Foreword

Welcome to the December 2018 issue of the Journal of English as an International Language!

The spectrum of issues, insights and research agenda featured in this issue resonates with EILJ's resolve and remit to foster a plurality of conceptualizations in EIL. Such an unwavering stance is commensurate with the centrality and primacy of EILJ's declared mission of promoting locally appropriate, culturally sensitive and socially aligned pedagogies and practices. The voice and agency of our contributing authors assume particular prominence and substance in this issue in that they chime in with EILJ's attempts to democratize and dehegemonize the use of English across the cultures of Asia and farther afield.

The paper entitled "Structural Irregularities within the English Language: Implications for Teaching and Learning in Second Language Situations", by Jane Chinelo Obasi sets the tenor and tone for this issue. Picking up on the the vagaries of the English language grammar and the overarching problems that accrue as a result in the teaching and learning of English in a second language situation in Nigeria, the author focuses on the inherent structural irregularities within the English language, which have made it difficult for users and learners of English to handle its unconventional patterning that they come across at their various levels of linguistic analysis. Needless to say that these impede the very educational practice of ESL teaching in Nigeria, scholars have only given it cursory attention rather than making a systematic attempt at isolating and describing them for pedagogic purposes. The paper then uses the synergies and stimuli drawn from surveys to signpost these structural irregularities, which exist at the levels of spelling, phonology, and morphology and describes them with a view to enhancing as well as enriching the teaching and learning of ESL in Nigeria. The author states in no uncertain terms that the problems created by the structural irregularities in question are prominent, for instance, in "-ough" forms which can be pronounced in so many different ways: (/oʊ/ as in "though", /uː/ as in "through", /ʌf/ as in "rough", /ɒf/ as in "cough", /ɔː/ as in "thought", /aʊ/ as in "bough", /ə/ as in "thorough" or even where some letters are silent in pronunciation as in knee and knock, science or in ghost amongst others. By the same token, the author contends that the inconsistencies and irregularities within English can never be totally overcome in a second language learning situation. However, when teachers and students understand the noticeability and ubiquity of the consistent patterns of written English, as well as the historical basis of words, they can better understand the relatively few irregularities in English words. In light of this, the author

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advocates the formulation of ESL pedagogies, which by teaching the very common letter-sound patterns and the history of as many irregular words as possible would help the ESL leaners understand these irregularities from linguistic and functional perspectives.

Monica Kwon and Marshall Drolet Klassen's joint paper, "Preparing for English-speaking professional communities: Navigating L2 learners' linguistic identity in L1-dominant professional communication courses", investigates how L2 students in L1-dominant upper-level undergraduate professional communication courses self-identify their needs while undertaking collaborative tasks such as writing professional documents and preparing for group presentations with L1 students. The paper, which is rich in attitudinal data points to the L2 students' anxiety in a L1 dominant environment and their being awkwardly aware of their "non-native" or "international" status. In light of this, the paper serves as an observation on how highly motivated L2 students perceive challenges involved in group work in L1-dominant environments, the ways they in which they negotiate the role of English and the notion of native speaker in communicative contexts. Given the ubiquity of English in professional settings, communicative tasks such as small conversations among colleagues and senior employees, discussions, meetings, reading documents, writing correspondences and reports, and presenting orally become non-negotiable necessities for L2 students wishing to operate successfully in these settings. As more and more L2 speakers continue to populate the English-speaking communities both in higher education and workplaces, the authors emphasize the inevitable need to address all those key issues regarding English as an International Language that can provide L2 speakers with access to information, resources, and membership to English-speaking communities. Voicing their belief that an inclusive English environment would help augment and validate its status as a lingua franca, the authors alert their readership to the risk(s) of English language becoming a language of imperialism if it fails to be used effectively by all speakers of English, regardless of their first language, to accomplish communicative goals, as well as shared goals as professionals in industries or academic disciplines. Such a position, viewed through the confirmatory support generated by the paper can perhaps lay the groundwork for espousing sociolinguistically sensitive instructional approaches and attitudes that can impact classrooms, day-to-day interactions and workplaces positively. Only then, terms such as "globalization" and "internationalization" in contemporary professional world can be regarded as viable and tenable in our educational practices of EIL.

Ghada Shbietah's paper entitled "The use of complimenting expressions in Palestinian Arabic: A descriptive-analytical perspective", investigates

the use of complimenting expressions in Palestinian Arabic which appear to be consistent with certain social variables, namely, gender, age, education and the place of living as a viaduct for raising second language cross-cultural pragmatic awareness. Drawing on an interesting array of theoretical insights and issues from pragmatics and speech acts, the author lays out a methodology that helps her untangle the key nuances of her study. Based on the findings obtained in the study, the author states that females use a higher degree of variation while complimenting compared to males and that age, place of residence, and level of education can be viewed as key factors in expressing compliments. Further to this, the author hastens to suggest that the findings would require a more detailed explanation of the expressions of compliments that are used when performing the speech act in contexts or situations that differ every now and then. Notwithstanding this, the author notes that the findings of the study appear to be consistent with Tannen's (1990) study (with some slight differences), which points to females being more intimate and more social than males. In light of this, the author argues that the degree of intimacy seen in the complimenting speech act of females are determined not only by gender but are also influenced by particular occasions that exist for signposting their societal roles and aspirations. However, the author believes that males in some occasions such as getting a driving license can be more intimate in their compliments compared to females and that this can help explain certain psychological factors that are in keeping with the societal rules that males and females observe in the Palestinian society. In sum and spirit, the paper by pointing out the commonalities and complementarities between the speech acts of compliments and their social variables, provides a tenable explanation as to how and why the complimenting speech acts which range from the least to the most intimate ones are affected differently when they are connected with gender, place of living, education, age and power. Given the translatability of the findings and its pedagogical implications for the educational practices in EIL, we believe that this paper will be of particular interest to our readership.

Chi Wui Ng's paper entitled "Code-Mixing of Cantonese-English Bilingual Children with Different Language Dominance Patterns", presents a corpus-based longitudinal study, which investigates the impacts of the variable of language dominance on Cantonese-English bilingual children's code-mixing, which features spontaneous speech data with critical case sampling predicated on the Hong Kong Bilingual Child Language Corpus. The study uses a mixed methods approach to observe and chart the dynamics and fall-outs of code-mixing as a universal language-contact phenomenon that operates in both individual bilingualism and societal bilingualism. Given the special status of English in Hong Kong, the paper articulates the centrality and primacy of the

Cantonese-English bilingual children's code-mixing utterances, which occur in their weaker language resulting in their utilization of language structures of the dominant language with higher syntactic complexity as well as its semantic value into utterances of their weaker language. In an attempt to augment the existing body of bilingual acquisition research on Cantonese-English bilingual children's code-mixing, the current study focuses on an independent variable of language dominance to investigate the code-mixing of Cantonese-English bilingual children with distinct language dominance patterns via a corpus-based longitudinal approach. This, as the study points out might apply largely to those Cantonese-English bilingual children, who have an asymmetrical bilingual development. To the contrary, the study notes that code-mixing of bilingual children with a balanced bilingual development appear to have been influenced less by language dominance patterns yet more by the input factor. Taking into consideration the vibrancy of the findings and the methodology that helped obtain them, we can say with a reasonable degree of confidence that the insights and issues accruing from the study can help lay the methodological groundwork for studies that associate code-mixing with language dominance in more diverse language pairs to develop the resultant pairs of code-mixing patterns into a more definitive and reliable measure of language dominance. Needless to say that such a realization will be seen as an advancement in the field of bilingual acquisition research, it can yield substantial insights for further theorizing of both formal and functional aspects of code-mixed utterances which can foster innovative pedagogical practices in bilingual educational settings that resonate with the ethos of EIL.

The joint paper entitled "Motivation and Barriers for University Teachers to Apply Blended Learning in Language Classes" by Thi Nhi Nguyen, Brent Philipsen, Jaël Muls, Renfeng Wang and Koen Lombaerts is predicated on a study about university teachers who make choices to apply blended learning to language teaching. Using an inductive approach that facilitated an informed condensing and coding of data drawn from a semi-structured interview, the authors have been able to conduct a well-orchestrated investigation into what constitutes the motivations and barriers for blended learning in language classes. The categories of data presented in the paper attest to the authors' robust epistemic stance in that it has infused the synergies and stimuli that the authors need to narrate such a value-laden story of their understanding of such an important educational phenomenon, which provides many valuable clues about the factors that motivate blended learning in language setting(s) and the factors that act as its barriers. The case study featured in the paper should then serve as an inviting lead to both teachers and researchers in EIL in that it is an eloquent testimony to the efficacy of using small scale data sampling. As observed succinctly by

Taylor and Bogdan (1998, p. 156): "There are no guidelines in qualitative research for determining how many instances are necessary to support a conclusion or interpretation. This is always a judgment call." Such a position is reminiscent of Bleich (in Cooper, 1985, p. 261) who points out that: "More is known about … processes from small numbers of detailed reactions than from large numbers of one-word judgments. In this way, the process of supporting the development of detailed subjective response is simultaneously research into the nature of response processes. Given the translatability of the issues covered   in the paper, practitioners of EIL should be able to deduce critical relevance for their respective educational practices of teaching and researching that focus on those issues that relate to motivation and its possible barriers. By the same token, they should be able tease out the commonalties and complementarities between blended learning and learning in EIL for further crystallization of their educational practices in EIL.

Jagon P. Chichon's paper entitled "An Analysis of Instructors' Perspectives to First Language (L1) use in Monolingual Japanese University Contexts" uses a multi-method approach to unpack the attitudes of English Language Teachers working in Japanese universities to first language use (L1) in their second language (L2) classroom. The findings of the study indicate that while the teachers recognize the benefits of using L1 in their L2 classroom, they appear to over-rely on contextual factors such as the maturity and motivation of learners, learner proficiency and the complexity of content to define their teaching styles. Further to this, the paper points out that the teachers' past and present contexts of their experiences seem to have considerable influence over the attitudes and their choice of methodology. In light of this, the author notes that the teachers' context driven decisions and choices often fail to address the challenges posed by the prevalence and use of L1 in the L2 classroom. With a view to promoting learners' active, collaborative and more importantly, non-threatening participatory engagement in the L2 classroom through the use of L1, the paper enumerates a number of strategies for the utilization of L1 aimed at easing the learners' anxiety, reticence as well as their fear of losing face when making erroneous utterances. Such an intervention, as the author affirms, will help realign/re-dimension perceptions of a University level English class and accordingly help redefine/recalibrate all those expectations, which ignore the leaners' emotions and feelings especially when they are put under duress to make correct utterances. The ensuing pedagogies and practices will provide an informed theoretical forum to the teachers with which they will be better appraised of the benefits and rewards of using L1 in their L2 classroom.

In closing, I wish to applaud the resolve and resilience of the contributing

authors in this issue, who have showcased their alternate discourses of current reckoning in EIL to make sense of their world and themselves. They have thus attempted bold border crossings to signpost the translatability of their issues and insights in the educational practices of EIL. Such endeavours are central 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). Given this, I am certain that the issues and insights discussed in this issue would serve as a lamp to all of us, without which we will all be stranded in a "methodological wasteland of EIL". Read on!

Dr Sivakumar Sivasubramaniam
Chief Editor

Structural Irregularities within the English Language: Implications for Teaching and Learning in Second Language Situations

Jane Chinelo Obasi
University of Nigeria

Abstract

It is pertinent to observe that the vagaries of the English language grammar constitute a major problem in the teaching and learning of English in a second language situation like Nigeria. The inherent structural irregularities within the English language have made it difficult for users and learners of English to grapple with the unconventional patterning that are experienced at the various levels of linguistic analysis. These irregularities that are inherent within the grammar of English, which impede teaching and learning, have always been mentioned in passing by scholars. There is hardly any systematic attempt at isolating and describing them for pedagogic purposes. This paper, therefore, surveys and isolates these irregularities at the levels of spelling, phonology, and morphology, and describes them in order to aid the teaching and learning of English in ESL situations like Nigeria. It was observed that these problems are prominent, for instance, in "-ough" forms which can be pronounced in so many different ways: (/oʊ/ as in "though", /uː/ as in "through", /ʌf/ as in "rough", /ɒf/ as in "cough", /ɔː/ as in "thought", /aʊ/ as in "bough", /ə/ as in "thorough" or even where some letters are silent in pronunciation as in *knee* and *knock*, *science* or in *ghost* amongst others.

