood			1	
73	graduate		29		
74	hate		2	1	
75	locate		1		
76	motivate		1		
77	protest			1	
78	provide		1		
79	scold			1	
80	separate		1		
81	start		6	3	

82	study		7		
83	taste		1		
84	want		8	3	
85	waste			1	
86	treat		2		
			77	14	91
	Total		209 (85.66%)	35 (14.34%)	**244 (100%)**

Effectiveness of implementing world Englishes in English language curricula

Mami Orikasa
Dokkyo University, Japan

Abstract

Although world Englishes and various teaching practices in English as an international language (EIL) have been recommended for English language curricula, the effectiveness of including a variety of Englishes in such curricula has not been fully examined. This small-scale study investigated the effectiveness of exposure to world Englishes among undergraduate students at a public university in northeast Japan. The students (*N* = 48) watched web-based news and presentations regularly (e.g., *NHK World*) in English from home and abroad, featuring native and non-native English speakers, and responded to comprehension questions. After 13 weeks of intervention, the students completed a survey questionnaire that used a 5-point Likert scale. Responses to closed-ended items in the survey were generally positive; the intervention appeared to contribute to broadening students' view of the world, and it increased their awareness of the varieties of English currently used. In addition, the majority of the participants positively evaluated "good Japanese English" as a variety of international communication, unlike those in previous studies who had a contrasting view. However, the class did not seem to provide the students with a full sense of participation in the world of English users due to a lack of sufficient interaction in English with other EIL users. Limitations and pedagogical implications of the study are also discussed.

Keywords: EIL, world Englishes, inner circle, expanding circle

Introduction

While English is used by both native and non-native speakers around the world, scholars have called for instruction of world Englishes in school curricula to nurture the language development of users of English as an international language (EIL). Such development should move in the direction of an expanding circle (Kachru, 1985), where English is learned as a foreign language for the purpose of international communication, as English users in schools have few opportunities to encounter a variety of Englishes, relative to those in the inner and outer circles. In the expanding circle, the English language instruction at school is generally the main source of input; hence, exposure to varieties of English needs to increase in curricula to nurture EIL users and to reflect the current use of English worldwide. In Japan, which is situated in the expanding circle, such efforts have been observed in recent years, (D'Angelo, 2012; Hino, 2009, 2012a) while the curricular orientation towards the inner circle varieties of English (native English), particularly, American and British varieties, is still evident in school curricula. For example, assistant language teachers (ALTs) recruited through the Japan Exchange and Teaching (JET) Program are primarily from inner circle countries, comprising 96.5% of the 3,824 ALTs in 2010 (CLAIR, 2010). Seventh grade English textbooks also represent inner circle varieties, mainly American English (Matsuda, 2002a). Additionally, in education programs across 95 Japanese

universities, American and British English are still the most commonly taught models (Matsuda, 2009).

As a result, the reliance on inner circle varieties of English has had an impact on the attitudes of Japanese teachers and learners of English towards the English language, including a preference for native speakers to model the production of the language, devaluation of Japanese English, and the belief that native speakers hold sole ownership of English (Chiba & Matsuura, 1995; Matsuda, 2003a; Saito & Hatoss, 2011; Sasayama, 2013, Tokumoto & Shibata, 2011). Furthermore, the orientation towards inner circle varieties may hinder successful communication in the international context. Smith and Nelson (2006) have pointed out that a lack of familiarity with different speech varieties could negatively affect how one interprets interpersonal exchanges conducted in various Englishes. In fact, the preference shown by the Japanese educational system for inner circle English models influences students' performance on the Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC), which reflects inner circle norms. Orikasa (2016) notes in her study that, among Japanese university students, TOEIC scores are significantly correlated with the length of time spent learning English, indicating that the current English education in Japan may be suitable for learning inner circle varieties, but not varieties of English outside the inner circle.

Several scholars have critiqued the focus on inner circle varieties of English in English Language Teaching (ELT) in Japan (Chiba & Matsuura, 1995; Kubota, 2002; Hino, 2009; Matsuda, 2002a, 2003a, 2009), many of whom have recommended including a variety of Englishes in English language curricula (Chiba & Matsuura, 1995; Kubota, 1998; Matsuda, 2002b; Matsuura, Chiba, & Fujieda, 1999) and implementing EIL teaching practices that are suitable for local cultural contexts (Hino, 2009, 2012a, 2012b; McKay, 2010). In response to these recommendations, world Englishes and EIL have been added to curricula in some schools. Chukyo University in Japan introduced the first World Englishes undergraduate program in the country (D'Angelo, 2012), which expanded to its affiliate high school (Lee, 2012). At Osaka University, Hino (2012a) developed a pedagogical method called integrated practice in teaching English as an international language (IPTEIL), which utilizes authentic materials, such as printed and televised media from all over the world so that students can watch, read, talk about real-time events, and compare how news is reported by different sources. Hino also stresses the importance of involving learners' legitimate peripheral participation in the community of practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991) in the EIL context, where Japanese students can gain access to language learning opportunities through interacting with foreign students in English. The IPTEIL method has received positive reactions from students (Hino, 2012a). On the other hand, Kubota (2001) examined the effect of the instruction of world Englishes on American high school students, using different speech samples including American and international varieties of English. She found that individual students responded differently to the notion of world Englishes, revealing the difficulty of instructing students with different life experiences and attitudes in linguistic diversity.

In these previous studies, insightful and meaningful discussions have been made regarding the implementation of world Englishes and the effect of EIL teaching practices with world Englishes. However, the effectiveness of introducing such practices in real classrooms has not been fully examined, particularly in the EFL context. The effect of world Englishes as resources for learners who have little access to them is an under-researched area and further study is required to gain more insight into the usefulness of varieties of English in the classroom. Thus, following the IPTEIL method,

the present study attempted to examine the effectiveness of exposure to varieties of English in the context of Japanese EFL, using online news and presentations as a pedagogical method for nurturing EIL users' language development. The chief goal of the study was to investigate, via the abovementioned pedagogical method and a survey questionnaire, the ways in which listening to varieties of English was effective for learning, and how the Japanese variety of English was perceived among Japanese university students.

Method

This study followed the IPTEIL method developed by Hino (2012a), using authentic teaching materials and a survey questionnaire. However, to adapt to the context of this study, the author took an approach that differed from Hino's study in the following ways: no print media was used for teaching materials; comprehension quizzes were developed and administered to students to check their level of understanding of video clips they watched; and the internal consistency of the reliability of the survey was measured. The present paper addressed the following two research questions.

1. In what ways are listening to varieties of English effective for Japanese students?
2. How do Japanese students perceive their local variety of English when being exposed to other varieties of English?

Participants
Forty-eight (26 male and 22 female) undergraduate Japanese students participated in the study, all of whom were native Japanese speakers enrolled in an English for general purposes (EGP) course in the fall semester of 2014-2015 at a small, public university in northeast Japan. The students were in education programs, and their ages ranged from 18 to 24 years (M = 19.0, SD = 1.01). The students had been learning English for at least six years at middle and secondary schools before entering the university. The students' average Institutional Program (IP) TOEIC score was 470.87 (SD = 31.51, min = 400, max = 540), which suggests that the participants had lower intermediate levels of English proficiency. Based on their TOEIC scores, the students were placed in the selected EGP class. In addition, a participating instructor was the author of this study, an L1 Japanese speaker. The majority of students had little overseas experience; 15 of them (31.2%) had traveled abroad for a short period of time, and one had lived in Canada for one year (2%). A questionnaire was conducted at the beginning of the semester to determine students' familiarity with English varieties (*N* = 48). Most students found American English familiar, and some students mentioned other varieties, such as British, Japanese, Australian, Korean, and Chinese English (Table 1). These versions represent typically familiar English varieties among students learning English in Japan. During the semester, they watched news and presentations in different varieties of spoken English and took comprehension quizzes made by the instructor. At the end of the semester, 42 students (23 male and 19 female) responded to a survey questionnaire about their experience in the class.

Table 1
Familiar varieties of English among participants (N=48)

English variety	N
American	40
British	9
Japanese	5
Australian	2
Korean	2
Chinese	1

Note. Some participants provided more than one response for their familiar varieties.

Instrument

An IPTEIL class questionnaire (Hino, 2012a) was used to examine the effectiveness of exposure to varieties of English as well as perceptions of the Japanese variety of English among participants. A paper-based questionnaire was completed in both English and Japanese, by combining the English version (Hino, 2012a) and the Japanese version (received through personal contact with Hino) (see Appendix 1). The questionnaire consists of eight closed-ended items with a 5-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree; 2 = moderately disagree; 3 = neutral, 4 = moderately agree; 5 = strongly agree). To estimate the internal consistency of the study's reliability, Cronbach's alpha was employed.

Teaching materials

Teaching materials consisted of news and presentation video clips obtained from the Internet (e.g., *NHK World*, *Aljazeera*, and *TED*). News videos from *NHK World* were most frequently used, as they provided the latest updates about a variety of topics from both home and abroad. Each news video was approximately five minutes long, while each presentation was about 20 minutes long. As for the video clips from *TED*, Japanese subtitles were displayed due to the difficulty of the terminology used in presentations; it should be noted that the benefit of using subtitles for listening comprehension has been supported by previous studies (Borras & Lafayette, 1994; Guillory, 1998). The speakers in the video clips were from countries of all three circles, such as the United States, the Philippines, and Japan, with the intention of exposing students to different varieties of English and cultural values. In addition, many of the English varieties were selected from those of Asian countries, since many Japanese people have an opportunity to communicate with Asian people in English today through business, tourism, and education (Honna, 2005). A teacher-made comprehension quiz was also used in this class to monitor students' levels of understanding of the video clip they watched each week. The instructor prepared the quizzes in English, including cloze tests, true-false questions, and summary writing. Quizzes were designed with respect to the content as well as the length of the clips (see Appendix 2).

Procedure

Each class began with a brief introduction of a news topic or presentation covered in class, along with some relevant questions. For instance, when news about rabies from Myanmar was covered in week six, the instructor briefly discussed with students what they knew about Myanmar, including the geographical location and the history of the country. Next, news was played through a built-in projector in the classroom using a computer connected to the Internet. Students watched one web-based video clip once each week, or two to three times if time allowed. To check how well the students understood the video clips, a comprehension quiz, created by the instructor, was administered. Activities took 30-40 min of a 90-minute class. However, when students were not able to complete the quiz within the time limit or when they wanted to review certain clips multiple times, the instructor allowed the quiz to be taken home and submitted the following week. At the end of the semester, an IPTEIL class questionnaire was administered to the students to determine the ways in which exposure to the different varieties of English was effective for learning and how Japanese English was perceived by Japanese university students.

Schedule for listening to varieties of English

Table 2 presents the course outline for listening to varieties of English in the class, which began in the second week of the fall semester of 2014-2015 and continued for 13 weeks. While a different topic was chosen each week so that the students could be exposed to new and interesting themes, speakers for news programs or presentations were also carefully selected for their variety of English, representing countries from all three circles.

Table 2
Course outline for listening to varieties of English

Week	Topic	Network	Speakers' nationalities	Quiz
2	Shinkansen	NHK World	Japan	cloze
3	Takoyaki	NHK World	Indonesia	cloze
4	Bhutan's happiness	NHK World	Bhutan/Japan	cloze
5	Cigarettes	NHK World	South Korea	cloze
6	Rabies	NHK World	Myanmar	cloze
7	Cheating	NHK World	Cambodia	cloze
8	Education	NHK World	Afghanistan	cloze
9	Soccer	NHK World	India	cloze
10	Tragic sacrifice	NHK World	Philippines	cloze
11	Whaling	NHK World	Japan	cloze
12	Japan's Ainu	Aljazeera	UK/Japan	true-false
13	English education	TED	UK	summary
14	Tech innovation	TED	US	summary

Results

This section presents the results of the eight closed-ended items in the IPTEIL class questionnaire (Table 3), which was administered at the end of the semester to examine the ways in which listening to the different varieties of English was effective for learning and how the Japanese variety of English was perceived among Japanese university students. A Cronbach's alpha (α) of 0.79 was achieved.

In Q1, when the learners were asked whether they had learned to see things from multiple perspectives, 27 students (64.3%) moderately agreed, and 13 students (31%) strongly agreed; two (4.8%) were neutral. In Q3, 22 respondents (52.4%) moderately agreed, and 12 respondents (28.6%) strongly agreed that the class had facilitated their understanding of the world; whereas eight students (19%) were neutral. The responses to Q1 and Q3 seem to suggest that the class helped broaden students' views of the world. Q4 asked whether the class had helped students get acquainted with English as it is used in the real world, to which 21 students (50%) moderately agreed, and 16 students (38.1%) strongly agreed; whereas five respondents (11.9%) were neutral. Q5 inquired whether the class had helped them become familiar with the cultural diversity of English, to which 12 respondents (28.6%) moderately agreed, and 24 respondents (57.1%) strongly agreed; six students (14.3%) were neutral. These responses to Q4 and Q5 appear to show that the students learned how English is currently used worldwide. In addition, the students perceived an improvement in their English skills during this semester. Q6 asked whether the class had facilitated the students' reading skills development: twenty-two students (52.4%) moderately agreed, and 14 students (33.3%) strongly agreed; however, five respondents (11.9%) were neutral, and one respondent (2.4%) moderately disagreed. In response to Q7, all of the students indicated that the class had assisted them in improving their listening skills in English. Twenty students (47.6%) moderately agreed, and 22 students (52.4%) strongly agreed.

However, compared with the questions discussed above, the students did not respond affirmatively to Q8, which asked whether "good Japanese English" is a valuable means of international communication. The concept of "good Japanese English" in this study refers to Japanese English that is internationally intelligible and capable of expressing Japanese values (Hino, 2009, 2012b). To this question, 16 respondents (38.1%) moderately agreed, and 11 (26.2%) strongly agreed, two (4.8%) moderately disagreed, one (2.4%) strongly disagreed, and 12 (28.6%) were neutral. Although the majority of the respondents answered favorably, nearly one in three students were indecisive. Furthermore, the students were divided on Q2 when asked whether they felt that they had genuinely participated in the world of English users. Thirteen (31%) moderately agreed, and seven (16.7%) strongly agreed; while three (7.1%) moderately disagreed, and 19 (45.2%) were neutral. Ostensibly, a tendency to choose neutral responses seemed to appear in this question.

Table 3
Class questionnaire results (N=42)

Questions	*M*	*SD*	strongly disagree		neutral		strongly agree
			1	2	3	4	5
1. In this class, I have learned to see things from multiple perspectives.	4.3	0.5	0%	0%	4.8%	64.3%	31.0%
2. In this class, I have felt that I am really participating in the world of English users.	3.6	0.9	0%	7.1%	45.2%	31.0%	16.7%
3. This class has been useful for improving my international understanding.	4.1	0.7	0%	0%	19.0%	52.4%	28.6%
4. This class has been useful for getting acquainted with English used in the real world.	4.3	0.7	0%	0%	11.9%	50.0%	38.1%
5. This class has been useful for becoming familiar with the cultural diversity of English.	4.4	0.7	0%	0%	14.3%	28.6%	57.1%
6. This class has been useful for improving my reading skills in English.	4.2	0.7	0%	2.4%	11.9%	52.4%	33.3%
7. This class has been useful for improving my listening skills in English.	4.5	0.5	0%	0%	0%	47.6%	52.4%
8. 'Good Japanese English' is a valuable means of international communication.	3.8	1.0	2.4%	4.8%	28.6%	38.1%	26.2%

Discussion

This section addresses two research questions in light of the results of the IPTEL questionnaire discussed in the previous section. Some of the results from the questionnaire will be selected to address each question here. First, research question 1 sought to determine the ways in which listening to varieties of English was effective for learning. The four questions (Q1, Q3, Q4, and Q5) that addressed skills required for communication in the international context received more than 80% agreement rates; thus, this suggests that listening to varieties of English helped the students develop multiple perspectives, nurture international understanding, and learn about the cultural diversity of English and varieties of English spoken in the real world. The responses to these four questions indicate intentional, positive results, from the instructor's perspective.

Furthermore, positive results unexpectedly came from other questions as well. As shown in the responses to Q7, all students strongly or moderately agreed that the class had helped them improve their listening skills. This indicates that students perceived their improvement in listening skills by monitoring their level of comprehension of the delivered content across varieties of English each week. An explanation for the 100% agreement rate in Q7 is presumably due to the intensive listening that was required to comprehend the course content and to take comprehension quizzes. Some of the students took the quizzes home, if they wanted to, to repeatedly listen to the video clips, which might have facilitated their listening skill development. The

comprehension quizzes perhaps also served as supplementary material to help the listeners review how accurately they understood the content. In addition, the responses to Q6 showed that 85.7% strongly or moderately agreed that the class had helped them improve their reading skills in English. Although this class was not reading-focused, the agreement rate was high. A possible explanation is that readings in this class suited their level of proficiency, as the readings were prepared and selected considering their proficiency level. One student also mentioned in a conversation with the instructor after class that the level of the class was very suitable for him. Overall, the students seemed to take in-class activities seriously and be motivated to work on both reading and listening activities.

In contrast, their responses were less positive in Q2 when asked whether they felt that they had really participated in the world of English users; while 47.7% strongly or moderately agreed, the rest were neutral or moderately disagreed. This agreement rate is low, compared with the questions discussed earlier. The high rate of disagreement may be attributed to a lack of active use of English in class. The activity was passive in nature, as it focused on listening to varieties of English and answering comprehension questions. The instructor–student and student–student interaction was limited in this study. Moreover, a lack of cultural and linguistic diversity in class may be responsible for such a high disagreement rate. The students were all native speakers of Japanese with no foreign students present, and the class did not function as a community of practice for learners' legitimate peripheral participation in the EIL context. Improvements should be made with regard to students participating in the world of English users. A possible solution would be to invite international students to the class so that the classroom can function more like an authentic environment for EIL (Hino, 2012a), providing regular opportunities for Japanese students to communicate with foreign students in English. International students should include non-native speakers of English, as non-native varieties of English were not familiar to most of the students in this study (see Table 1). Interaction between non-native speakers is mutually beneficial, as a variety of techniques can be learned for successful communication in English through such interactions. McKay (2010) states that interactions between non-native speakers "can provide a context for discussing various means by which individuals can seek clarification and establish relationships when they may have gaps in their knowledge of English" (p. 112). In sum, to have a sense of participation in the world of EIL users, students must have a hands-on opportunity to use English themselves with other English speakers and to see themselves as EIL users.

Research question 2 asked how the participants perceived their local variety of English when they were exposed to varieties of English. In Q8, 64.3% strongly or moderately agreed that "good Japanese English" is a valuable means of international communication. While this agreement rate shows a similarity to Hino's study, it is in stark contrast to previous studies in which Japanese participants tended to prefer native English varieties and to devalue Japanese English (Matsuda, 2003a; Saito & Hatoss, 2011; Sasayama, 2013). In these studies, inner circle varieties of English were mainly learned among participants. On the other hand, in this study, along with varieties of English, good models of Japanese English were demonstrated by Japanese speakers who reported news and interviewed fluently in English. Exposure to both Japanese English and world Englishes may have a positive effect on the perception of Japanese students' local variety as well as the recognition of other varieties. However, 35.7% were neutral or disagreed in Q8. A possible explanation for the disagreement rate is that listening to Japanese English in this class did not constitute sufficient exposure to "good Japanese English", as Japanese English is not a familiar variety to

most students in this study (see Table 1). Good exposure to Japanese English would help students to positively recognize Japanese English as an acceptable variety. To-kumoto and Shibata (2011) pointed out that students' limited exposure to, and lack of sufficient interaction in, English may adversely affect their evaluation of Japanese English. Moreover, the notion of "good Japanese English" may not have been well established or understood by the participants in this study. Therefore, many partici-pants might have given indecisive responses, as Japanese participants, in particular, tend to choose the midpoint on the Likert scale (Chen, Lee, & Stevenson, 1995; Oishia et al., 2005). In addition, de-ownership of English may be responsible for the non-agreement responses. The participants may consider that English is a subject of study and belongs to native speakers of English, i.e., speakers in inner circle countries (Saeki, 2015). Inner circle varieties are the models in English curricula in Japan (Ku-bota, 2002; Matsuda, 2003a), and American English is the most familiar variety to the students in this study. In sum, although many participants perceived that Japanese English could be an acceptable local variety, ownership of English appears to be complex, and more research is needed to further discuss and explore this issue.

While the present study has generally revealed positive reactions from the par-ticipants in listening to world Englishes, it has produced different IPTEIL question-naire results to those in Hino (2012a). First, the questions pertaining to reading and listening skills (Q6 and Q7) received more positive responses in this study. The ac-tivity conducted was listening-focused, compared with reading-focused activity in Hino (2012a); thus, it could be expected that this study would receive more positive responses in terms of improving listening skills (Q7). As for reading skills (Q6), alt-hough this class was not reading-focused, the reading assignments seemed to be satis-factory. It is important to take into consideration that students were placed based on their TOEIC scores, which were used to inform the instructor's selection of readings. On the other hand, two questions received fewer positive reactions in this study (Q2 and Q8). Concerning Q2, the lack of in-class interactions in English may have been the main reason why the students did not consider themselves to be legitimate partici-pants in the world of EIL users. While having international students in class is one solution (Hino, 2012a), creating such an environment was a real challenge in this study, as there were few international students at the university. Instructors should respond to these challenges locally, as available resources are sometimes limited in the EFL context. In Q8, students' past linguistic experiences need to be considered. Compared with those in Hino, the students in this study had lower English proficiency levels. Their relatively low proficiency levels as well as their limited exposure to a variety of Englishes may have affected their standpoint on "good Japanese English" as a local variety. Reaching a high proficiency level and gaining enough exposure to different varieties may help them self-identify as legitimate users. Finally, it should be noted that the differences in the four questions between the two studies do not suggest that one study is superior to the other. These differences may be explained by the de-sign of the course, the difficulty level of activities used, and the proficiency levels among the participants.

Conclusion

The current study examined whether exposure to varieties of English was effective and whether Japanese English was recognized as a local variety of English in a Japa-nese university context. The study generally revealed positive reactions from the par-ticipants, showing the benefits of teaching practices that use world Englishes in class.

The questionnaire results of this study suggest that the class helped broaden the participants' view of the world and raised students' awareness of world Englishes used today. However, some issues emerged as a result of the questionnaire. The learners needed more interaction in the EIL context, possibly with international students from different cultural and linguistic backgrounds, to foster a sense of genuine participation as EIL users. Furthermore, it seems that the recognition of Japanese English is a complex issue. Although the majority of the students appeared to approve of Japanese English, this approval was, presumably, related to their proficiency levels and identities as English users. It is important to continue to provide an opportunity for students to be exposed to a variety of Englishes in order to investigate how their attitudes to, and perceptions of, Japanese English change over time.

There are limitations to this study, such as its small sample size. Although the responses from the participants were generally favorable, it is premature to generalize the results of this research. A larger sample size is needed to understand further the effects of listening to varieties of English among learners in the EFL context. Another shortcoming is the lack of data and methods for data collection. The study used closed-ended items alone to collect data from participants. This was rather general, and insufficient to obtain a strong understanding of the views participants held. In future studies, data triangulation will be required, with open-ended items and interviews that can capture detailed feedback and useful comments from participants. Finally, this was a brief, preliminary investigation; therefore, future studies should observe participants longitudinally. Extensive exposure to world Englishes may affect their proficiency and their approach to English learning, as well as perceptions of their local variety and linguistic diversity.

Furthermore, the findings in this study also have pedagogical implications for ELT in EFL contexts, including Japan. Given that formal English education is the primary source of exposure to the target language, school curricula should implement EIL teaching practices, such as IPTEIL in EFL contexts. The use of authentic materials within world Englishes education effectively raises awareness of the concept of EIL as well as the cultural and linguistic diversity of the English-speaking world among learners. This work has significance in its attempt to introduce varieties of English to students who rarely have the opportunity to be exposed to those varieties. In this small-size university, in the EFL context, the learning environment is not always ideal for students with the respect to the opportunity to encounter world Englishes in and outside of class. The class, although no international students were present, provided a good opportunity for the students to learn about such varieties. It should be noted that the use of world Englishes, as demonstrated in this class, can be an effective approach to learning and is applicable to classes in other ELT contexts and cultures, particularly in environments where such varieties are inaccessible in learners' lives.

It is important to include world Englishes in school curricula, given the global use of English. These curricula offer opportunities to learn about linguistic and cultural diversity around the world and to reinforce a mutual understanding of, and respect for, differences among EIL users. Though the ideal form of interactions would be face-to-face with interlocutors, these interactions are not possible in each educational environment. In such cases, the instruction of world Englishes could bridge the gap between having ample opportunities for exposure to such varieties and having very few or no opportunities for exposure to varieties of English. World Englishes can be incorporated into classes using different media as resources. As the results of this study suggest, the instruction of world Englishes was positively evaluated in general.

If well-planned and adjusted locally, the implementation can be effective and inductive, particularly in the EFL context.

References

Borras, I., & Lafayette, R. (1994). Effects of multimedia courseware subtitling on the speaking performance of college students of French. *The Modern Language Journal, 78*(1), 61-75. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-4781.1994.tb02015.x

Chen, C., Lee, S., & Stevenson, H. (1995). Response style and cross-cultural comparisons of rating scales among East Asian and North American students. *Psychological Science, 6*(3), 170-175. doi:10.1111/j.1467-9280.1995.tb00327.x

Chiba, R., & Matsuura, H. (1995). Japanese prospective teachers' attitudes toward native and non-native English. *JACET Bulletin, 26,* 1-11.

Council of Local Authorities for International Relations (CLAIR) (2010). *The Japan Exchange and Teaching (JET) Programme 2010-2011*. Tokyo: CLAIR.

D'Angelo, J. (2012). WE-informed EIL curriculum at Chukyo: Towards a functional, educated, multilingual outcome. In A. Matsuda (Ed.), *Principles and practices of teaching English as an international language* (pp. 121-139). Bristol, England: Multilingual Matters.

Guillory, H. G. (1998). The effect of keyword captions to authentic French video on learner comprehension. *CALICO Journal, 15*(1-3), 89-108. doi: 10.1558/cj.v15i1-3.89-108

Hino, N. (2009). The teaching of English as an international language in Japan: An answer to the dilemma of indigenous values and global needs in the Expanding Circle. *AILA Review, 22*, 103-119. doi: 10.1075/aila.22.08hin

Hino, N. (2012a). Participating in the community of EIL users through real-time news: Integrated Practice in Teaching English as an International Language (IPTEIL). In A. Matsuda (Ed.), *Principles and practices of teaching English as an international language* (pp. 183-200). Bristol, England: Multilingual Matters.

Hino, N. (2012b). Endonormative models of EIL for the Expanding Circle. In A. Matsuda (Ed.), *Principles and practices of teaching English as an international language* (pp. 28-43). Bristol, England: Multilingual Matters.

Honna, N. (2005). English as a multicultural language in Asia and intercultural literacy. *Intercultural Communication Studies, 14*(2), 73-89.

Kachru, B. B. (1985). Standards, codification and sociolinguistic realism: The English language in the outer circle. In R. Quirk & H. G. Widdowson (Eds.), *English in the world: Teaching and learning the language and literatures* (pp.11-30). Cambridge University Press.

Kubota, R. (1998). Ideologies of English in Japan. *World Englishes, 17*(3), 295-306. doi: 10.1111/1467-971X.00105

Kubota, R. (2001). Teaching world Englishes to native speakers of English in the USA. *World Englishes, 20(1)*, 47-64. doi: 10.1111/1467-971X.00195

Kubota, R. (2002). Impact of globalization in language teaching in Japan. In D. Block & D. Cameron (Eds.), *Globalization and language teaching* (pp. 13-28). London: Routledge.

Lee, H. (2012). World Englishes in a high school English class: A case from Japan. In A. Matsuda (Ed.), *Principles and practices of teaching English as an international language* (pp. 154-168). Bristol, England: Multilingual Matters.