Introduction

As the world's international language, English has a lot going for it. For one thing, it is quite easy for speakers of other European languages to learn English than speakers of English as a second language. English spelling, on the other hand, is complicated and often illogical. English is the native mother-tongue of only Britain, Ireland, USA, Canada, Australia, New Zealand and a handful of Caribbean countries. But in 57 countries (including Ghana, Nigeria, Uganda, South Africa, India, Pakistan, Singapore, Philippines, Fiji, Vanuatu, among others), English is either the "official language" or a majority of its inhabitants speak it as a second language.

The English lexicon includes words borrowed from an estimated 120 different languages. Attempts have been made to put in context the various influences and sources of modern English vocabulary.

Some studies like that of Bryne (n.d.); Baugh and Cable (2002), Hoad (2006), and Singh (2005) have evaluated the irregular structure of the grammar of English language tracing its roots to the history of English and the influence of Germanic, French, Greek and Latin sources including some words with no clear etymology. As we have seen, English has throughout its history accumulated words from different sources which started with the early invasions by Vikings and Normans, and continued with the embracing of the classical languages during the Renaissance and the adoption of foreign words through trading and colonial connections. Pink and Thomas (1974, p. 5) attributed these inconsistencies to historical reasons which border on the commencement of printing in English in the fifteenth century. They state that the modern English spelling was fixed in the fifteenth century and so it represents the spelling of that century. According to Pink and Thomas (1974, p. 50), the reference list gives the year as 1994, please check which is correct

> Before that time the scribes had observed no uniformity in the matter of spelling but when printing was invented and books began to multiply, it was found necessary to adhere to some definite system. Thus, the early printers reduced a system of spelling which has persisted with few changes, ever since.

And for Umera-Okeke (2008), despite the fact that the spelling system of the fifteenth century persisted, English pronunciation on the other hand has undergone many far-reaching changes since Caxton's time which is one of the obvious reasons why there is no correspondence between the written word and the spoken word.

Mastin (2011) observes that largely as a result of the vagaries of its historical development, modern English is a maddeningly difficult language to spell correctly. The inveterate borrowing from other languages, combined with shifts in pronunciation and well-meaning reforms in orthography have resulted in a language seemingly at odds with itself. Mastin (2011) also explains that there are a large number of possible spelling rules (up to 100 by some counts), and a large number of exceptions to those rules, and the language continues to confound both native speakers and foreigners alike. Often, the desire to standardize the language, like the introduction of the printing press, has in itself led to anomalies and inconsistencies in its spelling. Spelling reform, which took place at various times, both in Britain and particularly in the United States, has further complicated the picture, despite a professed desire for simplification, and we now have many differences between American and British spellings to add to its intrinsic difficulties (e.g., *realize/realise*, *center/centre*, *dialog/dialogue*, *aging/ageing*, *traveler/traveller*, among others).

Solati's (2013) paper on the irregularity of the English language spelling sees the problem of irregular spelling in English as the product of its history. In Oz's (2014) paper on morphological awareness, he exposed students to

some strategies for not only understanding the meanings of words but also recognizing different morphological forms of the word in reading texts as opposed to students who are not exposed to such strategies. Oz (2014, p. 99) in this paper, quoting Ginsberg, Honda and O'Neil (2011) observed that "some metalinguistic skills such as phonological awareness, orthographic knowledge, and morphological awareness have a significant positive impact on an individual's ability to perform better in learning a new language." Of the three aspects mentioned above, however, Karimi (2012) and Kieffer and DiFelice Box (2013) assert that morphological awareness has recently been a focus in both first language (L1) and second/foreign language (L2) literacy development and has especially been examined with regard to skills including reading, writing, and spelling development as well as vocabulary acquisition. Ephraim Chambers (1743) wrote:

> In the English, the orthography is more vague and unascertained, than in any other language we know of. Every author, and almost every printer, has his particular system. Nay, it is scarce so well with us as that: we not only differ from one another; but there is scarcely any that consists with himself. The same word shall frequently appear with two or three different faces in the same page, not to say line. (Metacalfe & Astle, MCMXCV, as cited in Umera-Okeke, 2008, p. 65)

Abubakar (2015) investigates the seeming inconsistencies in the use of –er suffix among ESL learners and categorically states that "these inconsistencies can be a source of problem to successful second language learning" (p. 4015). Venezsky (1967) presents and organizes sets of orthographic patterns, based upon an analysis of the spellings and pronunciations of 20,000 most common English words; thus, allowing clear separate rules based primarily upon orthographic considerations from those based primarily upon morphemic and phonemic considerations (Venezsky, 1967, p. 75).

Cook (2004, p. 1) in her book *The English Writing System* puts it that:

> English writing system is connected to our lives in many ways, not something that is an ancillary to other aspects of language but vitally important to almost everything we do, from signing our wills to sending a text message.

While Ida (2006, p. 5) in his paper on "English Spelling in Swedish Secondary School: Students' Attitudes and Performance", states that "one crucial factor to take into account when discussing writing is spelling". Also, Solati (2013, p. 201), quoting Cronnell (1979) in his paper states that:

> Spelling is important for at least two reasons. First, a writer may not

communicate well if s/he cannot spell; that is, a reader must be able to interpret marks on the page as meaningful words and s/he cannot do this easily when words are spelled. Second, contemporary societies consider misspelling a serious social error, marking a person as, at best, "illiterate", if not outright "ignorant".

It is, therefore, pertinent to observe that the vagaries of the English language lexicon constitute a major problem in the teaching and learning of English in a second language situation. Conventionality in a language allows for the use of the language according to unwritten laws of the linguistic community. The inherent structural irregularities within the English language have made it difficult for users and learners of English to grapple with the unconventional patterning that are experienced at various levels of linguistic analysis. These irregularities that are inherent within the grammar of English, which impede teaching and learning, have always been mentioned in passing by scholars. There are no systematic attempts to isolate and describe them for pedagogic purposes in the literature. There is, therefore, the need to systematically survey and isolate these irregularities and describe them in order to aid the teaching and learning of English in a second language situation like Nigeria. Despite the sheer volume of words in the language, there are still some curious gaps, which have arisen through quirks in its development over the centuries. This is prominent in the letters "ough" which can be pronounced in so many different ways (/oʊ/ as in "though", /uː/ as in "through", /ʌf/ as in "rough", /ɒf/ as in "cough", /ɔː/ as in "thought", /aʊ/ as in "bough", /ə/ as in "thorough" or even where some letters are silent in pronunciation as in the *k* in *knee* and *knock*, the *c* in *science* or the *h* in *ghost*. Therefore, it is obvious, in a second language situation that learners and users of English are bound to encounter errors from these irregular and sometimes incredibly inconsistent and confusing structures of the English language, since these changes are born out of a system that is a mixture of different factors.

Irregularities at the level of spelling in the English Language

Although English has "only" 40 to 50 different sounds still much more than many languages, there are over 200 ways of spelling those sounds. For instance, the sound "sh" can be spelled in a bewildering number of different ways (as in *shoe*, *sugar*, *passion*, *ambitious*, *ocean*, *champagne*); a long "e" can be spelled as in *me*, *seat*, *seem*, *ceiling*, *siege*, *people*, *key*, *machine*, *phoenix*, *paediatric*.

It is well known that English words are derived mainly from old German and Norman French, and that its alphabet of 26 letters makes it impossible to represent its over 43 speech sounds with just one symbol. It is only in English that numerous spellings become highly unreliable guides to pronunciation (sound, southern, soup), and spellings for identical sounds have ended up exceptionally varied (blue, shoe, flew, through, to, you, two, too).

Scragg (1974) and Sampson (1985) observed that the settlements of Vikings in England also contributed to the alienation of spelling from pronunciation. For instance, the sound /sk/ was spelled with "sk" as in "skate" and "sketch", which are Dutch in origin, but was spelled with "sc" as in "scarce" and "scorn", for words which are French in origin. With the dawning of the Renaissance, an increased awareness of Latin became evident and scribes were responsible for latinizing spellings such as "debt, island, and receipt", which can be traced to Latin words such as "debitum," "insula," and "receptum". Even during the pre-Renaissance Middle English period, these words were spelled "dette," "yland," and "receite".

Irregularities at the level of phonology in the English Language

There is a whole catalogue of silent letters in English. Often, they are letters that were added to spellings during the English Renaissance out of a misplaced desire for etymological authenticity, or existing letters that have ceased to be pronounced for one reason or another. In fact, of the 26 letters of the alphabet, only 5 (F, J, Q, V and X) are never silent. There are too many to detail, but some examples include: the silent "b" in *comb*, *debt*, *climb*; the silent "c" in *scene*, *scent*, *science*, *scissors*; the silent "k" in *knife*, *knock*, *know*; the silent "n" in *damn*, *hymn*, *column*; the silent "p" in *psalm*, *psychiatry*, *psychology*; the silent "gh" in *night*, *through*, *taught*; the silent "g" in *gnash*, *gnaw*, *sign*; the silent "l" in *palm*, *salmon*, *yolk*; the silent "u" in *biscuit*, *building*, *tongue*; the silent "w" in *wreck*, *knowledge*, *sword*; and the silent "h" in *hour*, *honour*, *honest*, as well as in *annihilate*, *vehement*, *vehicle*, *ghost*, *rhyme*, *rhythm*, *exhaust*, *exhibition*, *exhort*. Also, the vowel sound /ʊə/ can be written as in *go*, *show*, *beau*, *sew*, *doe*, *though*, *depot* and /eɪ/ can be written as in *hey, stay, make, maid, freight, great*. In *muscle*, *sc* is *s*, while in *muscular*, it is *sk*. In *architect* "chi" is *k* while in *arch* it is the other way.

Interestingly, the poem by Lord Cromer of England titled "Our Strange Language" highlights some of the inconsistencies that seem to exist between spoken and written words in the English language. It reads thus:

> When the English tongue we speak,
> Why is "break" not rhymed with "freak?"
> Will you tell me why it's true?
> We say "sew" but likewise "few";
> And the maker of a verse
> Cannot rhyme his "horse" with "worse"?
> "Beard" sounds not the same as "heard";
> "Cord" is different from "word";
> Cow is "cow" but low is "low";
> "Shoe" is never rhymed with "foe",
> Think of "hose" and "dose" and "lose";
> And think of "goose" and yet of "choose",

Think of "comb" and "tomb" and "bomb";
"Doll" and "roll" and "home" and "some",
And since "pay" is rhymed with "say",
Why not "paid" with "said", I pray?
We have "blood" and "food" and "good";
"Mould" is not pronounced like "could".
Wherefore "done" but "gone" and "lone"?
Is there any reason Known?
And it short, it seems to me
Sounds and letters disagree.

English has many words which are identical in meaning but different in spelling and pronunciation, otherwise known as synonyms. But it also has homophones or heterographs (words with different spellings and different meanings, but identical pronunciation), such as *hour* and *our*, *plane* and *plain*, *right*, *wright*, *write* and *rite*, *sight, site, cite.* English is not a static language. Historically, it has been shaped and changed over the years by numerous political, social, and multicultural influences. Hurst recognizes that sometimes, the change in a word is the way it is pronounced; sometimes the change is in the spelling, like in the words *come, son, and love* which used to be spelled with the vowel *"u"* (until the Normans replaced it with an *"o"* when it preceded the letters *m, n,* and *v* because a series of similar-looking letters was difficult to read). Roughly speaking, the earlier lengthened vowels which came to be produced at the highest tongue position became diphthongs. Thus, an item such as "sweet" changed from /swe:t/ to /swi:t/, "spoon" from /spo:n/ to /spu:n/, "ride" changed from /ri:d/ to /raɪd/, and so forth. Rogers states that this shift in the pronunciation of the vowels was made without a corresponding shift in spelling. Crystal (1987, p. 214) states that:

> the great vowel shift of the 15th century was the main reason for the diversity of vowel spellings in such words as *name, sweet, ride, way,* and *house.* Similarly, letters that were sounded in Anglo-Saxon became silent, e.g. the "k" of know and knight, or the final "e" in stone, love.