Lave, J., & Wenger, E. (1991). Situated learning: Legitimate peripheral participation. Cambridge University Press.

Matsuda, A. (2002a). Representation of users and uses of English in beginning Japanese EFL textbooks. *JALT Journal, 24*(2), 182-200.

Matsuda, A. (2002b). "International understanding" through teaching world Englishes. *World Englishes, 21*(3), 436-440. doi: 10.1111/1467-971X.00262

Matsuda, A. (2003a). The ownership of English in Japanese schools. *World Englishes, 22*(4), 483-496. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-971X.2003.00314.x

Matsuda, A. (2003b). Incorporating World Englishes in teaching English as an international language. *TESOL Quarterly, 37*(4), 719-729. doi: 10.2307/3588220

Matsuda, A. (2009). Desirable but not necessary? The place of world Englishes and English as an international language in English teacher preparation program in Japan. In Farzad Sharifian (Ed.), *English as an International Language: Perspectives and pedagogical issues* (pp. 169-189). Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Matsuura, H., Chiba, R., & Fujieda, M. (1999). Intelligibility and comprehensibility of American and Irish Englishes in Japan. *World Englishes, 18*(1), 49-62. doi: 10.1111/1467-971X.00121

McKay, S. L. (2010). English as an international language. In N. H. Hornberger and S. L. McKay (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics and language education* (pp. 89-115). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Oishia, S., Hahnb, J., Schimmackc, U., Radhakrishand, P., Dzokotoe, V., Ahadif, S. (2005). The measurement of values across cultures: A pairwise comparison approach. *Journal of Research in Personality, 39*(2), 299–305. doi:10.1016/j.jrp.2004.08.001

Orikasa, M. (2016). Intelligibility of varieties of English in Japan. *World Englishes*, *35*(3), 355-371. doi:10.1111/weng.12209

Saeki, T. (2015). Exploring the development of ownership of English through the voice of Japanese EIL users. *Asian Englishes, 17*(1), 43-58. doi: org/10.1080/13488678.2015.998360

Saito, A., & Hatoss, A. (2011). Does the ownership rest with us? Global English and the native speaker ideal among Japanese high school students. *International Journal of Pedagogies & Learning, 6*(2), 108-125. doi:10.5172/ijpl.2011.108

Sasayama, S. (2013). Japanese college students' attitudes towards Japan English and American English. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development, 34*(3), 264-278. doi:10.1080/01434632.2013.767341

Smith, L. E., & Nelson, C. L. (2006). World Englishes and issues of intelligibility. In Braj B. Kachru, Yamuna Kachru & Cecil L. Nelson (eds.), *The handbook of world Englishes* (pp. 428-445). Malden, MA: Blackwell.

Tokumoto, M., & Shibata, M. (2011). Asian varieties of English: Attitudes towards pronunciation. *World Englishes, 30*(3), 392-408. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-971X.2011.01710.x

Note on Contributor

Mami orikasa is currently a lecturer in the Department of Economics at Dokkyo University, Japan. She holds a M.A. in Second Language Studies from University of Hawai'i. Her research interests include ELT and World Englishes. E-mail: morikasa88@gmail.com

Appendix 1

IPTEIL Class Questionnaire

Q1：この授業では、世の中の出来事について多角的な視点から見ることを学ぶことができた。

In this class, I have learned to see things from multiple perspectives.

A. とてもできた　B. ややできた　　C. どちらとも　　D. あまり　E. 全く

言えない　　　できなかった　できなかった

Q2：この授業では、英語を使う人々の世界に自分も参加しているという実感を得た。

In this class, I have felt that I am really participating in the world of English users.

A. とてもできた　B. ややできた　　C. どちらとも　　D. あまり　E. 全く

言えない　　　できなかった　できなかった

Q3：この授業は、国際理解の向上に役立った。

This class has been useful for improving my international understanding.

A　とても役立った B. やや役立った C. どちらとも　　D. あまり役立た E. 全く役立た

言えない　　　なかった　　なかった

Q4：この授業は、現実の社会で使われている英語を知る上で役立った。

This class has been useful for getting acquainted with English used in the real world.

A. とても役立った B. やや役立った C. どちらとも　　D. あまり役立た E. 全く役立た

言えない　　　なかった　　なかった

Q5：この授業は、お国柄の違いによる英語の多様性に親しむ上で役立った。

This class has been useful for becoming familiar with the cultural diversity of English.

A. とても役立った B. やや役立った C. どちらとも　　D. あまり役立た E. 全く役立た

言えない　　　なかった　　なかった

Q6：この授業は、英語のリーディング能力の向上に役立った。

This class has been useful for improving my reading skills in English.

A. とても役立った B. やや役立った C. どちらとも　　D. あまり役立た E. 全く役立た

　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　言えない　　　なかった　　なかった

Q7：この授業は、英語のリスニング能力の向上に役立った。

　　This class has been useful for improving my listening skills in English.

　A. とても役立った B. やや役立った C. どちらとも　　D. あまり役立た E. 全く役立た

　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　言えない　　　なかった　　なかった

Q8：良い Japanese English は国際コミュニケーションの手段として価値が高い、という教育理念に賛同する。

　　'Good Japanese English' is a valuable means of international communication.

　A とても賛同する B. やや賛同する C. どちらとも　　D. あまり賛同 E. 全く賛同

　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　言えない　　　しない　　　しない

　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　Quoted from Hino (2012a)

Appendix 2

Week 12 Listening Comprehension Questions

Listen to "101 East - Japan's Ainu" by Harry Fawcett from *Al Jazeera* and de- cide whether the statements are true or false. Write T or F to each statement. If statements are false, underline the phrase/words that provide false information.

(   ) 1. Hideo Akibe said that there is no generation that speaks the Ainu language today.

(   ) 2. The Ainu way of life has deeply been rooted in nature.

(   ) 3. Ainu language was passed from parents to children both in spoken and written form.

(   ) 4. The population of the Ainu in Hokkaido is 24,000.

(   ) 5. The income and education level among the Ainu are as low as those of residents in Hokkaido.

(   ) 6. In 2008, the Japanese Diet officially recognized the Ainu as an indigenous people in Japan.

(   ) 7. Under the Hatoyama Administration, a panel was formed to advise poli- cies to address Ainu claims and other issues such as land access, educational assis- tance and Ainu language teaching.

(   ) 8. According to an official estimate, nearly 3,000 Ainu live in the Greater Tokyo Area.

(   ) 9. Ainu people living outside Hokkaido receive equal support as those living in Hokkaido.

(   ) 10. Koji Yuki, an Ainu artist, thinks that Japan is the first developed coun- tries to move toward indigenous people's rights.

(   ) 11. Tadashi Kato, the head of Ainu Association of Hokkaido thinks that as a start, Japan needs to form a task force to devise laws for the Ainu and to create sym- bolic space for the Ainu.

(   ) 12. Tadashi Kato believes that education and employment are the most seri- ous issues among the Ainu.

(   ) 13. The Japanese have ignored the Ainu issues for ages because democracy prioritizes the thoughts of the majority and the majority expect the minority to simu- late and disappear.

(   ) 14. Katsuya Ogawa from Democratic Party of Japan has had no Ainu ac- quaintances in his childhood and learned a little about Ainu only from the school textbook.

(   ) 15. Japan is preparing to put in place schemes such as scholarships and free high school tuition, in order to improve educational opportunities only for Ainu.

Individual factors in the motivation of learning L3 through L2 among minority students in Xinjiang

Rayhangül Ahåt
College of Foreign Languages, Xinjiang University, Ürümqi, China

Hori Shinya
Faculty of Education and Integrated Arts and Sciences, Waseda University,
Tokyo, Japan

Abstract

Learner motivation is considered as one of the important factors that help to understand learner performance. As motivation is affected by both individual and social factors, it is essential to explore the learner motivation before effective instrumental programs for learners studying in different social contexts are designed and implemented. Using the expectancy-value theory (EVT) model of achievement motivation, proposed by Eccles and her collaborators, this study aimed at exploring (1) the most influential effective variables in learning English as an L3 and (2) individual factors that influence the learners' L3 motivation. The participants in this study were ethnic minority students of a university and a middle school in the Xinjiang Uyghur Autonomous Region of China. Two hundred and ninety-nine students from one of the top universities and a prestigious middle school in Ürümqi voluntarily answered a motivational questionnaire and filled in a personal information sheet. Results of the study showed that L3 learners held higher utility and attainment value than intrinsic value and expectancy for success. The age onset of bilingualism, L2 exposure and attitude towards L3 learning are the important individual factors related to learners' L3 motivation. On the basis of these results, the author provides suggestions on the provision of L3 education, the medium of L3 instruction, as well as the influence of present bilingual education policy on teaching English as an L3 in the context of different bilingual teaching modes in the Xinjiang Uyghur Autonomous Region.

Keywords: bilingual education, minority learners, L2 and L3, learner motivation, individual factors, language planning and policy

Introduction

Third language acquisition is a very common phenomenon, in natural as well as formal contexts, and it takes place in a large number of diverse sociolinguistic situations. It not only promotes the willingness to maintain L2 and encourages the use of L1, but also enhances the arousal of new skills and techniques deriving from the learners' previous language-learning experience (Clyne, 2011; Herdina & Jessner 2000). There are ample research results that showed the advantages of bilinguals and bilingualism in third language acquisition (Cenoz, 2003; Cenoz & Jessner, 2000; Jorda`, 2005; Clyne & Grey, 2004). The positive effects of bilingualism on third language acquisition were observed from the point of creative thinking, metalinguistic awareness, and individual factors like those of age, motivation and intelligence (Cenoz & Valencia, 1994; Muñoz, 2000; Stapforda et al., 2010).
  Social and cultural factors are as important as educational factors when it comes

to understanding bilingual and trilingual development in contexts with two or more languages (Errasti, 2003; Troike, 1984). Obeng (2000) showed that attitudes encompassing a wide range of values, beliefs, and emotions concerning language influence learners' perceptions towards languages in general and towards educational bilingual policies in particular. Thus, contextual settings where languages are learned and used, and the status of the languages involved need to be taken into great consideration in the research of third language acquisition (Cenoz, 2000, 2003). With the development of globalization and with English becoming the global language, many Asian countries such as Malaysia, India, and China give priority to English education as a foreign or third language in schooling. Yet few empirical studies were conducted on the third language acquisition of the minority learners in China, specifically in the Xinjiang Uyghur Autonomous Region where Uyghurs make up the majority. Thus the main goal of the present study is to illuminate issues about motivation in L3 learning by studying a unique context that will shed new light on the research domain of L3 motivation, which until now has been dominated by (a) studies focusing on bilingual (L2) as opposed to multilingual (L3) and western as opposed to non-western contexts.

Literature review

The term motivation differs among the theorists and researchers from different fields and domains. The present study is conducted within the framework of EVT that consists of two parts: (a) cognitive and (b) social. From the point of cognitive view, Eccles et al. (2004) defined motivation as the combination of learners' expectancy for success and their value beliefs in a task. They define expectancy as the individuals' beliefs about how well they will do on an upcoming task. It depends on learners' confidence in their intellectual abilities and on their estimation of the task difficulty, and relates to learners' sense of competence, self-efficacy and locus of control. In self-determination theory, competence refers to the feeling that one has the capacity to effectively carry out an action. For example: in the context of L3 learners in Xinjiang, they learn L3 through L2 that is believed to hinder the learners' expectancy.

Regarding task values, Eccles et al. (2004) define them as the qualities of different tasks and how those qualities influence individual's desire to do the task. They grouped the individual's value beliefs on a task into four types.

- Intrinsic value: the enjoyment or emotional incentives a person gets from doing the task and his/her subjective interest in the task; this is closely linked to intrinsic motivation in self-determination theory.
- Utility value: the individual's future goals for doing the task such as getting required credit at school, gaining a prestigious job in a society and so on. This component of the subjective task values is very similar to the extrinsic motivation in self-determination theory in which the cause of an action is out of learners' own control.
- Attainment value: the personal importance of doing well on a task and relevance for an individual of engaging in the task for confirming or disconfirming salient aspects of his or her self-schema such as ego, identity. It is very close to the more internalized identified regulation in self-determination theory and ideal self in L2 motivational self-system.
- Cost: negative aspects of engaging in a task, such as performance anxiety, fear of failure as well as success, task difficulty as well as the amount of time and effort needed to success and the lost opportunities resulting from making one choice rather than another.

In the area of trilingual education, study results showed that motivation and general intelligence were more important factors associated with higher achievement in learning L3 than the influence of bilingualism in the European context (Cenoz, 2008; Cenoz & Valencia, 1994). In terms of age onset of L3 learning, researchers (Cenoz, 2003; Nikolov, 1999) found that younger learners displayed stronger motivation and more positive attitude towards learning English as an L3 than older learners. Studies from the Hungarian context further confirm these results (Dornyéi et al., 2006). Ellinger (2000) investigated the relationship among identity, motivation and achievement in English as a foreign language. Variables included ethnolinguistic identity, self-confidence, instrumental and integrative orientation. Results showed that ethnolinguistic identity was a greater predictor of achievement than any of the other variables. When examining the impact of L1 on the L2 and L3, Lasagabaster (2003) found that minority learners showed more positive attitude towards L3 than L2, and reasoned it for the absence of English in the Basque Region.

Social background

Linguistic situation and bilingual education policy in Xinjiang

Chinese (L2) and Uyghur (L1) are two official languages of the Xinjiang Uyghur Autonomous Region though there are other languages such as Kazak, Mongol, Kyrgyz, Uzbek and Xibe spoken by their speakers as L1. The present educational policy for the minorities in Xinjiang is the bilingual education of L2 and L1, and the mode of this bilingual education differs largely from region to region due to the population distribution. Ma (2009) classified it into three types: (1) traditional bilingual teaching mode, (2) bilingual education of particular minorities and (3) new bilingual teaching mode. In the traditional bilingual teaching mode, L2 teaching starts in primary school Grade three and the hours of L2 instruction keeps increasing so that the minority students transfer from L1 to L2 smoothly in later school years. The second mode directs to the small group of ethnicities such as Xibe and Mongol who are intermingled with Han students. In the third mode, most of the courses such as mathematics, physics, chemistry, biology, and English are taught in L2, while the rest such as native language, history, and geography, are taught in L1. According to her, one of the prospects of this new bilingual teaching mode is that the schools may develop a "trilingual schools", wherein, L1, L2 and L3 are opened simultaneously, and all the other courses except for L1 are taught in L2. The document released in 2011 by the Educational Bureau of the Xinjiang Uyghur Autonomous Region also proposed two kinds of teaching mode, and advocated to teach a foreign language, mainly English to the minority learners where the conditions allowed. In mode one, L1 is used for the first two or three years with L2 taught as a major school subject, and the mode two is same with the new bilingual teaching mode as classified by Ma (2009), in which all the courses are taught in L2 and L1 is taught as a school subject. In both modes, L3 is taught in L2.

English education for the minorities in Xinjiang is still in the beginning stage compared with English education for the Han majority. Yet, based on the aforementioned two bilingual teaching modes, it is becoming more and more popularized and welcome. This new teaching area has already drawn the attention of scholars and researchers from both inside and outside China (Adamson & Feng, 2009; Feng, 2005, 2012; Lam, 2007; Yang, 2005), and they addressed a series of difficulties and problems from micro to macro levels. These difficulties and problems are categorized   by

Feng (2012) as the lack of educational resources, the vigorously advocated bilingual language policy that brings a threat to minority languages and identity, and limited practical use of English in the ethnic minority areas. On the other hand, Baehler and Besharov (2013) describe the English education as an opportunity for enhancing minority students' ethnic, national and international identities, and it equips them with linguistic tools for academic and career development, and a worldview to act as global citizens.

The study

Considering the present bilingual education policy, complex sociolinguistic context, and the lack of empirical research on the third language acquisition in China, namely in Xinjiang, this study aims to explore the minority learners' motivation in learning L3, the contributions of individual factors (mainly the choice of L3 medium of instruction, age of L2 onset, the rate of self-evaluation in L2 and L3 proficiency and exposure to L2) to their L3 motivation. We focused on the above-mentioned individual factors as we thought these factors were directly linked to the minority language planning and policy in Xinjiang. We chose the EVT of achievement motivation as a theoretical base of this study for the following reasons: (1) expectancy for success and the task value cost suit best to explore the minority learners' motivation in learning L3 because of the L3 medium of instruction; and (2) the motivational variables in this model can best predict their L3 motivation when socio-cultural and sociolinguistic factors (the language policy, the huge socioeconomic gap between regions as well as between the minority and the majority, and increasingly changing demographic situation) are taken into consideration. Therefore, this study aims at answering the following two research questions.

   1. What are the most influential motivational variable(s) for minorities in learning English as an L3 in Xinjiang?

   2. What are the contributions of individual factors (age of L2 onset, the rate of self-evaluation in L2 and L3 proficiency, and exposure to L2) to the L3 motivation of minority learners in Xinjiang?

Methodology

Participants were students from one of the top universities and a prestigious middle school in the Xinjiang Uyghur Autonomous Region. Males make up 36.5%, females make up 63.5%, and their mean age is 21.8 and 15.2 respectively. The university students majored in both science and art, all of them reached the L2 proficiency level required by school administration. Among them, Uygurs were 246 (82.8%); Kazaks were 45 (15.2%) and Kirgiz were 6 (2%). The participants' exposure to L2 is largely different according to the regions and the teaching modes of bilingual education. Most of the university students belong to the traditional teaching mode, and the students from middle school belong to the new teaching mode. All the participants from both the universities and middle school learn L3 in L2.
        The research instrument (written in the native languages of the participants) in this study is composed of two parts: a personal information sheet and a questionnaire on learner motivation (see Appendix). The questionnaire about learner motivation is based on the Motivational Scale by Wigfield (1994), later modified by Ohki (2009)

with a five-point Likert-scale from disagree to agree. Some items in the questionnaire were modified according to the local context, and four items were added after its validity and reliability were confirmed.

Results

Motivational variables in L3 learning

We compared the mean of motivational variables obtained in the questionnaire and conducted ANOVA test in order to answer the first research question. Mean, SD and ANOVA results are shown in Table 1.

Table 1
Comparison by motivational variables

	Expectancy	Intrinsic	Attainment	Utility	Cost	F
Mean	3.65	4.15	4.41	4.46	3.52	100.91***
SD	.91	.94	.77	.71	.56	

N=299   ***p<.001; *p<.05

As shown in Table 1, ANOVA results showed that there was significant effect of motivational variables on minority learners' L3 learning at the p<.001 conditions for the five motivational variables (F(4.1072) =100.91, p<.001). To better understand which motivational variables are the most influential, we further looked into the results of Turkey post hoc test. There were statistical significant differences between cost and intrinsic attainment and utility value (p <.001), between expectancy and intrinsic, attainment and utility value (p<.001), between intrinsic and utility value (p<.01), and intrinsic value and expectancy for success (*p <.001*).

Motivational differences between the age of early- and late-onset bilinguals

In order to investigate the influence of L2 age onset on L3 motivation, subjects are divided into groups of two according to the age of their L2 onset. Group I is of university students, and their mean age of L2- and L3-onset is 8.84 and 18.82 respectively. Group II is of middle school students and their mean age of L2- and L3-onset is 5.30 and 8.25 respectively. T-test was conducted to explore the motivational differences between early- and late-onset bilinguals. Results are shown in Table 2.

Table 2
Comparison by age onset

	Group I (N=229)		Group II (N=55)		
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	t-value
expectancy	3.69	.91	3.50	1.13	t(71.65) = 1.12, n.s.
intrinsic	4.24	1.05	3.75	1.43	t(66.67) = 2.40, p<.05
attainment	4.47	.66	4.11	1.14	t(57.57) = 2.18, p<.05
utility	4.52	.70	4.20	1.28	t(59.31) = 1.82, n.s.
cost	3.54	.67	3.42	1.08	t(58.74) = .78, n.s.

As shown in Table 2, the mean values of all motivational variables of group I are higher than group II except cost. Statistically significant differences revealed in the intrinsic and attainment value between the two groups.

Learners' self-evaluation of L2 and L3 proficiency

Subjects are grouped into three according to the question that explore their self-evaluation of L2 and L3 level. The question is "How do you evaluate your level in Chinese/English?" with three alternative answers: Good, Not bad and Bad. Group I is Good, group II is Not bad and group III is Bad. ANOVA was conducted to explore the motivational differences among the groups in order to understand the influence of their self-evaluation of L2 /L3 level on their L3 motivation. Learners' L2 self-evaluation failed to reveal any statistically significant influence on their L3 motivation. Table 3 reveals the results of learners' L3 self-evaluation on their L3 motivation.

Table 3

The impact of learners' L3 self-evaluation on their L3 motivation

	Group I (N=47)		Group II (N=187)		Group III (N=44)		
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	F
expectancy	4.09	.95	3.72	.86	3.00	.94	$F(2, 271) = 19.19$, $p < .001$
intrinsic	4.43	1.05	4.25	1.03	3.41	1.41	$F(2, 277) = 12.28$, $p < .001$
attainment	4.59	.81	4.41	.73	4.18	.88	$F(2, 271) = 3.12$, $p < .05$
utility	4.52	.99	4.52	.75	4.17	.99	$F(2, 275) = 3.19$, $p < .05$
cost	3.32	.86	3.54	.71	3.68	.70	$F(2, 270) = 2.70$, n.s.

With regard to the influence of the learners' L3 self-evaluation on their L3 motivation, as shown in Table 3, the intergroup differences were significant in all cases except cost. After post-hoc analyses for the groups with significant F values, statistically significant differences were revealed among all the groups in expectancy, and statistically significant differences were revealed between group II and group III in intrinsic, attainment and utility value. Thus, the students with a good command of English hold higher degree of expectancy for success and intrinsic value than the ones with not bad or bad command of English. The students with a good command of English hold higher degree of attainment and utility value than the ones with *bad* command of English though the significance is not as strong as expectancy for success and intrinsic value.

The influence of the attitude of L2 and L3 learning on L3 motivation

To investigate the subjects' attitudes of L2/L3 learning on L3 motivation, the question "When you started learning Chinese/English, did you want to learn it?", with three alternative answers "Very much, Not very and No", was asked. Subjects were divided into groups of three according to their attitudes towards L2 and L3 learning: group I (very much), group II (not very) and group III (*no*). Then ANOVA was used to explore the influence of their L2/L3 attitude on their L3 motivation.

Table 4
Comparison by learners' attitude towards L3

	Group I (N=207)		Group II (N=57)		Group III (N=16)		
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	F
expectancy	3.82	.90	3.34	.95	2.60	.80	F(2, 272)=18.27, p <.001
intrinsic	4.37	1.00	3.83	1.20	2.40	1.11	F(2, 277)=29.31, p <.001
attainment	4.48	.77	4.32	.81	3.72	.60	F(2, 271)=7.67, p <.01
utility	4.52	.81	4.44	.86	3.81	.1.08	F(2, 276)=5.33, p <.01
cost	3.42	.73	3.73	.78	3.87	.76	F(2, 270)=5.53, p <.01

In terms of the influence of learners' L2 attitude toward their L3 motivation, no statistically significant differences revealed among the groups. Table 4 reveals the results of learners' L3 attitude towards their L3 motivation.

As shown in Table 4, the three groups were statistically significant different. The mean values of all the motivational variables of group I are higher than the mean values in group II and group III except cost. The mean value of utility of group I is significantly higher than the mean value of utility of group III. The mean value of cost in group I is the lowest among the other two groups and there is a significant difference between group I and group III.

Learners' origin of hometown and its impact on their L3 motivation

The population distribution of Han and other ethnicities in Xinjiang is uneven. As mentioned earlier, the majority of Han live in the north and more developed cities, while the majority of Uyghurs and other minorities are heavily concentrated in the South. Thus students are grouped into two according to the Han-ethnic population distributions of the regions from where they come. Group I are the students from Hotan, 33, 12.5%; Kizilsu, 3, 1.1%; Kashgar, 65, 24.6%; Aksu, 31, 11.7%; and Turpan, 8, 3%. Group II are students from Ürümqi, 58, 22%; Altay, 40, 15,2%; Bortala, 4, 1.5%; Karamay, Maytag and Sawan, 6, 2.3%; Kumul, 7, 2.7%; Korla, 9, 3.4%. 58.1% students from group I came from the southern part of the region where Uygurs make up over 70% of the total population of Xinjiang. The largest proportion of the students from group II come from Ürümqi where Uyghurs make up around 12%. We did so as we assume that the L2 exposure in natural as well as formal context would affect the learners' L2 motivation and proficiency, which in turn influences their L3 motivation. T-test is conducted to explore the motivational differences in learning L3 between two groups. Table 5 below reveals the results.

Table 5
Comparison by hometown

	Hometown I (N=130)		Hometown II (N=109)		
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	t-value
expectancy	3.72	.90	3.67	.98	t(237) = .41, n.s.
intrinsic	4.33	.99	4.15	1.15	t(214.10) = 1.36, n.s.
attainment	4.44	.72	4.45	.76	t(237) = .20, n.s.
utility	4.44	.82	4.55	.74	t(237) = 1.01, n.s.
cost	3.41	.64	3.73	.80	t(205.27) = 3.38, p<.01

As we see in Table 5, statistically significant differences revealed in *cost* between the two groups, and the cost of L3 motivation of learners from group II is significantly higher than group I.

Discussion

The first research question aims at exploring the most influential motivational variable(s) in minority learners' L3 motivation. Utility value has the highest mean among the five motivational variables, near to "5" in the Likert-scale referred to agree (Learning English is useful to find a good job after my graduation. English will be useful to my future plan). This figure further confirms the instrumentality of EFL learner motivation found in the past research results in China (Gao, 2004; Hu, 2010; Rayhangül, 2014). Minority learners are fully aware that they cannot survive in the globalized era with L2 only, especially in the job market where they compete with Han students who learn English as a compulsory course from elementary Grade three. Moreover, the (Road and Belt) policy 一路一带政策, tourism development, the newly opened special economic administrative cities, the educational system which requires relatively high English proficiency for the entrance exams of postgraduate schools, the growing number of students who want to study abroad, the increasing rate of unemployment among the minorities plus the increasing number of foreign students from border countries would be additional reasons to enhance the utility value of English in this region.

The mean of attainment and intrinsic value reaches "4" referred to somewhat agree in the Likert-scale (English is very important to make our culture known to the world. English is very important to realize my dream. I am interested in learning English.). It indicates that minority students not only show importance to L3 in the reflection of their identification with their culture, but also show interest in learning it. With the demographic change and the economic development of the region, they have realized that they need to know not only the national language, but also the international language to make them heard to the world. Knowing English also helps them to compete with the majority Han and Minkaohan students who have the opportunity to learn English from Grade Three. These social issues lead them to believe that L3 plays an important role in their personal and career development. The cultural and language environment in which the minority students live contributes to their interest in learning L3. Because of geographical location, the ethnic minorities in Xinjiang have the opportunity to expose to foreign cultures and languages. For example: They learn Russian, Turkish, English, and each other's languages as a second or foreign language for academic and trade purposes. Moreover, many technical words in the minority learners' L1 come from English. These advantages enhanced their interest in L3, too.

These results are in line with the previous study results (Rayhangül, 2014) in which minority students placed higher interest and attainment value to English in comparison to Han students. They also further confirm the Baehler and Besharov (2013) claim mentioned in the social background section above. Expectancy for success ranked fourth among the motivational variables. The minority students' expectancy in learning L3 in L2 reaches "3" in the Likert-scale referred to the neither agree nor disagree (e.g.: I think I can master English. I think I am mastering what I have learnt in English class.). This figure indicates that although they reached the L2 proficiency level assumed to have the ability of receiving instructions in L2, they are not fully confident in learning L3 even though they are beginners. This further proves the difficulties categorized by Feng and Yang (2005, 2009) that vigorously promoted bilingual education policy and low L2 proficiency would hinder the minority learners' L3 education in rural and less developed areas. Lastly, cost has the lowest mean and standard deviation (e.g.: Learning English in Chinese is very difficult for me. To get good grades in English, I have to study hard.). This result implies that in the beginning stage, they found L3 not so challenging and difficult.