Irregularities at the level of morphology in the English Language

At the level of morphology, the irregularities seem to be more pronounced than what is experienced at the other levels. The plural system, for instance, has problems of different kinds in achieving its plurality. The plural forms of the words below exemplify these irregularities. *Dog-dogs; boy-boys; ray-rays; bus-buses; tax-taxes; lunch-lunches; child-children; ox-oxen; goose-geese; man-men; teeth-tooth; mouse-mice; wolf-wolves; belief-beliefs; sheep-sheep; series-series; deer-deer; sheep-sheep; criterion-criteria; stadium-stadia; phenomenon-phenomena; radius-radii; lineup-lineups; show-off-show-offs; brother-in-law- brother-in-laws; chief-of-staff- chiefs-of-staff.* The

formation of the plural system in the words presented here creates confusion because there are many conventions. The plural system requires that plurality be achieved in regular nouns with the /s, z, iz/ morphemes while the irregular nouns realize their plurality in different and irregular ways. Some nouns realize their plurality through zero morphemes as in "sheep and deer". Some realize plurality through internal vowel change as in "man-men", others realize their plural forms through other radical morphological manipulations that have no direct relationship with the singular form as in "ox-oxen". The irregularities seem to be more pronounced in words that are not of English origin, especially such words that are of Greek and French origin as in *stadium-stadia, radius- radii*. According to Onuigbo & Eyisi (2008, pp. 110-111):

> The inherent irregularities within the plural system in English are so complex that no one has successfully devised a rule to capture the whole possibilities. Such words as "show-offs" and "lineups" cannot be conventionally subjected to any [grammatical rule]. The problem gets more complex as we experience compounds of two nouns separated by a preposition or a preposition and a modifier. The compounds like "brothers-in-law and chiefs-of-staff" follow a special pattern but other words like "justices-of-the-peace" follow quite a different pattern.

In English, some direct cognates like "drink, drank, drunk"; "sing, sang, sung"; "bring, brought, brought"; even trip up native speakers, who either assume the pattern is constant (*I brang him the book*), mix up different patterns (such as using *have drunken* and *have broughten* as the past perfect forms of drink and bring), or just confuse verbs (*I am syncing my iPhone tomorrow, because I haven't sunk it in a while*). And since language is constantly in flux, many verbs may change what patterns they follow, such as hung/hanged or dreamt/dreamed. Some non-standard usages, like *bring, brang, brung* are as common as to be standard in some dialects. The whole matter is confusing even to the native speakers, and has become a headache for learners. Just about every language has highly irregular features that seem normal to native speakers. Despite the march towards regularization, modern English retains traces of its ancestry, with a minority of its words still using inflection by ablaut (sound change, mostly in verbs) and umlaut (a particular type of sound change, mostly in nouns), as well as long-short vowel alternation. For example:

- *Write, wrote, written* (marking by ablaut variation, and also suffixing in the participle)
- *Sing, sang, sung* (ablaut)
- *Foot, feet* (marking by umlaut variation)
- *Mouse, mice* (umlaut)

- *Child, children* (ablaut, and also suffixing in the plural). This kind of irregularity creates the kind of problem which is very difficult to handle in a second language situation.

The big question however, is, "why is English so irregular?" Even though this paper has attempted at different grammatical levels to discuss the problem of irregularities in the English language in the above sections, it is very necessary to expatiate on the origin of irregularities in the English language structure. In this regard, this paper gives an account of how the influence of Norman French, the Printing Press, the Great Vowel Shift, Loan words, and Etymological Respelling resulted in the problem of inconsistencies or irregularities in the English language.

The influence of English History on English Language: The trouble with English

The Norman conquest

When the Vikings invaded England in the eighth century, it was perceived that they could understand what the Anglo Saxons were saying because the Germanic languages which included the language of the Vikings were closer than they are today. But when the Normans invaded in 1066, they spoke French. And they had no intention of learning English. For the over 200 years they ruled, French was the language of the English aristocracy, government, and the courts. Most aristocrats did not bother to learn English but the common people continued to speak English. When the Normans lost Normandy, they started switching to the English language of the land they ruled. But English had hardly been written for over 200 years; all official text had been written in French and anything related to the universities or clergy was in Latin. So the scribes tried to write down what they heard and were pretty inconsistent.

They applied French spelling conventions to English words, so *cwen* became *queen*, *cirice* became *church* and *c* was used instead of *s* in words like *cell* and *circle*. They also struggled with English handwriting, where *u, v, n* and *m* all looked very similar. So they replaced *u* with *o* in words like *done* and *come*. At the same time, thousands of French and Latin words were entering the English language. The scribes kept the original French spelling for some (*table, double, centre*) but changed the spelling of others to reflect their English pronunciation (e.g., *beef, battle, government, mountain*). This was a wild time for English spelling as the concept of "correct" spelling did not really exist. People also spelled according to their local dialect.

8

The printing press

By the time William Caxton brought the printing press to England in 1497, French and English had become well and truly mixed. English was also filling up with new foreign words to describe the concepts that arrived with the Renaissance, as people rediscovered classical texts and became open to new ideas for which English had no words. Unlike most languages, English happily took words from other languages, often with no attempt to officially anglicise them. Irregular spelling was a problem for the printers, who wanted consistency but had to appeal to the maximum possible number of readers. Which dialect should they choose as the basis of written English? They chose the London English of Chaucer, whose Canterbury Tales was the first book printed in English (Hammond, 2011).

The printing press brought with it the idea of correct spelling. But it also brought some spelling confusion to English. For example, because many of the printers were Dutch, they used Dutch spellings for words like *ghost*, *aghast*, *ghastly* and *gherkin*, which keep their silent *h* to this day. Other words like *ghospel*, *ghossip* and *ghizzard* lost their Dutch *h* over the years. What is more? Caxton's timing was unfortunate for future generations of English spellers.

The great vowel shift

The printing press gave English spelling a big push towards standardization. English pronunciation, on the other hand, was anything but steady and the century after the arrival of the printing press saw major changes in the way English was spoken. For example, words like *he*, *she*, *knee*, *name*, *fine* and *be* were pronounced as they were spelled when the printing press arrived. Much like a German would pronounce those letters nowadays. But during the next century, the pronunciation changed to roughly what English people use today. But spelling did not change to reflect the new pronunciation. At this point, English was full of unusual pronunciations and silent letters. The situation was not helped by scholars.

Etymological respelling

During the 16th and 17th centuries in particular, lots of scholars came up with ideas for improving English; the practice of spelling words in a manner that would reflect their etymological origin. Enduring examples of this influence was to alter spelling to reflect the classical roots of some words. For example, a *b* was added to the word *debt* to reflect its relationship to the Latin *debitum* found in the spelling of the words debt, doubt, receipt, and salmon (formerly spelled dette, doute, receite, and samon), all of which were given a "silent" consonant to make them look more like the Latin words from which they descended (O'Grady, Dobrovolsky, & Katamba, 1996, p. 615). *Rime* became

rhyme (from the Greek *rhytmus*) and so on. These letters have never been pronounced in English. But the scholars did not always get it right. For example the *s* in *island* was added because they thought the word came from the Latin *insula*, whereas it is really an Old English word. At the same time, changes were made illogically to other parts of English spelling, for example the *ght* from *night* and *light* was added to *delight* and *tight*, but not to *spite* and *ignite* (Hammond, 2011). Solati (2013) observed that some examples of words that were altered according to their etymology but kept their former pronunciation include *debt* and *doubt*, which had formerly been written as *detten* and *doute*. The letter *b* was inserted to indicate that the words originated from the Latin *debitum/dubitare*. The same is true for the *p* in the word receipt and the *c* in *indict* (from Latin "recipere" and "indictio"). The respelled words of the second group are significant as they show a change in their pronunciation (Solati, 2013, p. 206). Barber (1993) asserts that what was formerly written and pronounced as *aventure* was, after the etymological respelling, written and pronounced *adventure*. The same happened with *assault* (formerly assaut), *describe* (formerly descrive) and *verdict* (formerly verdit) (Barber, 1993, pp. 180-181).

Loan words

In the late 16th and early 17th centuries, many new loan words entered English from languages such as French, Latin, Greek, Spanish, Italian and Portuguese (Solati, 2013, p. 205). As stated by Crystal (1987), loan words are one of the reasons behind the spelling varieties that exist in English today. According to Venezky (1967, p. 121), "more irregular spellings in English are due to borrowings than to any other cause". Rogers (2005) also states that in addition to a change in the phonology and grammar of the language, English had also borrowed a huge number of French words. These were often related to government and warfare- duke, judge, government, county, general, army, but also very ordinary word- stable, very, single, beef. Moreover, Rogers (2005, p. 192) points out that for words borrowed from languages using the Roman alphabet, the original spelling for most words has been kept. For example, from French, there is soufflé, ballet, lingerie; from German there is Kindergarten, Fahrenheit, Umlaut; from Italian, spaghetti, concerto, bologna".

Conclusion

This paper has attempted to look at the irregularities or inconsistencies in the structure of English. The history of English contributed to the problem of the structural irregularities in English. These irregularities cannot be totally addressed without recourse to the history of English. The irregularities, however, are discussed at the levels of orthography, phonology, morphology and syntax. However, "irregularity" is often just another way of talking about grammatical complexity, and linguists tend to believe that all languages are

more or less equally complex, because languages tend to compensate for complexity in one domain (e.g. word-structure) with simplicity in another (e.g., clausal syntax). Therefore, languages with a high degree of polysynthesis (complicated word structure) are much more likely to have exceptional word forms than languages with isolating word-structure. Contrariwise, languages like English with very little word-structure often have very complicated syntactic systems unlike anything you will find in a polysynthetic language like Mohawk in North America. It is, therefore, pertinent to agree with Dr Albrecht Classen when he narrated the frustration of a retired English teacher with regards to the irregularities in English language grammar in a piece he captioned "English Language Crazy Inconsistencies" thus:

> There is no egg in egg plants, nor ham in hamburger; neither apple nor pine in pineapple. Sweet meats are candies while sweetbreads, which aren't sweet, are meat. We take English for granted. But if we explore its paradoxes, we find that quicksand can work slowly, boxing rings are square and a guinea pig is neither from Guinea nor is it a pig. And why is it that writers write but fingers don't fing; grocers don't groce and hammers don't ham? If the plural of tooth is teeth, why isn't the plural of booth beeth? One goose, two geese. So one moose , two meese? If teachers have taught, why haven't preachers praught? If a vegetarian eats vegetables, then what does a humanitarian eat? Sometimes I think all the English speakers should be committed to an asylum for the verbally insane. In what kind of language do people recite at a play and play at a recital? Must we ship by transport and transport by ship? Who else has noses that run and feet that smell? How can a slim chance and a fat chance be the same, while a wise man and a wise guy are opposites? You have to marvel at the unique lunacy of a language in which your house can burn up while it's burning down, forms are filled out by being filled in, and an alarm that's gone off is still going on. English is a world where a woodcarver's magazine editor might add ads for adzes, and a chemist might use a vile vial. People can sit on a bough, though, and cough through the night as they re-read a red book to say they re-read it; and whoever finishes first has won one! Why had the cops sought the sot? The photographers knot all fought for the shot and not just for naught. Does the fuzz think there was proof of blood on a wood floor? And what was that word that occurred by the bird turd? At the height of their leisure, neither had the sleight to seize the feisty weird sovereign poltergeist, so they had to forfeit the foreign heifer's counterfeit protein. [With apologies to "i before e"......] English was invented by people, not by computers, and it reflects the creativity of the human race—which of course is not a race at all. That is why, when the stars are out, they are visible, but when the lights are out, they are invisible. But please—could someone explain why "Buick" doesn't rhyme with "quick"? (Classen, 2018)

It may also be argued in a second language situation that "if the plural of knife, calf, and thief are knives, calves, thieves respectively why shouldn't the plural of chief be chieves?" Similarly, if the plural of box is boxes, why is oxes not the plural of ox? It is, therefore, important to state that the inconsistency in the English language has a serious implication in the teaching and learning of English by ESL learners because it is very difficult if not impossible to master all the exceptions there are to the numerous rules that exist in English. This can be a source of problem to successful second language learning. It is no wonder that teachers and students can become overwhelmed and confused with some English words. However, Hurst (2013, p. 190) assures ESL learners that there is good reason to take heart as Moats (1995) points out that at least 20 sounds in the English language have spellings that are more than 90% predictable, and Pinker (1994) notes that for about 84 percent of English words, spelling is completely predictable from regular rules.