The second research question aims at exploring the influence of individual factors on the minority learners' L3 motivation. These individual factors include learners' age of L2 onset, their choice of L3 instruction, the rate of self-evaluation in L2 and L3 levels, and their exposure to L2. Study results (Cenoz, 2003; Nikolov, 1999) carried out in the multilingual European context showed that early-onset bilinguals had more positive attitudes and higher motivation towards the motivation of L3 learning than late-onset bilinguals. The results of the present study do not support the findings of these studies. In this study, university students hold higher intrinsic and attainment value in comparison to middle school students even though they have more exposure to L2 and have better L3 learning advantages. This is most probably because: (1) middle school students are either too young to understand the role of L3 in their future life, or they devote less time and effort to L3 as it is considered less important in comparison to other school courses. (2) As previous study results (Stafford, Sanz, & Bowden, 2010) showed, the late-onset bilinguals in this study might have advantages over early-onset bilinguals in organizing their L3 knowledge linguistically and cognitively.

The second individual factor explored is whether minority learners' self-evaluation of L2 and L3 proficiency levels has any impact on their L3 motivation. The study results indicate that out of 289 students, 235 learners evaluate their L2 proficiency to the level of Good, but it failed to show any effect on their L3 motivation. Instead, out of 283 students, 196 chose L1 as the medium of L3 instruction. These results suggest that minority students either have strong commitment to their L1 or the level of their proficiency in L1 and L2 is not balanced. It indicates that the teaching modes in which L3 is taught in L2 needs to be further researched before it is fully implemented all over Xinjiang. In terms of the learners' self-evaluation of L3 level, it further confirms the previous study results (Lasagabaster, 2000) in which a good command of language competence is one of the most influential motivational factors in L3 achievement in a multilingual context. The present study results also support the previous study results (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002) in which high competence results in high motivation and vice-versa.

The third individual factor explored the influence of learners' attitudes towards L2 and L3 learning on their L3 motivation. Out of 283 students, 189 responded they wanted to learn L2 Very much when they started to learn it. These results further support the study results by Ma (2009) and Tsung (2010) in which the minority students

in Xinjiang held positive attitudes towards L2 learning, but this positive attitudes failed to show any impact on the motivation of their L3 learning. Thus, the results of the present study do not support the hypothesis by Cenoz (2000) in which a good command of language attitude and competence in L2 leads to higher motivation in L3. Yet, in terms of learners' attitudes to L3 learning, it has a positive influence on their L3 motivation. These results are consistent with the previous study results in that the positive attitude leads to higher motivation (Gardner, 1985, 2001). In order to help policy makers and language planners to make an optimal trilingual educational policy in such a multilingual and multicultural region, the minority learners' attitudes and motivation in L1 and L2 need to be explored and taken into account.

The fourth individual factor is the minority learners' exposure to L2 and its influence on L3 motivation. The results of this study are different from the study results in which students from mainly Spanish-speaking community have more positive attitude and motivation towards English (Lasagabaster, 2003. In terms of bilingual teaching mode and learners' exposure to L2, the cost of L3 motivation from group II is higher than group I. It can be explained from both societal and individual levels. From the societal level: (1) nearly half of the students from group II are from new teaching mode in which L1 is taught as a school subject. This means they spend more effort and time in learning their school subjects from the earlier age, one of the main causes of increasing *cost* in a task. These results further confirm Feng's (2005) worries about the negative influence of the present bilingual language policy on the minority learners' L3 education. (2). The school system that places English as a minor course and exempt the minority students from taking it in the College Entrance Exam. From the point of individual level, based on the cognitive influence of L2 age onset on L3 outcomes, these results further confirm the previous study results in that: (1) a higher frequency of use of the minority language (Sciriha, 2001), a better competence in the minority language (Bernaus, Masgoret, Gardner & Reyes, 2004) or a higher proficiency in both the minority and the majority language (Muñoz, 2000) happen to be related to better outcomes in different dimensions of L3. (2) late-onset bilinguals maintained improvements in accurately making noun case morphology in L3 production somewhat better than early-onset bilinguals. If we apply the Cenoz' (2003) hypothesis in which effective L1 proficiency leads to adequate L2 motivation, which in turn, leads to adequate L3 motivation in the multilingual and multicultural context, future researches are needed to explore the effectiveness of different modes of bilingual teaching system.

Conclusion

On the basis of EVT of achievement motivation, this study aimed to explore the minority learners' motivation in learning English as an L3. Regarding the most influential motivational variables, utility and attainment value have the strongest influence on minority learners' L3 motivation. The study results showed that L3 learners' expectancy is lower in comparison to other motivational variables of intrinsic, attainment and utility value even though they reached the L2 proficiency level set by educational authorities. Thus, a study exploring the minority students' attitude towards L1 and L2 and their motivation in these two languages will shed better light on their motivation in learning L3.

This study also investigated the individual factors influencing the minority learners' L3 motivation. The results showed that the individual factors related to learners' exposure to L2, the L2-age onset, and their attitude towards L3 learning and

self-evaluation in L3 proficiency have stronger influence on the minority learners' L3 motivation than their choice of the medium of L3 instruction and the attitude towards L2 learning. On whole, the study showed different results in comparison to the studies carried out in other multilingual and multicultural contexts (Cenoz, 2003; Lasagabaster, 2000). Thus, further studies that investigate the influence of social factors will help better understand their motivation in learning L3. The results of the present study have a number of important educational and policy-related implications, specifically relevant for the different modes of bilingual education in Xinjiang. First, they point to the importance of implementing a well-planned bilingual education policy that facilitates the minority learners' L3 acquisition, and the medium of L3 instruction. Another important implication is that English proficiency is not currently one of the evaluative measures in the pre- or post-university tests that all minority students must take if they wish to gain a place at university, and which top universities use to select students in China. Middle school students don't like to devote efforts and time in learning English, as it is a minor course, especially when they are in their third year in Junior high school, because their English test scores are not required for (中 考) Senior High School Entrance Examination. What is more, no matter how their English level is, they start learning it from the very beginning after they enter colleges. Thus the findings highlight the need to establish assessment policies for the minority students' L3 proficiency before and after their graduation from the college.

References

Adamson, B., & Feng, A. (2009). A comparison of trilingual education policies for ethnic minorities in China. *Compare, 39*(3), 321-333.

Ahåt, R. (2014). Motivational differences between monolinguals and bilinguals in the context of English as a foreign language: A case study on the Xinjiang Uyghur autonomous region. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research, 5*(3), 505-516. DOI: 10.4304/jltr.5.3505-516

Baehler, D., & Besharov, K. (2013). Chinese social policy in a time of transition. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
DOI:10.1093/acprof:oso/9780199990313.001.0001

Bernaus, M., Masgoret, A., Gardner, R. & Reyes, E. (2004). Motivation and attitudes towards learning languages in multicultural classrooms. *International Journal of Multilingualism. 1*(2), 75-89. DOI:10.1080/14790710408668180

Cenoz, J. (2008). Predicting enhanced L3 learning in bilingual contexts: The role of biliteracy. In C. Pérez-Vidal , M. Juan-Garau & A. Bel Gaya (Eds.), A portrait of the young in the new multilingual Spain. Clevedon: *Multilingual Matters.*

Cenoz, J. (2003). The additive effect of bilingualism on third language acquisition: A Review. *International Journal of Bilingualism, 7*(1), 71-87.

Cenoz, J., & Jessner, U. (2000). Research on multilingual acquisition. In Cenoz J. & U. Jessner (Eds.), English in Europe. The acquisition of a third language. Clevedon: Multlingual Matters.

Cenoz, J. & Valencia, J. F. (1994). Additive trilingualism: Evidence from the Basque country. *Applied Psycholinguistics, 15*(2*),* 195-207.

Clyne, M. (2011). There is too many in Australia. In S. Hélor & M. Ó Laoire (Eds.), Language policy for the multilingual classroom. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Clyne, M. & Grey, F. (2004). Learning a community language as a third language.

International Journal of Multilingualism, 1(1*), 33-52.

Dörnyei, Z., Csizér, K. & Németh, N. (2006) Motivation, language attitudes and globalization: a Hungarian perspective. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Eccles, J. S., & Wigfield, A. (2002). Motivational beliefs, values and goals. *Annual Review, 53*(1), 109-132 .

Eccles, J. S. (2004). Schools, academic motivation, and stage-environment fit. In R. Lerner & L. Steinberg (Eds.), *Handbook of adolescent psychology* (2nd ed.,pp. 125-53). Hoboken, NJ: Wiley.

Ellinger, B. (2000). The relationship between ethnolinguistic identity and English language achievement for native Russian speakers and native Hebrew speakers in Israel. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development, 21*(4*), 292-307. DOI:10.1080/01434630008666406

Errasti, M. S. (2003). Acquiring writing skills in a third language: The positive effects of bilingualism. *International Journal of Bilingualism, 7*(1), 27-42.

Feng, A. (2012). Spread of English across Greater China. J*ournal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development, 33*(6), 363-377. DO10.1080/01434632.2012.661435

Feng, A. (2005). Bilingualism for the minor or the major? An evaluative analysis of parallel perceptions in China. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bicultralism, 8*(6), 1-23.

Gardner, R. C. (2001). Language learning motivation: The student, the teacher, and the researcher. *Texas Foreign Language Education Conference, 6*(1), 1-18.

Gardner, R. C. (2001). Social Psychology and Second Language Learning: *The role of attitudes and motivation*. London: Edward Arnold.

Gao, Y. et al. (2004). Motivation types of Chinese undergraduates. *Asian Journal of English Language Teaching, 14,* 45-64

Herdina, P. & Jessner, U. (2000). The Dynamics of Third Language Acquisition. In J. Cenoz & U. Jessner (Eds.), English in Europe: the Acquisition of a Third Language. *Multilingual Matters.*

Hu, G.(2005a). English language education in China: Policies, progress, and problems. *Language Policy, 4*(1) , 5–24. DOI: 10.1007/s10993-004-6561-7

Jorda`, M. (2005). Pragmatic production of third language learners of English: A focus on request acts modifiers. *International Journal of Multilingualism, 2*(2), 84-104. DOI:10.1080/14790710508668378

Lam, A. (2007). Bilingual or multilingual education in China: Policy and learner experience. In A. Feng. (Ed.), Bilingual education in China: Practice, policies and concepts. *Multilingual Matters*

Lasagabaster, D. (2000). Three languages and three linguistic models in the Basque educational system. In J. Cenoz & U. Jessner (Ed.), English in Europe: The acquisition of a third language. *Multilingual Matters*

Lasagabaster, D. (2004). Attitudes towards English in the Basque autonomous community. *World Englishes, 23*(1), 585–597.

Ma, R. (2009). Development of minority education and practice of bilingual education in Xinjiang Uyghur autonomous region. *Front Educ China, 4*(2), 188–251. DOI: 10.1007/s11516-009-0012-3

Muñoz, C. (2000). Bilingualism and trilingualism in school students in Catalonia. In J. Cenoz & U.Jessner (Eds.), English in Europe: The acquisition of a third language. *Multilingual Matters.*

Nikolov, M. (1999). Why do you learn English? Because the teacher is short". A study of Hungarian children's foreign language learning motivation. *Language*

Teaching Research, 3(1) 33-56.

Obeng, S. G. (2000). Speaking the unspeakable: Discursive strategies to express language attitudes in Legon (Ghana) Graffiti. *Research on Language and Social Interaction, 33*(3*)*, 291-319.

Ohki, M. (2009). Stimuler la motivation de l'apprenant japonais de francais en contextualisant l'enseignment au Japon.

Sciriha,L.(2001). Thrilingualism in Malta: Social and educational perspectives. *International Journal of Bilingualism and Bilingual Education, 4*(1), 23-37

Troike, R. C. (1984). Social and cultural aspects of language proficiency. In C. Rivera (Ed.), Language proficiency and academic achievement. *Multilingual Matters.*

Tsung, L (2010). Minority languages, education and communities in China. *Language policy, 9*(3), 269-271

Wigfield, A. (1994). Expectancy-value theory of achievement motivation: A developmental prospective. *Educational Psychology Review*, *6*(1), 49-56.

Yang, J. (2005). English as a third language among China's ethnic minorities. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, *8*(6), 552-567. DOI:10.1080/13670050508669069

Note on Contributors

Rayhangül AHÅT is a lecturer of English at the college of Foreign Languages, Xinjiang University, China. Her research interest is mainly EFL teaching and learning in the context of English as an L3, including learner motivation, learner strategy autonomous learning, and language policy. She is currently working at College of Foreign Languages, Xinjiang University, Ürümqi, Shengli Road No. 666, Xinjiang, China. Email: 18999294511@163.com

Shinya HORI obtained Ph.D. in Human and Environment Studies at Kyoto University in 2012. He specializes in French education and collaborates with teachers and researchers of other languages. His research field includes motivation, learner autonomy and language policy in Europe. He is currently working in Faculty of Education and Integrated Arts and Sciences, Waseda University, Tokyo, Japan. E-mail: S.hori19780721@gmail.com

Appendix

I. Personal Information
1. Your native language: A. Uyghur   B. Kazak   C. Others
2. Your gender: A. Male   B. Female
3. Your hometown: ---------
4. Your major: -------- ----
5. Your language level in the following languages
    English: A. Good   B. Not bad   C. Bad
    Chinese: A. Good   B. Not bad   C. Bad
6. How old were you when you started to learn Chinese?   -----------years old
7. How old were you when you started to learn English?   -----------years old
8. When you started to learn this language, did you want to learn it?
   English: A. Very much   B. Not very   C. No
   Chinese: A. Very much   B. Not very   C. No
9. If you are given a chance, what language do you choose as the medium of
    English instruction?
   A. Native language only   B. Chinese only
   C. Both native language and Chinese   D. Whatever language is OK

II. Questionnaire from Expectancy-Value theory
Likert scale from disagree to agree 1. 2. 3. 4. 5.
Expectancy
2. I am more competent in my English than my classmates.
5. I think I am mastering what I have learned in English class
6. I think I can master English.
9. I think I can get good grades in English in the final exam.
10. I think I can achieve my goal successfully in learning English.
Interest
3. I am interested in learning English.
15. Learning English is interesting to me.
Attainment
1. It is important for me to have good grades in English.
12. English is very important to fulfill my potentials.
16. It is important for me to be able to use English completely in all situations.
20. English is very important to make our culture known to the world.
Utility
18. What I have learnt in English course will be useful in the future.
19. English is useful to find a job after my graduation.
21. English will be useful to my future plan.
Cost
4. English is difficult for me.
7. It is difficult for me to learn English in Chinese.
8. It is very difficult to learn English, because there are a lot of things to do after class.
11. I don't have enough time to learn English, because I have many courses to take this semester.
13. To get good grades in English, I have to study hard.
14. Learning English is a burden (painful) in several ways.
17. I think I have to work hard to acquire English.

Writing Instruction for English Learners in a Translingual Classroom

Sylvia Read
Utah State University

Michael Spooner
Utah State University

Abstract

The authors review three different strands of work on English writing research and instruction, working to harmonize them into a coherent translingual approach to teaching writing in the postsecondary EFL/EIL/ESL writing classroom. Five principles from English composition research (now often called writing studies) describe the fundamental knowledge base; next, the work of researchers specifically in the writing of L2 speakers provides a contrasting perspective; and finally, recent translingual scholarship usefully complicates the other two. The paper then offers two sample writing lessons that demonstrate an approach to writing pedagogy triangulating these three bodies of knowledge.

Keyword*s*: composition, EFL, EIL, ESL, L2 writing, TESOL, translingualism, writing instruction, writing studies

Introduction

> *[English language learners] see learning to write well in English, or in some variety of it, as a way up and perhaps a way out. Coming as they often do from rich traditions of literacy . . . they are also familiar with the aesthetic and intellectual rewards of writing and reading.*
> —Bruce & Rafoth (2016)

What Bruce and Rafoth describe above represents a challenge and a conundrum for postsecondary writing programs in the U.S., where Bruce and Rafoth teach, even when those programs include teachers with experience teaching ESL. Traditional ESL writing instruction, like much L2 instruction, appears to proceed from a de facto deficit model expressed through a monolingual approach. The colonialist impulse of monolingual pedagogy has been well-discussed in the literature, so here we will point out only that such an approach imagines students as functionally illiterate and inexperienced, at the same time as it cuts them off from the powerful language resources of their home language. The "rich traditions of literacy" at their command are *a priori* ruled out of bounds, inaccessible, in the classroom.

For EIL teachers, the challenge takes a unique form. Depending on their institution, international teachers may be expected to bracket their own variety of English in order to give instruction in the "standard English" of countries where the language is considered native. However, as Li has recently pointed out, to be more successful, an English user should learn and practice a strong awareness of multiple English varieties. "[T]eaching from an EIL paradigm needs to focus on facilitating intercultural communicative competence in multilingual and multicultural contexts, rather than mastery of an idealized "standard English" and its associated cultural norms" (Li, 2017, p. 251).

Below, we explore this problem as it applies to instruction in writing. We do so by triangulating the knowledge base of composition theory with that of L2 writing instruction and with the growing literature on translingualism. We find where these three lines of vision intersect and, from that point of focus, we develop two writing lessons that exemplify an alternative approach to L2 writing pedagogy, one that harmonizes these three bodies of knowledge.

What is agreed in writing studies

Scholarship in writing studies (still predominantly a U.S. discipline) has established a number of consensus points regarding the activity of writing. These are described in recent work as "threshold concepts" (Adler-Kassner & Wardle, 2015) and five of them are considered to represent major core understandings that define the discipline. We summarize the five concepts below, but, for ease of reference, here they are in a single list.

1. Writing is a social and rhetorical activity
2. Writing speaks to situations through recognizable forms
3. Writing enacts and creates identities and ideologies
4. All writers have more to learn
5. Writing is always a cognitive activity

Much the same could be said of language study, and transcending all, one can see the consensus that not just writing, but literacy itself is socially constructed, multimodal, and situational.

1. Writing is a social and rhetorical activity

Writing scholars have virtual unanimity on the view that all manner of writing is best understood as social and rhetorical. This idea is counter-intuitive to many students and even to many teachers. In the lore of non-specialists, writing is essentially a matter of transcribing thoughts that appear in the mind. The focus of this traditional understanding is on the finished product of writing, which should be fixed in a form that meets a conventional standard of grammatical/mechanical correctness. Writing is considered a straightforward skill, even a basic one. This is not how writing scholars and researchers see writing.

Since the mid-twentieth century, research in writing has shown writing to be far more nuanced and flexible—a fundamentally social and fundamentally rhetorical activity. Just as speaking connects one person to another in a relation with a purpose, writing also addresses an audience, and the writer aims to influence that audience. Whether writing a newsy email to a friend, a contract for a realtor, an article for a journal, or a poem to a loved one, the writer is seeking to engage another human being and to move them in some way. "Writers are engaged in the work of making meaning for particular audiences and purposes, and writers are always connected to other people" (Roozen, 2015, p. 17). Even writing for oneself is dialogic: in this case, the "reader" may be only a projection of the self, but the writer addresses that reader and hopes to influence them.

The social dimension of writing goes even deeper than connecting with an audience, because a writer also engages with antecedents and sources. Words get their meanings from how they are used by other people in other situations, and those mean-

ings change as we employ them in new situations. In this way, we are always "writing back" to others and contributing to the long-term, dynamic process of making language. In regard to academic genres, Harris (2006) suggests that *all* writing can be seen as *re*writing; in this, he is expressing what writing scholars have established throughout a wide range of work: that writing is always necessarily dialogic—i.e., social and rhetorical.

2. Writing speaks to situations through recognizable forms

The concept of genre is familiar to literacy, communication, and language scholars. In every instance of communication resides the question of how each interlocutor interprets both the communicative *situation* and the *form* of the communication itself. Is my friend telling a joke or a story? Are they asking me for a favor? Are they opening a long conversation, or do they mean just to acknowledge me with a passing greeting? If I don't have time for conversation, what form should my response take? These are questions of genre.

Martin (2009), as a linguist, points out that genre is not so much a choice of form as a semantic choice responding to a social context; genre is one of the many ways in which people use language to live. In context, form itself conveys meaning. Scholarship on genre in writing studies takes a similarly functional and social perspective. Generally, writing is understood to address its audience through recognizable gestures associated with defined audiences (different disciplines, for example) and with situations for which the reader would find the writing appropriate. A book report, for example, will not do when a research report is expected. Bazerman (2015) grounds his perspective of genre in the familiar concept of rhetorical situation. "Awareness of rhetorical situation . . . helps us to put in focus what we can accomplish in a situation, how we can accomplish it, and what the stakes are" (Bazerman, 2015, p. 36). This is what Bawarshi (2003) means when he argues that the force of genre does more than package its content; the genre actually constructs or "invents" the writer for the moment.

Unfortunately, students and teachers are often over-specific in their approach to genre in writing instruction, and they tend to reify artificial conventions into obligatory gestures and formalities. Such is the case with the century-old North American "five-paragraph theme," a genre of writing that is by all accounts functional literally nowhere but in U.S. secondary schools. In contrast, the focus of current genre scholarship is on the diversity of the forms of discourse. For writing scholars, the point of bringing students to understand genre is not to help them build a repertoire of formal conventions that match particular school assignments. Instead, they want students to internalize the concept of rhetorical situation, and to develop an awareness of genre as a functional way to think about invention in writing and about how they might present or invent themselves through text for different rhetorical situations.

3. Writing enacts and creates identities and ideologies

This idea is familiar to literacy, language, and writing scholars via sociocultural theory. To learn a language is to gain membership in a social group. Membership in a social group confers an identity. With the constructed discourse of a group comes a constructed way of seeing the world—an ideology—because our discourse both provides and constrains what is possible for us to see, say, and think. In this manner, language builds ideological schema from which learners operate. Accordingly, through writing

as through speaking, we exercise our ideologies and identities. At the same time, although "instances of language use do not exist independently from cultures and their ideologies" (Scott, 2015, p. 48), they are not frozen or fossilized there. Subsequent languaging enlarges what is known to the learner, and growth occurs.

Although familiar and research-based, this social view of language does run counter to the commonsense of non-specialist publics, including education policymakers, teachers, and even many scholars in non-humanities disciplines. The misconception that there is a single correct usage, a standard language, or a general academic discourse seems persuasive to many, and probably most, language users inside and outside the academy assume language to be a neutral, transparent, unsituated conveyance for thought. Writing (like speaking) seems a general skill that one can master with a little instruction and self-discipline.

According to writing researchers, what is missed in the logic of standards is that a standard itself is a convention, and it, too, represents an ideology. To linguists, this too is a familiar concept, and many EIL teachers are more than keenly aware that to impose a language standard on a student also imposes an ideology and an identity—a point sometimes missed by education policymakers. This imposition may or may not harm a student, but it does suggest the need to affirm and respect the student's bond with the home language (Kim & Tatar, 2017). Whether or not the teacher chooses to attend to this in the manner that we do in the lessons below, the point is that in teaching writing, it is useful to understand the ideological and identity dynamics of language use.

4. All writers have more to learn

With this fourth threshold concept, composition researchers take it as a given that all writers, not just student writers or L2 writers, can continue to develop. This is partly a function of human cognition—learning never truly ends. But it is also a function of the physical world. We communicate with real physical human beings, and every authentic writing situation is different, making different demands on genre, discourse, lexicon, register, and pragmatics. Consequently, "there is no such thing as 'writing in general' and no one lesson about writing that can make writing good in all contexts" (Rose, 2015, p. 60). Instead, one learns over a long period how to select appropriate strategies for new writing situations. A more experienced writer may be better at this than a novice writer, but no single writer can hope to achieve terminal proficiency, a level of mastery where development is fully achieved, is a fiction.

A related problem is the traditional benchmark for L2 proficiency: the idealized native speaker. Called the "native speaker fallacy" by Phillipson (1992) and "native-speakerism" by Holliday (2006), this ideal, of course, privileges prestige varieties thought to exemplify a universal target proficiency; it neglects international Englishes altogether and ignores even the range of Englishes spoken *within* countries where English is considered "native."

Not just a social issue, the native-speaker benchmark presents a logical problem, too. L1 speakers are granted *proficient* or *mastery* status categorically as natives to the language (e.g., Lightbown & Spada, 1999), in spite of the vast range of language competence represented among actual living native speakers. As translingual theorists point out, all speakers learn language in a zone where multiple linguistic traditions and conventions are in contact.

There are both many models and no perfectly homogeneous linguistic community in which one could become the ideal "native speaker" with full mastery of their

language. This reality is what the fourth threshold concept in writing is about: coming to grips with variation, all writers can progress.

5. *Writing is always a cognitive activity*

If writing is a social and a rhetorical gesture that requires the individual to choose and judge and build a strategy, then it obviously also requires cognition. Here the exterior social world meets the interior physical world of the human brain. A number of empirical studies in the 1970s and 1980s established that writing performance is inflected by such interior states as anxiety, shifting attention, idiosyncratic choices, identity configurations, and others (Emig, 1971; Flower & Hayes, 1981; Perl, 1979). It was through cognitive studies that writing scholars began to challenge the conventional view that poor student performance was related to mental or cultural deficits. From these studies, the field saw the need to turn toward the explanatory value of social and rhetorical theories of the composing process.

Cognitive research today adds the important point that a two-way influence between writing and cognition exists; not only does how we think influence how we write, but how we write can influence how we think—cognitive states, such as memory, attention, goal-setting, and others are affected by writing. Dryer (2015) takes this further: "[T]here is now substantial evidence that composing practices measurably influence . . . psychosocial and even *physiological* phenomena (stress and anxiety levels, recovery from trauma, immunological response, pain sensitivity, postoperative recovery, etc.)" (p. 73, emphasis original).

As part of this return to an interest in cognition, some writing scholars emphasize the value of teaching *meta*cognition, which can help students attend to important issues that transcend writing situations (e.g., genre, discourse community) and to learn to transfer and adapt writing strategies from one context to another. Dryer (2015) points to a convergence between a focus on the social in writing research and the refreshed interest in cognitive research: "The writing process is supported by a single system—the writer's internal mind-brain interacting with the external environment" (Berninger & Winn, 2006, as cited in Dryer, 2015, p. 74).

What is agreed in second language writing studies

We find a great deal of epistemological common ground between the threshold concepts in English composition studies and many accepted concepts among second language writing scholars, but there are important differences, as well. For example, although the majority of composition scholars identify with humanities research and methods, scholars of L2 writing have emerged primarily from the field of linguistics, especially applied linguistics. In their book-length review of research on L2 writing in English, Leki, Cumming, and Silva (2008) write that "This historical allegiance has resulted in . . . a more practical, less theoretical collective turn of mind, tending to nudge the field away from more ideological considerations" (p. 61).

Indeed, as a collective, English compositionists have been very much occupied with ideological considerations. Employed predominantly by U.S. public institutions, they argue that it is a civic obligation to advance social justice in the classroom (Condon, 2012). In contrast, scholars of L2 writing, possibly because they identify with a more transnational focus and constituency, generally hesitate to use the classroom to advance civic agendas associated with North American sociopolitical presuppositions. "[B]urning ideological issues in the U.S. . . . may simply be irrelevant to many   inter-

nationals. In addition, . . . for those teaching abroad, discussion of ideological issues may [carry] social sanctions or even security risks" (Leki et al., 2008, p. 61).

Still, despite having followed "a different path" (Matsuda, 1999), research in L2 writing reveals operational understandings that have much in common with the threshold concepts in the field of writing studies discussed above. Fundamentally, like their L1 colleagues, L2 writing researchers conceive of writing as a social and rhetorical activity. L2 writing scholars also engage with the subject of identity work. Work in multi-literacies and in translingualism specifically is bringing "expanding circle English" (Kachru, 1992) to the attention of the field of L1 writing studies and is building a case for greater attention to the voices, competencies, and identities of multilingual English learners (Canagarajah, 2010; Young & Martinez, 2011).