Implications for Pedagogy

It is hoped that the presented study has provided some insights into the problems of inherent structural irregularities in the English language. It has allowed readers to make several observations which carry important pedagogical implications. The English plural system, orthography, phonology and word structure with their irregularities and exceptions are genuine challenges. That is to say that as the quest by scholars to find answers to such questions by second language learners like "If a thinker is somebody who thinks, then, is a tinker somebody who tinks?" continues, possible answers like this paper tries to provide will emerge. For the question above, however, the word 'tinks' does not seem to exist in the English language. These and perhaps many other such inconsistencies, coupled with the issues of poor and inadequate mastery of English and other socio-economic factors are issues that can never be totally overcome in a second language learning situation.

Therefore, understanding these irregularities from linguistic and functional perspectives will be very useful for ESL learners. Reading is also the ultimate reflective process. As one continues to read and reflect, one will become conversant with most of the irregular forms in the English language and attempt to use them appropriately. Henry (2010) suggests that the goal for teachers therefore, is, to teach the very common letter-sound patterns and the history of as many irregular words as possible. When teachers and students understand the consistent patterns of written English, as well as the historical basis of words, they can better understand the regularities and the relatively few irregularities in English words.

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Note on Contributor

Dr Jane Chinelo Obasi is a lecturer at the Department of English and Literary Studies, Faculty of Arts, University of Nigeria, Nsukka, Nigeria. She holds a B. A. degree, Master of Arts degree, and a PhD degree in English language. Her research interests are phonology, syntax, pragmatics, semantics, applied linguistics, ESP, as well as second language acquisition. Email: jane.obasi@unn.edu.ng

Preparing for English-speaking professional communities: Navigating L2 learners' linguistic identity in L1-dominant professional communication courses

Monica Heejung Kwon
Kanazawa University

Marshall Drolet Klassen
Kanazawa Seiryo University

Abstract

The present study investigated how L2 students in L1-dominant upper-level undergraduate professional communication courses self-identify their needs in undertaking collaborative tasks such as writing professional documents and preparing for group presentations with L1 students. A survey was conducted on L2 students in these upper-level professional communication courses to explore how they negotiate the role of English as an international language and self-perceptions of their linguistic identity in communicative contexts in which they prepare for English-speaking professional communities. The results showed that L2 students in this study plan to pursue careers in English-speaking environments post-graduation, however, have a certain degree of anxiety in an L1-dominant environment. Many L2 students indicated in the results that they were self-conscious about their "non-native" status, which might have accounted for the kinds of support (e.g., more support from domestic students) wanted by L2 students as shown in the survey. This was further discussed in relation to the notion of "imagined communities" (Kanno & Norton, 2003) and native speaker model was revisited to discuss the results from critical perspectives, along with "functionalist polymodel approach" (Berns, 2006; Kachru, 1981; Van Horn, 2006) as a potential resource to consult to teach multilingual students in an L1-dominant environment.

Keywords: English as an international language; linguistic identity; imagined communities; native speaker, upper-level, professional communication

Introduction

The global economy has produced more internationalized workplaces, which contributed to the internationalization of higher education in English-speaking countries. Higher education has become more internationalized and this has led to greater internationalization in the classroom, and multilingualism is increasingly becoming the norm. Terms such as globalization, internationalization, and diversification have become keywords in higher

education, designing academic programs and developing curricula. International students who do not speak English as their first language have become part of the student body in numerous academic programs in campus settings, which has resulted in the wide presence of multilingual and multinational classrooms. Thus, classroom interactions have become one of the major ways for both groups of students to gain exposure in the environment in which they can interact and learn together and provide platforms where students can prepare themselves for the globalized professional world. While multilingual classrooms have become more widely present, multilingual students who do not speak English as their first language have often been marginalized due to the lack of support from instructors, peers, and social network outside the classroom (Braine, 1996; Costino & Hyon, 2007; Cummins, 2007; Duff, 2001; Harklau, 1994). The present study investigated how L2 students in L1-dominant undergraduate professional communication courses self-identify their needs in undertaking collaborative tasks that resemble real-life workplace tasks such as writing professional documents in groups and preparing for group presentations with L1 students. A survey was conducted on L2 students in these upper-level professional communication courses to explore how they negotiate the role of English as an international language and self-perceptions of their linguistic identity in communicative contexts in which they prepare for English-speaking professional communities.

While the notion of communicative competence (Canale & Swain, 1990; Hymes, 1972) has been much emphasized in intercultural professional communication, it has heavily relied on the native speaker model of communicative competence (Berns, 2006; Kachru, 1992). Kachru argued that communicative competence needs to reflect the reality of sociolinguistic factors that are present in communication settings. In a similar vein, Berns (2006) also contended that communicative competence needs to be redefined and re-articulated in the way that social realities can best be reflected by criticizing the universal forms of English that adopt the native speaker model (Prator, 1968). Scholars in World Englishes have argued for a polymodel approach in pedagogies in order to take into account users and uses of varieties of English (Berns, 2006, p. 727). Polymodel approaches refer to the views in which teachers are conscious about the varieties of English being used and spoken all over the world and appropriately select materials and methods for teaching in their classes. Thus, World Englishes perspectives have not only enriched the resources and perspectives on pedagogical applications in teaching English but have also extended the discussion on the language policies in terms of power relations among different varieties of English, English teaching professional identity, English learners' social and professional identity, and native speaker – non-native speaker dichotomy (Higgins, 2003).

The interactions in business settings have also been explored from World Englishes perspectives. Van Horn (2006) criticized the trends in

business textbooks that support "a single native-speaker recipe for linguistic success" (native mono-model) and contradict with the "functionalist polymodel" of World Englishes (p. 620). He further emphasized that it is important to consider "socially realistic linguistics" (Kachru, 1981) that investigate how varieties of language are created and reflected in contexts of commerce and how members understand the relationships among the varieties of language that reproduce cultural systems in a given setting (p. 625). World Englishes literature identifies "centripetal" and "centrifugal" forces in English as the tension between more static concepts such as "World English" and more dynamic ones, "world Englishes" (Bolton, Bautista, & Lourdes, 2004; Brutt-Griffler, 2002; Van Horn, 2006). English nowadays in workplace settings show a unique sociolinguistic scene in which more than one variety of English inevitably becomes present in a workplace setting due to the globalized economy. Therefore, the Englishes of business are global, local, and "glocal" (Van Horn, 2006, p. 629).

There have been various attempts to universalize one type of English in global business settings. The rationale behind these attempts was to make it easier and more effective to communicate with one another and prevent miscommunication in internationalized professional settings. There has been an opinion where simplified English that adopts simplified words and semantics has to be a universal for all speakers of English (Prator, 1968; Quirk, 1988). However, this has often been considered unrealistic as reality does not support the claim where a universal language can make the communication easier due to the nature of language that changes according to the time, space, ideologies, social and cultural factors, and technological advances (Kachru, 1988, 1991, 2005). Furthermore, the current medium of communication in advertising or marketing is pluralized beyond the level of using different varieties of English by using visuals or aural materials, which means ways to communicate messages across the world are becoming rather pluralistic and particularized depending on the context (Van Horn, 2006, p. 631). Thus, conforming to "standards" or "norms" of ways of communicating is essentially an unachievable goal and it may not be as effective as expected in real-life workplace settings.

An argument made by Kachru (2005) stresses the importance of rearticulating the status of non-native speakers of English. He introduced the notion of "functional nativeness" that refers to an ability to communicate proficiently regardless of their first language status, or country of origin. Kachru asserted that terms such as "native speaker", "second-language speaker" and "foreign language user" seem to give clear distinctions among "native" and non-native" speakers of English, irrespective of the proficiency levels, how well speakers communicate their messages in general (Nickerson, 2015, p. 447). Nickerson (2015) addressed the issue of native speaker model in ELF (English as Lingua Franca) interactions in regards to ESP (English for Specific Purpose). She argued that it is important to reassess the "privileged position" that native speaker models have in English for business purposes,

with specific attention to factors that contribute to the success and failure in ELF settings (p. 451). More attention is needed on ways English is used in globalized workplace settings, and how members of the workplace may interact with each other and successfully communicate necessary information. Mere assumptions that native speaker models will enable every learner of English to reach the level of proficiency needed in their workplaces do not seem to align with how English is actually used in real-life workplace settings, or what circumstances they need to perform in English appropriately. It seems to be essential to carefully examine uses of English in workplace settings from the perspective that considers pluralistic models of English use and how functional nativeness can be discussed in workplace interactions. As more workplaces become multinational and multilingual, the models or framework that English teaching professionals adopt need to be more realistic and sensitive to the contexts of social situations.

In relation to NS-NNS dichotomy in workplace communication, observational studies on the perception of English and language proficiency revealed that NS level fluency might not be a top concern for business professionals. Louhiala-Salminen, Charles and Kankaanranta (2005) explored the perceptions that BELF (Business English as a Lingua Franca) might have towards the use of English in business contexts. Through a survey and interviews of international business professionals, they were able to find that their informants in the study considered the use of English as secondary concerns to the "work" itself, rather than regarding it as primary concerns that can greatly impact the overall work performance. Both NNSs and NSs accommodated their speech towards the audience depending on their level of proficiency and focused more on business competence in specific contexts. They also argued that "NS fluency is not a relevant criterion for success in international business work, and in addition, since most interactions take place between NNSs of English, it might not even be desirable" (Louhiala-Salminen, Charles, & Kankaanranta, 2005, p. 207). Although English is considered a primary medium to communicate in workplace settings, this study found that international business professionals perceived English as something they need in order to better conduct business-related events, rather than something they need to master to perform like a native speaker of English.

There have been studies that explored the perceptions towards English and other languages in workplaces. Ehrenreich's (2010) study provided similar perspectives on the role of English in workplace settings. She examined the perceptions towards English and other languages in upper management in a family-owned German multinational corporation and found that English plays an essential role in conducting a variety of tasks in the company, but it needs to be emphasized that native-level fluency does not necessarily contribute to the communicative effectiveness in business tasks. She further noted that understanding diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds and being able to take it into account appropriately impacts the

overall effectiveness of communication. Moreover, other languages can be a great pragmatic resource to discuss local issues in the community. Hornikx, Van Meurs, and de Boer (2010) investigated the perceptions of English and local languages in advertisements in a Dutch company with a focus on readers' preference for English or local languages. They found that when English was easy to understand in a given slogan, participants preferred English slogans, and when given a difficult-to-understand English slogan, there was little difference in the preference. They emphasized the role of comprehension in international advertisements in local settings.

In recent years, a few studies have focused on the better understanding of the role of English in international contexts. Gilsdorf (2002) discussed further on the status of English in a globalized professional world. She argued that understanding English as a polymorph is crucial in professional settings in order to better communicate with international audiences. She emphasized that a commonality of understanding in the same language fundamentally requires more than one ways to interpret meaning in contexts; therefore, international settings generate more complex communicative situations where speakers of English need to have multiple perspectives in sharing and exchanging knowledge in the same language (p. 364).

Bokor (2011) investigated native English-speaking students' perceptions towards different varieties of English used in technical communication tasks. Based on his classroom-based research on 30 participants, he found that native English-speaking students tend not to think that communication failure can be caused by their own linguistic performances or attitudes towards different varieties of English. Rather, they seem to think that their linguistic competence is highly advantaged across different English speaking environments (p. 233). He argued that providing multiple perspectives on the use of English and including World Englishes paradigm in technical communication training program might help students to experience globalized views in communicating complex information with international audiences. In order to internationalize technical communication, he asserted that consideration of non-native speakers of English should be essential for "cross-boundary technical discourse" for training native English speakers for global technical communication (p. 211). Bokor noted that there needs to be more intentional effort to raise awareness in English as an international language and complexities and political constructs language creates in the globalized world:

> English has been adapted to meet the challenges of the complex identities created by globalization. The role of English is, therefore, fraught with linguacultural and rhetorical problems for which training programs must account. Undoubtedly, the need exists for educators to use language-based heuristics as a systematized approach toward facilitating students' rhetorical efforts as adapting to international audiences. (Bokor, 2011, p. 211)

Together with a polymodel approach in World English literature, this study provides an important insight on how educators in technical communication can construct professional ethos in conducting communicative tasks in international settings, as well as ways to think about globalizing and localizing technologies with taking into account the different beliefs and values international audiences might have. The present study investigates how L2 students in predominantly L1-dominant undergraduate professional communication courses self-identify their needs in undertaking collaborative tasks with L1 students. A survey was conducted on L2 students in upper-level professional communication courses to explore how they negotiate the role of English as an international language in relation to their career plans, as well as ways they describe their linguistic identity in an L1-dominant environment.

Methods

Contexts and participants

The present study was situated in the context of mainstream professional communication courses for upper-level undergraduate students from a variety of disciplines in a North American university. There are typically 20-22 students in each class: the majority of the students in these classes are domestic students, while there is an average of less than five international students in each class. These classes are variable in that there are students of all majors and years, from sophomores to seniors, studying in these classes. For some students, these classes are required by their academic advisors; however, some students choose to take these classes to prepare themselves for the job market or to learn how to write professional documents in the workplace.

The nature of these classes is largely project-based in which students often work in groups to collaboratively write a proposal or make and design professional documents together in a given time. Instructors of professional communication classes provide students with tasks which students are likely to encounter in future workplaces and students work on these tasks with group members. Throughout the semester, students are exposed to a variety of collaborative projects and social and communicative activities as they work together to achieve shared goals.

Participants were recruited on a voluntary basis. The participants in this study are international students who speak English as a second language (L2 students) who have finished one of the professional communication courses (Business Communication, Technical Communication). These students often have diverse cultural and educational backgrounds as they have come from outside the US and speak English as a second or foreign language. There were sophomores, juniors, and seniors in the L1 population and they have taken professional communication courses in order to meet graduation requirements

or develop their advanced communication skills in business or technical documents.

Data collection

Survey

Thirty international students who have taken Business Communication and Technical Communication courses have participated in the survey. Of these, 65% of the students were from Business Communication, and 35% of the students were from Technical Communication courses. Seniors (35%), sophomores (37%), and juniors (27%) participated in the survey. There were students from the following majors: engineering, business, health sciences. Table 1 shows the participants' first language.

Table 1
L2 student demographics

First Languages	Number
Mandarin Chinese	16
Cantonese Chinese	2
Korean	4
Japanese	1
Portuguese	1
Indonesian	2
Gujarati	1
Malay	1
Tamil	1
Telugu	1

The purpose of conducting a survey was to gather demographic information about L2 students in this study and identify their needs and support in interacting and collaborating with L1 students, as well as obtain descriptive responses from each questionnaire. The survey method was used primarily to reveal participants' perceived needs and challenges in conducting various tasks involved in professional communication courses. The questions also asked participants' career plans after graduation, expected use of English, most needed support to carry out all the tasks involved in the projects, and how they perceive their abilities to communicate with L1 students. As professional communication courses often adopt collaborative projects and assignments that simulate real-life workplace environments, it is necessary to understand how these few L2 students in each class identify their needs and how they negotiate their language abilities while engaging in group discussion and collaboration. The "situated needs" of learners can be explored through needs analysis surveys as it allows one to explore "relevant information

necessary to meet the language learning needs of the students within the context of particular institutions involved in the learning and teaching situation" (Brown, 1997, p. 112). Brown (1997) further noted that one of the best advantages of survey research is that researchers can obtain a wide range of types of information efficiently through collecting responses from a variety of people in a target group (p. 112). Researchers designed "opinion surveys" in order to explore participants' opinions and attitudes about particular topics, "judgments" are often adopted to investigate participants' perceptions in learning, and "rankings" tend to be used to see how participants perceive priorities, and level of importance or usefulness (Brown, 1997, p. 115). The survey of the current study adopted a mix of opinions, judgments, and rankings in the survey as a way to explore participants' own ways to identify ranks of needs or difficulties in engaging in coursework, opinions on various activities involved in assignments and projects, and understand their motivations to participate in various tasks. As the survey was distributed to a small number of students, students were strongly encouraged to write detailed responses to descriptive response boxes as well in the survey.

Data analysis

The survey began in May 2015 and responses were collected until the end of August 2015. After the survey data were collected, key themes and common themes across participants were determined using a three-stage coding method of open, axial and selecting coding (Corbin & Strauss, 2008). Open coding examined data in interviews and established preliminary themes, axial coding further refined these themes, and selective coding focused on the themes that best address the questions of this research. As the focus of the study centered on students' perceptions and self-identified needs, the data has been categorized under the themes that emerged in this analysis.

In the open coding stage, labels such as "career plans", "expected use of English", "what English means", "native vs. non-native", "needs", and "anxiety" were given to the data that indicate those labels both on the quantitative and qualitative results. The axial coding stage allowed the researchers to see how these open codes are related, for example, open codes such as "career plans" and "expected use of English" indicate a causal link between them, therefore, the theme of "student motivation" was generated during the selective coding process. "Native vs. non-native" was another open code that was related to the codes "needs" and "anxiety", which led to the creation of core themes, "self-perceptions" and "self-identified needs" in the selective coding process.

Although thematic analyses potentially lack theoretical or conceptual bases or can be criticized for its tendency to rely on "repeated instances", they tend to be sensitive to the contextual and situational factors that affect the communicative events target demographic experiences in particular situations (Pavlenko, 2007). Open coding and thematic analysis thrive on casting aside

the researchers' own bias and beliefs, and interpreting the data as it appears (Wicker, 1985). Thematic analyses allow one to attend to details of communicative situations, target learners' interests, motivation, and learning process and future plans in relation to language use (Pavlenko, 2007, p. 166).

Results and Discussion

In the results and discussion, we discuss the results in relation to the notion of "imagined communities" (Anderson, 1991; Kanno & Norton, 2003) and how L2 students negotiate the role of English within the context of their career path. Next, we discuss ways L2 students in this study negotiate self-perceptions of their linguistic identity and needs in L1-dominant professional communication courses as they participate in collaborative tasks with L1 students. The notion of "native speaker model" will be revisited to discuss the results from critical perspectives (Higgins, 2003; Kubota, 1998; Norton, 1997; Widdowson, 1994), along with "functionalist polymodel approach" (Berns, 2006; Kachru, 1981; Van Horn, 2006) as a potential resource to consult to teach multilingual students in an L1-dominant environment.

Imagined professional communities and student motivation

As the L2 students in the current study chose to take L1-dominant professional communication courses, their motivation behind this decision has been investigated. Figure 1 shows L2 students' career plans post-graduation. All of them responded that they plan to find employment opportunities in an international organization (see Figure 1.).
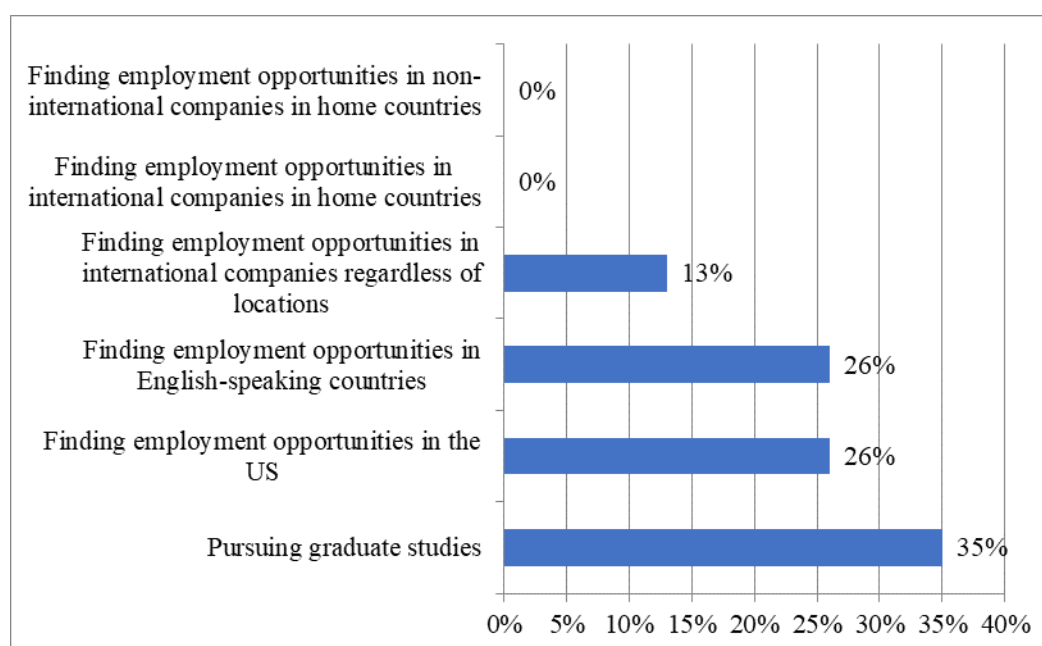
Figure 1. L2 students' career plans after graduation

This result aligns well with the survey question on L2 students' expected use of English after graduation (see Figure 2.). Most L2 students in this study plan to use English mostly in their future workplace. The results indicate that L2 students in this study plan to pursue a career in an international organization in which English is a primary language to communicate.
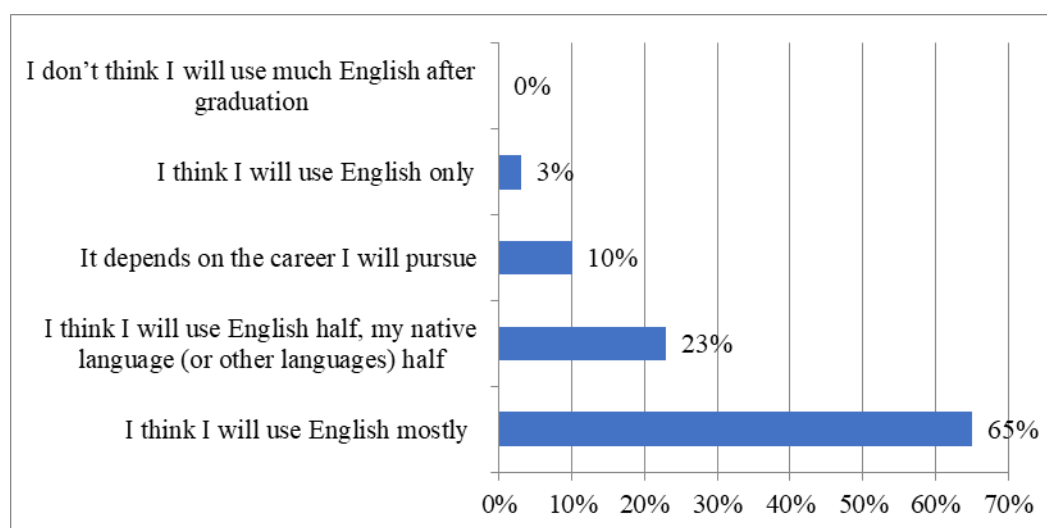
Figure 2. L2 students' expected use of English after graduation

Their descriptive responses to this survey question revealed that their expected use of English in their career may be higher than how much they currently use English on campus, specifically at workplaces. Among the 65% of the students who expected to use "English mostly" wrote their reasons in descriptive text boxes. It appears that students associate English with work, career, and a professional language to use mainly at workplaces. Responses follow, not corrected for grammar.