In addition to a general difference regarding sociopolitical agendas, L2 writing instruction departs from English composition in two notable areas.

Differences in perspective: the role of writing in education

First, although literacy itself is valued in cultures around the world, writing—as a subject of instruction—is not seen everywhere as meriting the attention that it is given in the United States. Reichelt (2011) describes at some length the problematics of directly importing U.S. writing pedagogy to the English classroom elsewhere. She references Hargan's study of American EFL teachers in Italy who emphasized American-style academic essays with their Italian students. "Essay writing is not a key feature of the Italian educational system, where oral examinations and oral reports are much more common. When students write their research projects in English, it is their *first academic research writing experience* in any language" (Reichelt, 2011, p. 15, emphasis added). In countries where a tradition of writing instruction does exist, it may be focused more on close reading of literary texts, as it is in Germany (Reichelt, 2011). For a different sort of example, in China, rhetorical traditions stand in clear opposition to American-style academic argument writing (Wang, 2011).

While these international examples confirm that writing always enacts identities and ideologies, it is amusing that they do so at the expense of American-style writing instruction. Accordingly, L2 writing scholars advise writing teachers in non-U.S. settings to examine their presuppositions about instruction, classroom facilities, resources, time for instruction, class size, and other contextual matters—even about the importance of writing instruction. Like writing itself, instruction always exists within a context, and it is not always the American context.

Differences in perspective: Defining core values

Secondly, it seems fair to say that L2 writing instruction differs from L1 English writing studies in its fundamental orientation toward theory. Instead of looking for disciplinary consensus around core theory concepts, L2 writing prefers to define itself in pedagogy. Leki et al. appear almost deliberately ambiguous on the question of the conceptual foundations of L2 writing research. These authors want to defer theoretical consensus, preferring to see the field as practical, local, eclectic, and pedagogically focused. "Indeed, one would be hard-pressed to identify *foundational concepts* that have aspired to provide a single, guiding basis *on which to organize L2 writing curricula* comprehensively" (Leki et al., 2008, p. 72, emphasis added). If by this they mean that there is no universal or universalizing *approach to teaching* L2 writing, then we would agree. But regarding foundational concepts, there is certainly a high

degree of congruence among scholars on *the activity* of writing—and these surely do inform L2 writing curricula.

Leki et al. point in particular to three prominent theoretical orientations that emerge from L2 writing research, and they reveal significant overlap with the threshold concepts above. To condense and clarify their descriptions, we can see them this way (cf. Leki et al., 2008, pp. 74–75):

1. *sociocultural theory explains the roles of instruction*—e.g., in tutoring contexts, in dialogue journals, written reflections, and other activities that require collaboration;
2. *theories of language socialization explain how students develop language identities* through writing and through their experience of a wide range of social relations inside and outside of school; and
3. digital technologies have expanded how we understand literacy, so that today it includes *multimodal forms of literate activity*.

Here we can see no serious conflict between the more general research base developed among compositionists and the more specialized interests of scholars in L2 writing. Research in L2 writing brings a deeper cross-cultural perspective to writing instruction than one sees in the U.S.-centric field of composition. Beyond this, however, their differences amount to a question of emphasis or focus. With the recent (and still emergent) work in translingualism, we find even more complication, and it is useful complication.

Translingualism and writing

Translingualism, as a particular conception of multilingualism, emerges from research in critical applied linguistics. It argues that all speakers inhabit contact zones where languages continuously interact and language users negotiate linguistically across language boundaries. One could argue that this insight is implied already in the study of contact languages (cf. Kachru 1992), but translingualism appears to amplify it into an overt critique of several well-established and conventional ideas.

For example, more than has been done before, it challenges the position in sociocultural theory that languages are more or less stable and more or less discrete from each other, such that certain cognitive processes are mediated almost only through a speaker's first language (cf. Lantolf, 2011). Translingualism would argue that multilingual individuals draw constantly upon all their languages at once as an integrated semiotic repertoire. As Macaro (2005, p. 65) points out, there is neurological evidence that this is so. Consequently, translingual theory challenges the monolingual lore of coordinate organization in the brain and "language interference" that drives the pedagogy of target-language-only classrooms, and it further represents a critique of the "native speaker" discussed above, who speaks one ideal uncontaminated language in a homogeneous environment (cf. Chomsky, 1986). On the contrary, translingual theory posits that language is inherently responsive to influence, and that the supposed boundaries between languages are permeable—a concept perfectly obvious to EIL instructors. In a manner of speaking, translingualism implies that "language" is one, and to speak of "languages" is only to point to general regions in a vast sphere of multi-language.

When they approach writing instruction, translingual scholars advocate bilingual, metacognitive, and meta-rhetorical approaches, suggesting that teachers   should

think of a student's multiple languages as resources, not as distractions or deficits. (See, for one example, Canagarajah, 2017). Students should apply their prior linguistic and cultural knowledge strategically as they acquire a new language, negotiate meaning, invent, and learn.

Scholars in L2 writing itself have no quarrel with the translingual theory of language—and certainly no objection to its critique of monolingualist traditions in language education. But L2 writing scholars argue strongly that translingualism is an area of study very different from L2 writing and they caution against conflating the two areas (Atkinson et al., 2015). They feel that there is in translingual theory—which is an expansive idea—a tendency to subsume other fields and specialties. Translingual scholarship, they remind us, is not the same as L2 writing scholarship, and applied linguistics does not generally take up the subject of composition. How teachers understand the two is a crucial matter with implications for the very multilingual students with whom both fields are occupied.

What does translingual L2 writing instruction look like in practice?

This tension between L2 writing and translingualism makes one wonder whether it is possible to build a persuasive practice that draws from both. What would L2 writing instruction look like if one could integrate principles from accepted writing theory (L1 and L2) with principles from translingual theory (including the challenge to monolingualist teaching)? Harmonizing the two appears to be one of the emerging riddles of scholarship in this area, and, consequently, not a great deal of work has yet been published on it.

As a starting point, however, Horner (2016) offers the key intuition that translingual teaching inherently encourages reflection and cognitive transfer in the student. This is an important pedagogical advantage (cf. threshold concept five). An L2 writing teacher with a translingual perspective, Horner argues, will see "all language practice as action-reflection rather than . . . action about which one may or may not reflect" (Horner, 2016, p. 107). Teaching L2 writing in this way both affirms the student's L1, authorizing her/his language variety as a resource for learning to write in L2, and automatically invokes reflection and transfer. This is a significant and liberating shift in approach for writing instruction.

Secondly, since, in the translingual conception, all speakers are constantly (unconsciously and in tiny ways) transforming language, a translingual practice of writing instruction would adopt "an orientation of acceptance of *variability as the norm*, and a *concern with communicative effectiveness* rather than with conformity to standards of correctness" (Horner, 2016, p. 122, emphasis added).

Although this position would raise concerns among teachers and policymakers who hold traditional views of correctness ("native-speakerism"), what it implies for teaching is both ethically vital and fully congruent with both an EIL and a communicative orientation to language instruction. Translingual teaching presupposes in the teacher a disposition of humility toward language and of patience toward students, compatible with the communicative emphasis on collaboration, negotiation of meaning, and communicative effectiveness. Instead of the error-averse instruction of traditional approaches, a translingual orientation takes an encouraging stance toward the ambiguity, miscues, and unconventional collocations that inevitably arise in the L2 classroom. The faith of the instructor is in the understanding that variation in language is the real standard, that language learning is a long-term process, and that negotiation of meaning—not enforcing a correctness defined by "native speaker" stand-

ards—is the goal.

Writing for an audience of elementary and secondary educators, García, Johnson, and Seltzer (2017) capture these general principles and dispositions in three key pedagogical ideas: *stance, design,* and *shifts.* They position each of these in relation to what they call the dynamic translanguaging *corriente*—the current or flow in the classroom—and they outline how they use these key terms:

- A translanguaging *stance* sees the bilingual child's complex language repertoire as a resource, never as a deficit. . . .
- [F]lexible *design* is the pedagogical core of the translanguaging classroom, and it allows teachers and students to address all content . . . in equitable ways for all students, particularly bilingual students, who are often marginalized in mainstream classrooms and schools. . . .
- *[S]hifts* are the many moment-by-moment decisions that teachers make all the time. They reflect the teacher's flexibility and willingness to change the course of the lesson and assessment, as well as the language use planned for it, to release and support students' voices.

  (García, Johnson, & Seltzer, 2017, p. xiii, emphasis added.)

Two sample writing lessons

The following writing lessons aim to take account of the principles reviewed above from the contrasting worlds of research in L1 writing, L2 writing, and translingual theory, while developing writing activities for adult English language learners. The lessons model a positive stance toward variability in language and other values that Li (2017) identifies for reconceiving TESOL teacher preparation under a pluricentric paradigm. This reconception may be most important for teachers who are from the U.S. (as we authors are), where the ideology of "native-speakerism" may be most difficult to dislodge. "While full-fledged implementations of EIL may take time, a crucial step toward preparing teachers to move away from the native-speakerism model is to focus on developing knowledge and raising awareness of their personal attitudes toward English dialects and cultures" (Li, 2017, p. 255). The lessons below are designed to offer teachers ways to initiate within themselves and their students the useful sort of personal exploration that Li recommends here. We see the lessons as compatible with Li's approach (p. 259) to promoting key goals of the EIL classroom in TESOL teacher preparation: developing awareness of and sensitivity to differences across varieties of English, along with respect for other languages that each learner may have.

In this way, the lessons also advance a reimagining of competence in English like that called for by Mahboob (2017). By encouraging a conception of language as variable and dynamic, and by letting go of dependence on the ideal native speaker, we aim to enact something like Mahboob's Dynamic Approach to Language Proficiency (DALP). "DALP posits that being proficient in a language implies that one has the ability to select, adapt, negotiate and use a range of linguistic resources that are appropriate in that context and which are not dependent on native speaker norms" (Mahboob, 2017, p 3). What Mahboob describes here for EIL instruction is very much a rhetorical perspective, fully and fundamentally compatible with the threshold concepts we summarized above from writing studies.

Accordingly, these lessons enact the idea of a social core to writing that drives both communicative language teaching and the above theory positions: the lessons

invoke an authentic audience; they depend on rhetorical situations that create the need for negotiation with an interlocutor; they are knowledge-making activities that develop conceptual, cultural, or linguistic knowledge. Taking the pro-translanguage stance of Li, as well as García et al., they also invite students to engage openly with their L1, treating it as a language learning resource through code-switching, comparative analysis, and reflection.

Although every writing moment inevitably assumes a unique rhetorical situation, teaching writing should also systematically exploit key principles of learning theory. Both of the lessons below use general structures based on Read's well-known "IMSCI" approach to writing instruction (e.g., Read, 2010). These structures (*I*nquiry, *M*odeling, *S*hared practice, *C*ollaboration, *I*ndependence) are versatile enough for many different teaching moments, yet they are consistent, so that students will be able to internalize a predictable, non-threatening pattern across lessons.

In both lessons, we open with the teacher previewing potentially new vocabulary or cultural content, and activating student background knowledge. Then the teacher models the task that the students will do later. Modeling is followed by shared/collaborative practice between the teacher and the whole class, before students begin working collaboratively in pairs or small groups. This consistent frame will reduce student anxiety and build confidence, and the gradual process that moves through familiar instructional phases will function to build from the student's level of competence (what is known), through the Vygotskian zone of proximal development, to consolidate a new level of competence (what is *not* known).

Throughout, in accord with translingual thought, the teacher takes advantage of opportunities to elicit student thoughts about language, vocabulary, rhetorical situation, etc., especially the differences in English from the ways of expression in their L1.

Narrative writing lesson: Finding the story in a music video

The following writing lesson is intended for adult intermediate-low English language learners. Its purpose is to provide practice for the student in generating a brief, simple narrative based on a video story, and to stimulate discussion of personal responses in small and large groups. For the teacher, possible additional applications would include either assessment or teaching of vocabulary, grammar, or cultural competence.

Writing takes time. We have developed this lesson for a 50-minute class period, based on a particular music video. For a different class period, a longer video or a shorter one—for example a television commercial—may be preferable, depending on students' language level and comfort with writing.

Introduction

Music videos offer opportunities for several different kinds of writing, whether narrative, descriptive, critical, interpretive, or simply responsive. Videos exist for all genres of music, and many commercial videos made for popular songs include a visual narrative that enacts or imagines a drama suggested by the lyrics of the song. This lesson assumes the use of the official music video of the popular song "Bendita tu luz," by the Mexican rock group, Maná (Maná, 2006). The video is available gratis on YouTube at this address and others https://youtu.be/44kityInDvM. In the four-minute video, a visual narrative of a budding Western-style romance is enacted, although the lyrics of the song itself are not narrative at all.

An English-language music video could be used here, and certainly in the

course of a whole term, one would expect to use several kinds of videos in English. But a non-English video offers advantages, too. First, the purpose here is to respond to the *visual* narrative. The lyrics are not narrative, and if they were sung in English, the students might focus on "getting the words" or might allow their personal response to be confused by or over-determined by the lyrics. Secondly, it supports an international or transnational tone in the instruction, symbolizing that this is not an English-only classroom and that all languages are respected.

Modeling and shared practice

After playing approximately 30 seconds of the video, the teacher stops to identify the video (i.e., the group, song title, etc.) as well as to acknowledge that it is not in English. The teacher then draws attention to the visual narrative that has begun to unfold, and solicits preliminary student comments on that narrative—especially descriptions of the characters, the setting, and any actions that have occurred so far. The teacher explains that the class will be writing a brief narrative in English describing the drama they will see in the video, mentioning also that the class will view the video more than once, and that individual students or groups will have the chance to present their written narratives. The teacher solicits predictions from the students regarding what may or may not occur in the video, as a way to stimulate engagement and other affective dimensions.

At this point, the teacher restarts the video, and stops it at the same point. On the board or chart paper or other technology, the teacher models note-taking. This could take many forms (e.g., columns, lists, etc.) but the teacher should avoid modeling too much structure; "languaging" aloud, the teacher simply demonstrates writing short accessible words and phrases: e.g., woman swimming, singers, blue sky, street. For some students, this will be culturally uncomfortable; therefore, free, impressionistic, even messy note-taking should be clearly authorized.