"I am going to have a full-time position in US"
"I want to find a job here in US"
"I want to do international business so English would be so important to me"
"I want to work in a company where English is mostly spoken"
"The standard language for aviation is English"
"I want to work in international company"
"I will be pursuing a career in the US"
"As a doctor, you must interact with patients"
"I am trying to work in U.S in my future"
"I am planning to go to an international organization of go to graduate school that is not in my home country after graduation, I will pursing Master studies still in U.S"
"English is working language"

Most of the students who responded to the survey that they expect to use English mostly after graduation wrote in their descriptive responses that they will be working in in the US or another English-speaking country, and some of them mentioned they will be working for international companies. 23% of the students who chose "I think I will use English half, my native language (or other languages) half" shared the following descriptive responses.

> "My plan is to work in an English-speaking company, however I wish I could speak my native language at home"
> "I will pursue graduate studies and find internship, so I will use more English than now. However, I will have friends from the same country with me, and I need to speak my native language every day"

The above excerpts show that some students want to use English primarily for professional settings and use native language with their families and friends if possible.

The status of English seems to greatly influence the way L2 students plan their career paths and motivate them to engage actively in an L1 only classroom. As one of the students indicated in the survey, English is the "working language" for many L2 students, especially if they wish to work in English-speaking environments. English affects their preparation for employment, daily life and promotion, both in their social and professional lives. As shown in the results, all L2 students in this study indicated that they would like to seek employment opportunities in the US or other English-speaking environments. When students predict their career paths, they aspire to a future in English-speaking communities.

The English language itself plays an important role in communicating professional knowledge, however, having a membership in global professional communities also seems to be an important step in building one's career path. Professions are becoming more globalized and L2 students do not seem to restrict themselves to certain national, cultural, or ethnic boundaries in order to become more globally competitive professionals, as well as locally competitive among other L2 professionals in their home countries. Communities of professions are expanding beyond national borders in various disciplines. The notion of imagined communities (Kanno & Norton, 2003; Pavelenko & Norton, 2007) can be discussed to explain L2 student motivation and their desired professional community in the future. This is largely attributed to the global economy and technological advances that facilitate efficient communication and fast formation of networks all over the world through professions. It is not hard to say that L2 students in this study imagine themselves as global professionals when planning their careers. Their imagined communities may involve multilingual environments that consist of L1 and L2 speakers whom they will communicate with on a daily basis in both professional and social settings. Students are well-aware of the phenomena of

globalization and actively make decisions to become part of it.

The discussion of imagined professional identity and communities may allow teaching practitioners to think about ways to support upper-level L2 students in L1-dominant classrooms by looking at how the goals of the class align with the goals L2 students have for their future careers. It also helps to understand L2 students' motivations and desired communities they wish to be part of, and what kinds of relationships L2 students have with English language and English-speaking communities. Although they may have learned their native language as a first language, due to the status of English as an international language, globalized businesses and mass media, contemporary L2 learners develop a stronger ownership of English as they start learning it from early ages, which provides a different perspective on the way they construct L2 identities and build memberships in English-speaking communities (Norton, 1997; Pavelenko & Norton, 2007; Widdowson, 1994).

Negotiating perceptions and needs of support in L1-dominant courses

Although L2 students in the current study are highly motivated to learn in an L1-dominant classroom, the survey results showed that they would like to have some support, especially when they speak with L1 students or in front of the whole class.
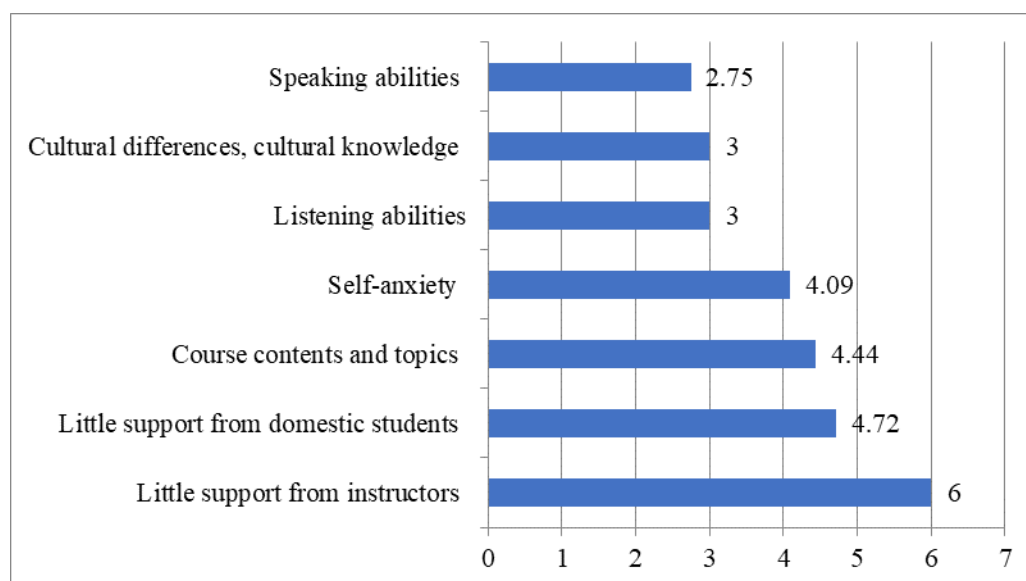
Figure 3. L2 students' perceived needs ranked

As shown in Figure 3, "speaking abilities" was ranked as the biggest factor that could affect the way L2 students feel challenged in the L1-dominant professional communication course. It appears that L2 students are most concerned about their speaking abilities that include pronunciation, vocabulary, rate of speech, etc. While there seems to be a few different

challenges that L2 students experience, they seem to believe that achieving a native speaker level of English will enable them to converse better with L1 students. Some of their descriptive responses showed how they perceive their challenges. The responses that follow are not corrected for grammar.

"I am not a native speaker"
"My vocab variety is not that wide"
"I was quiet because of language barrier"
"Pronunciation"
"Less international student"
"I was not speak very well English so that did not want to talk in front of all classmates"
"It's hard for them to understand my accent"
"For the most time I can freely talk to them, but sometimes I cannot get their words"
"I don't know how to express what I think in English in a native way"

It is possible that L1-dominant environments could create an intimidating situation in which L2 students feel pressured to perform like L1 students in spoken English. This pressure might further create anxiety or discourage them from participating actively when interacting and collaborating with L1 students. While this is a case for some students, there was a response in the survey indicating she or he had an impression that L1 students seem to be superficial at times as they are simply trying to be sensitive to L2 students' feelings: "everyone wants to be nice and give very superficial response."

"Listening abilities" and "cultural differences, cultural knowledge" have both been ranked as the second biggest factor that contributes to the perceived needs of L2 students (Figure 3). Workplace communication tends to rely on efficient communication among members of a group, effective use of brainstorming time, negotiation of ideas, expressing agreement or disagreement, confirmation of ideas, giving directions and instructions, within formal and informal conversations during collaboration (Crosling & Ward, 2002). The result seems to confirm that "listening" remains one of the top perceived needs, which indicates that L2 students may struggle in predominantly L1 groups. As demonstrated in Figure 3, "cultural differences, cultural knowledge" is another top perceived need, showing that when the topic of a conversation is culturally unfamiliar to L2 students, they might feel discouraged to actively participate in the group collaboration.

As shown in Figure 4, students also identified the kind of support they wish to have in order to successfully carry out all the collaborative tasks in class.
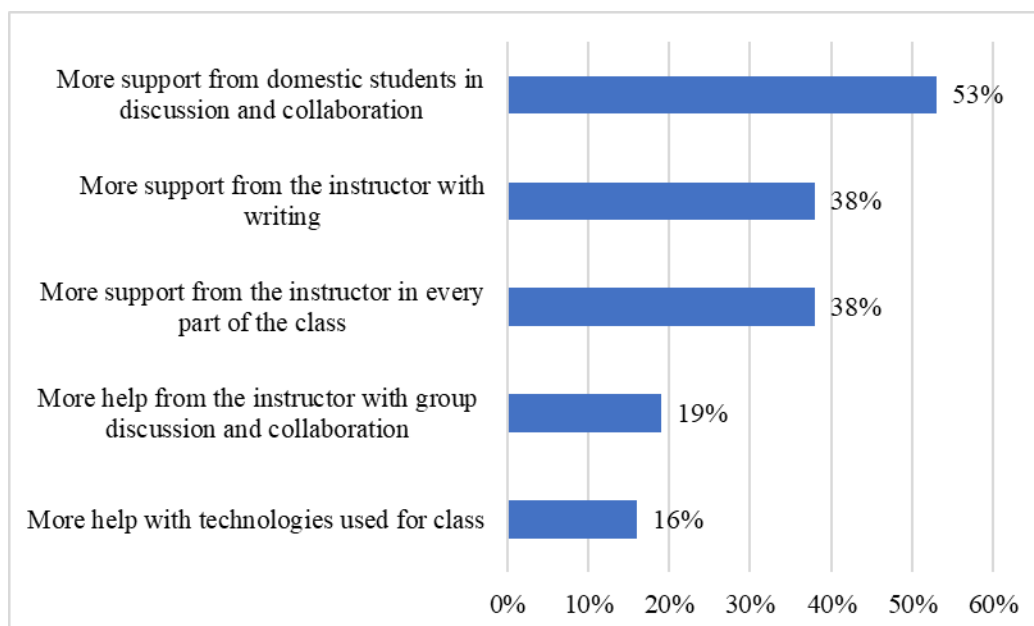
Figure 4. The kinds of support L2 students wish to have

Figure 4 shows that 53% of the participants responded that they would want more support from L1 students in discussion and collaboration. Their descriptive responses showed a variety of reasons why they want more support from L1 students. Some students seem to want to learn a more "American way" of writing or speaking through interacting with L1 students, and generally are positive about learning from each other.

> "I could learn how to write in an American way"
> "It would be nice to have American student pair up with international student to collaborate and get better result"

Although L2 students welcome the idea that they can learn from collaborating with L1 students, they also seem anxious about interacting with L1 students.

> "Americans do not seem voluntary to talk to you"
> "Lack of cultural knowledge that only American students know"

Some students expressed concerns in talking with L1 students as L1 students are perceived that they do not approach them first, or there are perceived gaps in cultural knowledge between L1 and L2 students. Of the 30 participants, 38% seem to want more support from instructors with writing, or in every part of the class, which is also worth paying attention as instructors of these professional communication courses are mostly L1 speakers of English.

The descriptive responses also included L2 student reflections on their experience in collaborative writing. A student shared a challenging aspect of collaborative writing.

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> "From the collaborating, I found that my group members have better writing ability than me. Because the words they are using seems more formal than mine when we write about same idea like transportation and timeline part in our project. I have learned a lot from reading their work."

This student seems to feel that his writing was not as good as his L1 group members. He observes that his L1 group members use more formal language and generally have better writing skills than he has. He may feel that his writing ability is limited compared to his L1 group members, which could potentially withdraw himself from participating in the process of writing. This may be common among L2 students who do not have much experience collaborating with L1 students or exposure to L1-dominant classroom environments. Another student shared his views on collaborative writing with L1 students.

> "Since I am not a naturally fluent English speaker, I have always been less confident about talking about serious and professional matters such as business-related conversation. It is the one I also have been practicing on. We have splitted into three sections and worked on each assigned section. Because I am not good at writing down all those information, I was actually trying to suggest an innovative idea so that I can contribute to the team. I was desperately looking for things that I can at least contribute."

As can be observed in his reflections, he mentions that he tried to contribute not through writing, but in different ways such as suggesting a new idea. It is likely that he may have withdrawn himself from the writing process because he did not think his contribution would benefit his group members. In order to promote collaborative writing in a multilingual setting, it might be helpful to facilitate the collaborative writing process by providing more instructional support or covering relevant examples and literature on collaborative writing process in class so both L1 and L2 writers can see how exactly they can conduct collaborative writing without being too concerned about L1 status or native-level proficiency.

Many L2 students in the survey emphasized the fact that they are not "native speakers" of English, and therefore, they might not perform as well as L1 students, or expressed a need to improve their skills in speaking or writing in order to work together in L1-dominant groups. The results suggest that L2 students often withdrew themselves from actively participating in group discussions or collaborative writing due to the perceptions of their own abilities in speaking and/or writing, and the perceived gap in proficiency level between L1 speakers' and their own.

There can be many possible interpretations of the perceived gap

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mentioned above. One interpretation is that many L2 students come from an educational context in which inner-circle English is a standard model of English teaching and learning, which might have impacted the way they compare themselves to L1 students who speak inner-circle English as their first language (Kachru, 1990, 1992). Kumaravadivelu (2012) pointed out how countries in non-Western contexts depend on "West-oriented" model of teaching English, further reinforcing the power structure of West and non-West in the framework of English teaching. He noted that many scholars in periphery countries have been doing "reactive, not proactive" research to the West-oriented approaches in the field of language teaching (p. 17). Due to this existing power structure of some educational contexts, it is possible that many L2 students have been taught in educational contexts where they are encouraged to adapt many features of inner circle Englishes such as phonological, lexical, syntactical, semantic, and cultural aspects that are Western-oriented. When L2 students from such educational contexts interact with L1 students from inner circle countries, their perceived power relations can become more obvious because of this pre-established understanding of English in relations to power structure that lies in many teaching approaches. Some students experience this more than others, especially in countries where the "native speaker model" is reinforced throughout educational systems and cultures (Bolton, 2008; Kubota, 1998).

The results re-confirm that the perceived gap exists as L2 students have expressed their concerns regarding their "non-native" status in group discussions and collaborative writing. Although the degree of the gap which both L1 and L2 students might perceive may vary, if such issues can be brought up in a classroom setting, students might be able to form a better understanding of English as an international language and how intercultural communication should be conducted. The notion of "native speaker" has long been debated as an unrealistic goal for L2 learners (Canagarajah, 1999; Kachru, 1990, 1992). "Native speaker English" that idealizes the level of language proficiency does not exist as no L1 speakers speak the same version of English and "native-speaker competence" does not give a realistic picture of what effective communication should be. From the perspective of "native speaker competence", every member of communicative settings needs to be able to speak like a native speaker in order to understand each other, and convey meanings to one another, which creates pressure and anxiety for L2 learners to engage in conversations with L1 students who are perceived as "native speakers." This could push L2 students away from participating in oral discussions or collaborative writing.

Without looking into the dependency on West-oriented models of language teaching, it may not be possible to explain the anxiety or the resistance to participation of L2 students in L1-dominant environments. While there might not be a quick solution to change the current state of English teaching, it can be introduced in class as one of the prominent issues in global professional contexts that both L1 and L2 students need to think about in order

to better conduct professional tasks in multilingual and collaborative environments. The degree of emphasis or reliance on West-oriented model of English can be adjusted by instructional approaches in a way that can foster L1 and L2 students' understanding of the power English may have in the globalized world by consulting a "functionalist polymodel approach" (Berns, 2006; Kachru, 1981; Van Horn, 2006) as a resource for providing an equal learning environment, as well as how English should be able to accommodate speakers of other languages in a creative way. As L1 or L2 speakers, students need to learn to become an ethical and responsible professional who can self-evaluate their own communicative abilities in a multilingual setting.

English as an international language should be discussed in a classroom level in relation to ideologies and epistemologies that affect many communication practices and legitimize the use of certain version of English. Instructional approaches should reflect such views in order to allow students to become more conscious about the status of English, and the power structures English creates among the speakers. The way certain standards are established directly impacts the group dynamic and how L1 and L2 students perceive one another in group discussion and collaborations. Thus, collaborative effort among speakers in facilitating conversations within a group needs to be emphasized and reinforced through classroom discourse. More awareness of English as an international language used by global audiences can offer new insights into teaching and learning in multilingual environments, as well as allow students to achieve their full potential in the globalized professional world.

Conclusion

The present study explored ways L2 students negotiate the role of English in their careers and how they navigate their linguistic identity, as well as ways they negotiate their needs in upper-level L1-dominant professional communication courses, specifically in group collaborations. The results showed that L2 students in this study plan to pursue careers in English-speaking environments post-graduation, however, have a certain degree of anxiety in an L1-dominant environment. Many L2 students indicated in the results that they were self-conscious about their "non-native" or "international" status, which might have accounted for the kinds of support (e.g., more support from domestic students) they wanted in group discussions and collaborative writing as indicated in the survey. This was further discussed in relation to the status of English as an international language, specifically about the teaching practices modeled after West-oriented language teaching models used in educational contexts some L2 students come from.

The study has some limitations. First, the participants have been recruited on a voluntary basis, so the opinions gathered from this data might have provided limited sets of views on student opinions on group collaborations in professional communication courses. Students who did not

volunteer for the survey or interviews might have had different experiences regarding collaborations in L1-dominant environments. Second, more details concerning the L2 students' educational backgrounds, cultural or linguistic backgrounds could have provided better explanations on the way they had learned English and the factors contributed to the way they construct L2 identities, as well as position themselves in globalized professional world.

However, the present study provides an observation on how highly motivated L2 students perceive challenges involved in group work in L1-dominant environments and ways they negotiate the role of English and the notion of native speaker in communicative contexts. The study also reveals that L2 students in this study want to actively engage in professional activities in English-speaking environments after they graduate, yet they tend to downplay their language proficiency compared to L1 students' by referring to their "non-native" status. L2 students' perceived gap in language abilities between L1 students and themselves may stem from readily present power relations (e.g., native vs. non-native), as well as the L2 students from educational contexts where inner circle Englishes are the standard model of teaching and learning.

English in professional settings encompasses many communicative tasks such as small conversations among colleagues and senior employees, discussions, meetings, reading documents, writing correspondences and reports, and presenting orally (Crosling & Ward, 2002). In other words, L2 students may engage in various tasks in which they need to perform in English in order to maintain job security and form positive relationships with colleagues at workplaces. The survey results suggest that speaking and listening are the top two perceived needs of L2 students in L1-dominant classrooms. As more L2 speakers become part of English-speaking communities in higher education or workplaces, it may become necessary to address issues regarding English as an International Language that can provide L2 speakers with access to information, resources, and membership in English-speaking communities (Higgins, 2003; Norton, 1997; Widdowson, 1994). If English does not create an inclusive environment, it fails to play its role as a lingua franca, which could easily lead to another form of language imperialism. Practitioners will need to hold ethical perspectives concerning the use of English as a language that can help and be used effectively by all speakers of English, regardless of their first language, to accomplish communicative goals, as well as shared goals as professionals in industries or academic disciplines. Such views will generate better instructional approaches that can impact classrooms, day-to-day interactions and workplaces.

Terms such as "globalization" and "internationalization" in contemporary professional world can be truly meaningful when a community of professionals create a space in which members can have ownership of communicative means and membership in the community as a professional who can make full use of their potential and talent and contribute to the community of professionals.

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Note on Contributors

Monica Heejung Kwon is Assistant Professor of Foreign Language Division at the Institute of Liberal Arts and Sciences, Kanazawa University, Japan. Her research focuses on second language writing, discourse analysis, identity, world Englishes, and English as an International Language. Email: hmonica.kwon@gmail.com

Marshall D Klassen is Assistant Professor of Humanities at Kanazawa Seiryo University in Kanazawa Japan. He has over 10 years of experience teaching English as a Foreign Language and his research focuses on English Language Learners, identity, study abroad, and English as an International Language. Email: marhsall.klassen@gmail.com

The Use of Complimenting Expressions in Palestinian Arabic: A Descriptive-analytical Perspective

Ghada Shbietah
An-Najah National University, Nablus, Palestine

Abstract

Compliments are expressions of positive evaluation that commonly occur in everyday conversational encounters. This paper aims at raising second language cross-cultural pragmatic awareness through investigating the use of complimenting expressions in Palestinian Arabic which are related to certain social variables, namely, gender, age, education and the place of living. The results show that females use more variation in giving compliments than males and that age, place of residence, and level of education are key factors in expressing compliments; both education and age are inversely proportional with the most intimate expressions. However, the results necessitate a detailed explanation of the expressions of compliments that are used when performing the speech act in different contexts or situations. The findings provide essential pedagogical implications in second language teaching, avoiding miscommunication as much as possible so as to fulfil the purpose of communication.

Keywords: compliments, intimacy, Palestinian Arabic, pragmatics, speech acts

Introduction

There is no doubt that language plays a significant role in people's life; it is a means of communication and interaction through which people convey and express ideas, attitudes, feelings, willing, intentions and likes and dislikes. It is an indispensible tool of socialization and integration.

Among the most common linguistic phenomena that people experience through languages is socialization among each other via compliments and showing appreciation. These compliments are of varied purposes and intentions; they are widely used to praise, encourage or motivate, thank and even flirt. Holmes (2008) states that compliments are speech acts conveyed to someone other than the speaker, usually the person addressed to express and manifest something which is positively valued by the speaker and hearer. For her, the primary function of a compliment is affective and social rather than referential or informative.

As compliments vary, it is crucial for language users to know when and how to deliver and respond to compliments. This paper aims at investigating

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the speech act of complimenting in Arabic used in the Palestinian community. Besides, it focuses on how different social variables such as gender, age, education and the place of living affect the participants' choice of certain complimenting expression. Studying this kind of speech act reveals how people's choice of language can vary under some social conditions. Like any other speech act, compliment utterances are situated. They are highly affected by the presence of different social and cultural variables such as gender, social class, education, kind of occasion and the intention of the speaker.

The speech act of complimenting is one of the most common and frequent acts which characterizes our daily communication and, more broadly, our culture. Obviously, different mechanisms and strategies for complimenting are used across cultures. Many interrelated factors play an important role in determining the most preferred expressions which are used to compliment people in different societies in various occasions. This study will hopefully give an insight on how the speech act of complimenting is conditioned by different social variables such as gender, age, education and place of living. Moreover, it will shed some light on how power influences our linguistic choices when it comes to compliments. This speech act may represent certain socio-cultural features that one needs to be aware of whenever s/he studies the application of this type of speech act. The importance of studying compliments lies in the fact that such a study can provide second language learners with some preferred compliments that are used in Palestinian Arabic. In addition, it will show them how these preferred strategies reflect certain socio-cultural values in the Palestinian society.

Method of study

The sample selected for the study consists of 130 Palestinian students from different faculties and specializations at An-Najah National University. The sample was randomly chosen in order to achieve a certain degree of objectivity. These students belong to different places of living such as villages, camps, and cities. The participants were both undergraduate and postgraduate students.

The data used in this paper were elicited through distributing a questionnaire in which students were asked to read every statement, and tick the most suitable answer. The statements reflect the most frequent expressions that are used for compliments. The occasions that chosen are also comprehensive, and they cover a wide variety of areas in the Palestinian society. The statements of complimenting are very frequent and they are arranged according to their degree of intimacy and their frequency of use. Each participant was asked to match each occasion with his or her preferred compliment. At the same time each participant was free to leave any item empty according to his or her preferences. The information is categorized in tables and presented in figures in order to show the percentages of the responses collected for each statement in the questionnaire. The description of

the data is based on percentages that appear at the end of each table and not on numbers for ease of comparison.