After playing the next 30 seconds of the video, the teacher asks the students for help in taking notes, by telling, in words or whole phrases, what they noticed in the video. The teacher simply records the students' contributions, taking the occasional moment to explain unfamiliar vocabulary or structures.

Collaborative and independent writing

Responding to student preference, the teacher then plays the video either in full or in 30-second segments, as the students in pairs take notes in English. The teacher should ultimately play the video in full one last time, so students can review the notes they have written.

The classroom should be noisy with talk as pairs discuss their notes and begin to shape them into a coherent narrative. It doesn't matter how the pairs organize the work between them, but the teacher should circulate, encouraging those students who are more reticent to contribute as fully as possible.

From their notes, each pair of students will write a short paragraph to share with classmates (in a later class period). The writing will narrate the video's visual drama *as they understood or interpreted it* from the music video.

Persuasive writing lesson: What's love got to do with it?

This writing lesson is intended for adult advanced English language learners. Its purpose is to provide practice for the student in collaborative writing of brief persuasions—written arguments—from personal background knowledge, but with   support-

ing logic, for the purpose of stimulating discussion in small and large groups.

As such, the lesson will work within both presentational (writing, speaking) and interpretive (viewing, listening) modes, and will provide opportunities for the inter-personal mode, as well. In addition, the lesson involves multimodal work—in this case, viewing/listening to an interview video.

For the teacher, possible additional applications of this lesson would include individual dynamic assessment, or vocabulary, grammar, and/or cultural instruction.

Introduction

I have a relationship now to three languages: the Bengali of my family, the English of my education, and Italian. And I think Italian is the only language I have really loved.
—Jhumpa Lahiri (Wallner, 2016)

Jhumpa Lahiri, an award-winning English language novelist, has recently brought a fascinating translingual issue to the attention of the world by learning Italian as an adult and then abruptly abandoning English for her published writing. Her most recent work, *In Altre Parole*, explores her passion for the Italian language, and in several interviews, she has discussed her experience of discovering this passion. The video *Jhumpa Lahiri: In other words* (Wallner, 2016) includes portions of such interviews, along with comments from Lahiri's colleagues and students.

The video is the centerpiece of this writing lesson, and offers a rich opportunity for L2 students to consider their own relationship to the languages they know and are learning.

Modeling and shared practice

To activate student background knowledge about their own multilingualism, the teacher plays the six-minute video, *Jhumpa Lahiri: In other words,* sponsored by the New Jersey State Council on the Arts, and available on YouTube: https://youtu.be/ITshhsEq-tc. The video offers a brief biography of Lahiri before focusing on her decision to leave the English language behind, at least in her writing.

Before viewing, the teacher makes clear a purpose—for example, a theme to which the students should pay special attention. This purpose may vary depending on the local needs or interests of the students, but the video is broad enough to support a discussion along several different paths. For example, students might listen especially to comments made by Lahiri or others in the video about being

- a "language exile"
- a "language orphan"

and to consider these questions:

- why would Lahiri feel that way?
- when have I felt that way?
- why would learning a new language change that feeling for her?

Before playing the video, the teacher models note-taking via brief phrases on the board. This should be done in such a way as not to overdetermine the students' own note-taking; the point is to be sure that students feel they have permission to write in short, incomplete thoughts—which may not be customary in some cultures.

Vocabulary in this video should not be a problem for advanced students, but the teacher should pause the video at 1:40 to check students' comprehension, given the speed of the English, the different voices, and other complicating factors, and to allow

students time to catch up with their note-taking. If they feel they have missed something important, the teacher should begin the video again at a point negotiated with the students. The teacher should advise the students that in certain places after 1:40 Lahiri will sometimes be speaking or reading in Italian.

The teacher should also allow students to interrupt the video with requests to replay sections as needed. A student interruption can be a good thing; it is (usually) meaningful and communicative. In a flexible translanguaging pedagogy, the point of the instruction is not for students to master a certain content or to get "right answers," but to be sure that students are communicating in the target language any meaningful content. Thus, by simply expressing the felt need to rewind a video and to negotiate where to start it over, a student may advance as much in learning the target language as they would from any set of comprehension questions based on the content of the video itself.

Again, at the end of the video, the teacher should allow time for questions and brief replays of selected moments. At the same time, and throughout the activity, the teacher should be sure that students understand that their task is not to take down verbatim what has been said on the video, but rather to notice and understand what they feel are the most important ideas and comments made by various speakers in the video.

After viewing the video, the teacher should again take the role of model. On the board or via some other medium, the teacher should generate—with students' input—several ideas from the video. At least two of these should express some personal experience of language learning by the teacher. Thinking aloud, the teacher should circle three ideas generated and tag them in some manner as major or supporting points. The teacher's think-aloud might sound like this:

"So, in the video, when one student said [X], I thought that was very interesting. I am going to make that my number one point." [Teacher marks 1 beside the relevant line on the board.]

"I had the same experience myself when I was learning [language], as I say here in my notes; so I'm going to make that idea my number two." [Teacher marks 2 beside the related idea.]

"Now, [student] just said something that made a lot of sense to me, and it really ties 1 and 2 together. So I'm going to put that last." [Teacher marks "last" beside the relevant idea.]

"I know what's going to come first and I know what's going to come last. And in here, between number 2 and my last line, I'm going to add some of these other ideas in the list—if they work. I don't need to use them all. If I get two or three more, I'll be doing great.

"But first I'm going to write numbers 1 and 2 in a more complete way. Then I'll see what comes next."

Collaborative and independent writing

With a partner, students return to the questions in the original prompt and discuss what they feel are reasonable answers. They should be encouraged to relate their own personal experience as language learners to the experience and feelings expressed by Jhumpa Lahiri and students in the video. Taking notes as they converse with their partners, students are engaging in invention and prewriting.

Independently, students should begin to shape and organize their thoughts into a coherent written draft as the teacher modeled, and to do so separately from their partner. Although they may agree completely with their partner on what is important in

the video, students may need to be reminded that ultimately the task is an individual one; they will need to write at least a paragraph from their own point of view. The teacher may find it useful to remove the model as a way to encourage students not to simply repeat what the teacher has written, but instead to look to their own notes. This is a feature of writing in *inner circle* English-speaking cultures, but the teacher may or may not wish to make it important in any given lesson. Collaborative writing is both very useful for learning and is increasingly accepted even in individualistic English-speaking cultures.

Conclusion

Research in the three areas under study here—L1 English composition studies, L2 writing studies, and translingualism—is rich with complication and possibility. From the point of view of the EIL classroom, however, while we see *contrast* among these areas, we need not see a great deal of *conflict*. Specifically, one could argue that these contrasting strands of practice can be harmonized around a finite set of principles that translate well into instruction and integrate well with what Li calls an EIL paradigm.

All three of these areas view writing as epistemic and valuable for how it can support and enable cognitive transfer across instructional tasks. Scholars across these areas of research would also agree that authentic writing is communicative and social. They would rule out instruction that asks students to write for inauthentic audiences or simply to demonstrate mastery of language forms or conventions. Students can certainly perform in this manner, but to do so does not advance them in either the learning of English or their facility with writing itself.

Researchers would agree that authentic writing will always be purposive and functional, directed toward a task. Writing to reproduce a memorized "right answer" is not useful. Decontextualized grammar exercises are not useful. Writing in the classroom should be as much as possible directed toward student interest rather than toward teacherly or programmatic convenience. Student-chosen writing topics, or topics that at least inspire some affective investment in the student writer, are more effective.

Ultimately, the pedagogical emphases of García, Johnson, and Seltzer (2017) show a good deal of promise postsecondary EIL writing instruction. If teachers take a stance of respect toward the intellectual resources of multilingual students, design their classroom in ways that are flexible and integrative, and remain ready to shift their instruction as the needs of their group or their individual students emerge in the classroom, they will find themselves better able to keep the negotiation of meaning and authentic communication foremost. This is the approach to writing instruction that, in our view, integrates best with the EIL paradigm for TESOL teacher preparation that Li proposes and at the same time harmonizes best with research in writing on all three of the research strands we have presented here.

References

Adler-Kassner, L. & Wardle, E. (2015). *Naming what we know: Threshold concepts of writing studies.* Logan: Utah State University Press.

Atkinson, D., Crusan, D., Matsuda, P. K., Ortmeier-Hooper, C., Ruecker, T., Simpson, S., & Tardy, C. (2015). Clarifying the relationship between L2 writing and translingual writing: An open letter to writing studies editors and organization leaders. *College English*, *77*(4), 383–386.

Bawarshi, A. (2003). *Genre and the invention of the writer: Reconsidering the place*

of invention in composition. Logan: Utah State University Press.

Bazerman, C. (2015). Writing speaks to situations through recognizable forms. In *Naming what we know: Threshold concepts of writing studies* (pp. 35–37). Logan: Utah State University Press.

Bruce, S., & Rafoth, B. (Eds.). (2016). *Tutoring second language writers*. Logan: Utah State University Press.

Canagarajah, A. S. (2010). Ideology and theory in second language writing. In *Practicing theory in second language writing* (pp. 176–190). West Lafayette, IN: Parlor Press.

Canagarajah, S. (2017). *Translingual practices and neoliberal policies: Attitudes and strategies of African skilled migrants in Anglophone workplaces*. Switzerland: Springer.

Chomsky, N. (1986). *Knowledge of language: Its nature, origin and use*. New York: Praeger.

Condon, F. (2012). *I hope I join the band*. Logan: Utah State University Press.

Dryer, D. B. (2015). Writing is (also always) a cognitive activity. In *Naming what we know: Threshold concepts of writing studies* (pp. 71–74). Logan: Utah State University Press.

Emig, J. (1971). *The composing processes of twelfth graders.* Urbana: National Council of Teachers of English.

Flower, L. & Hayes, J. (1981) A Cognitive Process Theory of Writing." *College Composition and Communication, 32(*4), 365–387.

García, O., Johnson, S. I., & Seltzer, K. (2017). *The translanguaging classroom: Leveraging student bilingualism for learning*. Philadelphia: Caslon.

Harris, J. (2006). *Rewriting: How to do things with texts*. Logan: Utah State University Press.

Holliday, (2006). Native-speakerism. *ELT Journal, 60*(4), 385–387.

Horner, B. (2016). Reflecting the translingual norm: Action-reflection, ELF, translation, and transfer. In *A Rhetoric of Reflection* (pp. 106–124). Logan: Utah State University Press.

Kachru, B. B. (Ed.). (1992). *The other tongue: English across cultures*. Urbana: University of Illinois Press.

Kim, J. & Tatar, B. (2017). Nonnative English-speaking professors' experiences of English-medium instruction and their perceived roles of the local language. *Journal of Language, Identity & Education 16*(3), 157–171. DOI: 10.1080/15348458.2017.1295811

Lantolf, J. P. (2011). Sociocultural approach to second language acquisition: Sociocultural theory, second language acquisition, and artificial L2 development, The. In *Alternative approaches to second language acquisition* (pp. 24–47). London: Routledge.

Leki, I., Cumming, A., & Silva, T. (2008). *A synthesis of research on second language writing in English*. New York: Routledge.

Li, G. (2017). Preparing culturally and linguistically competent teachers for English as an international language education. *TESOL Journal 8*(2), 250–276.

Lightbown, P. M., & Spada, N. (1999). *How languages are learned* (2nd ed.). New York: Oxford University Press.

Macaro, E. (2005). Codeswitching in the L2 classroom: A communication and learning strategy. In *E. Llurda (Ed.), Non-Native Language Teachers. Perceptions, Challenges and Contributions to the Profession* (pp. 63–84). Springer.

Mahboob, A. (2017). Reimagining language competence: On professionalism. Pre-

sented at the Summit on the Future of the TESOL Profession, Athens, Greece.

Maná. (2006). *Bendita tu luz* [Music video]. WMG: OfficialMana.

Martin, J. (2009). Genre and language learning: A social semiotic perspective. *Linguistics and Education, 20*(1), 10–21.

Matsuda, P. K. (1999). Composition studies and ESL writing: A disciplinary division of labor. *College Composition and Communication*, *50*(4), 699–721.

Perl, S. (1979). The composing processes of unskilled college writers. *Research in the Teaching of English 13*(4), 317–336.

Phillipson, R. (1992). *Linguistic imperialism*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

Read, S. (2010). A model   for scaffolding writing instruction: IMSCI. *The Reading Teacher*, *64*(1), 47–52.

Reichelt, M. (2011). Foreign language writing: An overview. In *Foreign language writing instruction: Principles and practices* (pp. 3–21). Anderson, SC: Parlor Press.

Roozen, K. (2015). Writing is a social and rhetorical activity. In *Naming what we know: Threshold concepts of writing studies* (pp. 17–19). Logan: Utah State University Press.

Rose, S. (2015). All writers have more to learn. In *Naming what we know: Threshold concepts of writing studies* (pp. 59–61). Logan: Utah State University Press.

Scott, T. (2015). Writing enacts and creates identities and ideologies. In *Naming what we know: Threshold concepts of writing studies* (pp. 48–50). Logan: Utah State University Press.

Wallner, S. (2016). *Jhumpa Lahiri: In other words*. Montclair State University, NJ. Retrieved from https://youtu.be/ITshhsEq-tc

Wang, W. (2011). Teaching academic writing to advanced EFL learners in China. In *Foreign language writing instruction: Principles and practices* (pp. 285–310). Anderson, SC: Parlor Press.

Young, V. A., & Martinez, A. Y. (2011). *Code meshing as world English: Pedagogy, policy, performance*. Urbana: NCTE.

Note on Contributors

Sylvia READ is Associate Dean in the College of Education and Human Services at Utah State University. Her specialties and publications address literacy education, educator preparation, and program assessment. Email: sylvia.read@usu.edu

Michael SPOONER is retired Director of the Utah State University Press. His published work addresses topics in writing studies, editorial theory, and scholarly publishing in the U.S. Email: michael.spooner47@gmail.com