Review of literature

The need for pragmatics

> We human beings are odd compared with our nearest animal relatives. Unlike them, we can say what we want, when we want. All normal humans can produce and understand any number of new words and sentences. Humans use the multiple options of language often without thinking. But blindly, they sometimes fall into its traps. They are all like spiders who exploit their webs, but themselves get caught in sticky strands. (Aitcheson, 1997)

It obvious that the traditional approach initiated by Chomsky is no longer valid to offer explanation for certain observations and phenomena thattake place in real communication. Mey (1993) indicates that "pragmatics is needed if we want a fuller, deeper and generally more reasonable account of human language behavior" (p. 12). Mey has also focused on the relationship between language and users in his definition of pragmatics. In a broader term, pragmatics studies the factors that govern our choice of language in social interaction, and the effect of our choice on others. Here, people are able produce situations. Kasper (1997) refers to this ability as pragmatic competence.

Moreover, pragmatists are also keen to explore why interlocutors can successfully converse with one another in a certain situation. A basic idea is that interlocutors obey certain principles in their participation so as to sustain the conversation. One such principle is the Cooperative Principle which assumes that interlocutors cooperate in the conversation by contributing to the ongoing speech event (Grice, 1989). Another important principle is the Politeness Principle (Leech, 1983) which maintains that interlocutors behave politely to one another since people respect each other's face (Brown& Levinson 1978; 1987). A cognitive explanation of social interactive speech events is provided by Sperber and Wilson (1986)who hold that in verbal communication people try to be relevant to what they intend to say and to whom the utterance is intended.

Speech acts

When people communicate, they perform speech acts which might not go beyond the range of other people who belong to various cultural backgrounds (Hickey, 1998). In this respect, many linguists consider human communication to be universal. It is believed that through communication, we reflect certain attitudes and the acts being performed correspond to the type of

attitudes being expressed. For example, a statement reflects a belief, a request reflects a desire and the act of compliment carries politeness.

The philosopher J.L. Austin (1962) says that many utterances are equivalent to actions. When says: "I name this ship" or "I now pronounce you man and wife", the utterance creates having three parts or aspects:

1) Locutionary acts: simply the speech acts that have taken place.
2) Illocutionary acts: are the real actions which are performed by the utterance, where saying equal doing as in welcoming and warning.
3) Perlocutionary acts: are the effects of the utterance on the listener.

Some pragmatists such as Searle (1969) have attempted to classify illocutionary acts into a number of categories or types such as representatives, directives, commissives, expressives and declaratives.

Complimenting as a speech act

Speech acts are not expressed similarly in different languages and different cultures and thus they are culture bound. It is of great importance to understand the socio-cultural differences represented in the use of a language in various contextual situation. People need to be aware of this fact so that they can avoid misunderstanding with people from different cultural backgrounds.

The American Heritage Dictionary defines compliment "as a formal act of activity, courtesy. Or respect to show fondness, regard, or respect for someone by giving a gift or performing a favor". Compliments are primarily aimed at maintaining. Enhancing, or supporting the addressee's face (Goffiman, 1971). Compliment refers to giving and responding behavior used to negotiate social identities and relations. Consequently, inappropriate choice of responses can lead to a loss of face. Manes (1983) researched the finite number of indirect realizations of the responses to compliments. Tannen (1996) believes that studying speech acts such as complimenting allows discourse analysts to ask what counts as compliment, who gives compliment to whom, and what function they can serve. This type of speech act is important because it represents and reflects certain cultural and social distinctions between different users of different languages or even between speakers of the same language as the case of this study. Compliments in the Arab culture characterize most of their social interaction because Arabs believe that compliments can help build stronger relations and achieve certain interests. Each occasion is characterized by having its own complimenting expressions which differ according to social variables, such as education, gender, social hierarchy and the place of living as well. The types of compliments are classified into three kinds: verbal, behavioral and non-verbal. In their communication, people use all these types of compliments. Sometimes they use more than one type to achieve more benefits. This study investigates

the first type by taking into consideration the factors of gender, education, age as well as place of living.

Results and Discussion

Strategies and occasions

This study has focused on 10 different occasions which are very common and frequent in Arab and Palestinian society: Passing high school (the Tawjihi) exams, getting a driving license, having new baby or a job promotion, buying a new car, getting a financial prize, buying new clothes, being employed in a certain job, getting a scholarship and moving to a new house.

What makes an Arab produces compliments is not really the same occasion or even a number of occasions that are typical in his or her own culture. Different motivations and reasons are at work here. In order to observe the influence of different social variables on the way people compliment each other, the researcher has chosen four fixed ways of compliments. These four ways are not the only ones but they are chosen because of being common and frequent and to make this study more restricted. These expressions for compliments vary from giving one expression.

1) "Mabrouk" i.e., congratulations,
2) "Alf mabrouk" i.e., a thousand congratulations to three expressions.
3) "Alf alfmabrouk" i.e., a thousand congratulations, thousand congratulations.
4) "Alf mabrouk mashallah" meaning a thousand congratulations, Oh, My God!

The difference between these expressions is in the degree of intimacy they have and the rate of their frequency of use. It is very clear that the second and the third ways of complimenting are more intimate than the first and the last because they carry a sense of exaggeration. The general target here is to study how gender, education, age and the place of living affect the choice of the participant's form of compliment. The findings will be also connected with the concept of power and politeness.

It is very obvious that there is not that big difference in the choice of a complimenting expression between the two genders for the following occasions: passing the tawjihi, job promotion and moving to a new house. However, the females have more concern about the following occasions: new baby, buying a car and getting a scholarship. In these occasions, females choose more intimate expressions than they do with the other remaining occasions. By considering the first three acts of compliments "mabrouk, alfalafmabrouk" females scored the following percentages 42%, 34% and 16% while the males scored 38%, 32% and 15% respectively.

Gender

Table 1
Percentages of respondents' preferences based on gender

Occasion	Alf mabrouk mashallah	Alf alfmabrouk	Alf mabrouk	Mabrouk
Passing the tawjihi exam	(12/113) 3/20	(18/113) 1/20	(60/113) 11/20	23/113) 5/20
Getting a driving license	(5/108) …..	(7/108) 1/20	(21/108) 4/20	(75/108) 15/20
Having new baby	(23/112) 2/20	(20/112) 5/20	(47/112) 11/20	(22/112) 2/20
Getting a job promotion	(17/111) 4/20	(23/111) 1/20	(25/111) 5/20	46/111) 10/20
Buying a new car	(11/110) 6/20	(25/110) 1/20	(44/110) 6/20	(30/110) 7/20
Money prize	(8/107)	(4/107) …..	(10/107) 3/19	(85/107) 16/19
New clothes	(8/107) ….	(4/107) ….	(10/107) 3/19	(85/107) 16/19
Getting a job	(16/113) 5/20	(29/113) 3/20	(44/113) 9/20	(24/113) 3/20
Getting a scholar ship	(30/109) 2/20	(13/109) 5/20	(40/109) 9/20	(26/109) 4/20
Moving to a new house	(16/111) 1/19	(14/111) 4/19	(37/111) 7/19	(44/111) 7/19
The average in percentages	(14.5%)13.5%	(15%) 16%	(32.5%)34%	(38%) 42%

Between brackets = males
Without brackets: females

A comparison shows that women in general, are more intimate and more responding than men. Gender differences in language use have also been found by scholars such as Coates (1993) and Tannen (1990). These differences in communication and interaction may be the result of different socialization and acculturation patterns. In her book "You Just Don't Understand" (1990), Tannen argues that women speak and hear the language of connection and intimacy, while men speak and hear the language of status and independence. The point that one needs to indicate here is that the intimacy in complimenting others by females is for certain occasions. Complimenting others for having a new baby is a feminist task. On the other hand, female students are also concerned about other occasions such as buying a new car which is in itself a requirement for a prestigious life. Besides, they

also show intimacy on the occasion of getting a scholarship. It seems that people in Palestine now are more aware of the importance of education than before. This is due to the deteriorating political and economic situation in the area.

At the same time, males are more concerned about getting a driving license and winning a financial prize. This difference could be psychological, and it is attributed to the fact that the males in our society have more responsibilities towards their families than females. They are also more interested in driving cars than women. From early stages in their children days, males are more concerned about cars than any other toys. Here, we can conclude that the psychological factor plays a big role in the intimacy of expressions of complimenting.

Place of living

Table 2
Percentages of respondents' preferences based on place of living

Occasion	Alf mabrouk mashallah	Alf alfmabrouk	Alf mabrouk	Mabrouk
Passing the tawjhi exam	(11/60) 4/70	(6/60) 12/70	(36/60) 34/70	(7/60) 20/70
Getting a driving license	(3/59) 1/66	(5/59) 3/66	(13/59) 12/66	(38/59) 50/66
New baby	(15/59) 8/70	(9/59) 15/70	(26/59) 32/70	(9/59) 15/70
Job promotion	(7/59) 14/69	(14/59) 11/69	(16/59)13/69	(22/59) 31/69
Buying a new car	(10/59) 13/69	(5/59) 9/69	(13/59) 19/69	(31/59) 28/69
Money prize	(5/60) 10/67	(14/60)12/67	(25/60) 26/67	(16/60) 19/67
Buying new clothes	(4/58) 4/65	(1/58) 2/65	(7/58) 6/65	(46/58) 53/65
Getting new job	(10/60) 12/70	(15/60) 16/70	(23/60) 28/70	(12/60) 14/70
Getting a scholarship	(15/59) 14/67	(4/59) 14/67	(24/59) 26/67	(16/59) 13/67
Moving to a new house	(8/58) 8/69	(6/58) 11/69	(20/58) 24/69	(24/58) 26/69
Average of percentages	(15%) 13%	(14%) 12%	(34%) 32%	(37%) 0%

Without brackets=city
Between brackets = village

Table 2 shows that "Alf mabrouk"and "Alf mabrouk mashallah"forms of complimentsare intimate and were chosen more by the participants from the village. Meanwhile, those who belong to a city background focus on the first expression "mabrouk": 37% of those who chose this expression were from villages while the same expression was chosen by 40% of city students. The rest of the percentages which represent the participants from the village are as follows: 34% for "Alf mabrouk", 14% for "Alf alfmabrouk" and 15% for "Alf mabrouk mashallah" respectively. The percentages of city participants are 32%, 12% and 13% respectively. Participants from the city use less intimate expressions to compliment others when they have new baby, pass the tawjihi exam, and/or get a driving license. Meanwhile, the participants from the city choose intimate expressions like "alfmabrouk" and "alfalfmabrouk"on the following occasions: jobpromotion, buying a car, having a new house and winning a financial prize.

These findings can be attributed to the whole social framework; in the city, people are more concerned about money, prestige and social distinction while people from the village show more intimacy and solidarity. Moreover, people from the villages cannot avoid congratulating each other since they have more opportunity to meet than those from the city. This is due to the fact that villages are smaller in their areas;thus their people have more opportunities to see each other.

Education

A close observation of the third factor of education tells us that undergraduate students are more complimenting than postgraduate ones (Table 3).

Table 3 shows that the percentages are higher for undergraduates than for postgraduate students. Post graduate students have less time than the undergraduate to meet with others and compliment them whenever there is a need for that. Moreover, they have more independence in their practical life than the undergraduate who still need more involvement in social life.

Table 3
Percentages of respondents' preferences based on education

casion	f mabrouk mashallah	f alfmabrouk	f mabrouk	abrouk
ssing the tawjihi exam	4/116) 6	/116) 6	/116) 6	4/116) 6
etting a driving license	111) ..	111) 6	2/111) 6	3/111) /16
ew baby	3/115) 6)	)/115) 6	9/115) 6	3/115) 6
b promotion	5/114) 6	3/114) 6	5/114) 6	)/114) 6
ying a new car	)/114) 6	3/114) 6	/114) 6	)/114) 6
oney prize	2/113) 6	5/113) 6	4/113) 6	2/113) 6
ew clothes	109) ..	109) 6	/109) 6	9/109) /16
ew job	9/116) 6	7/116) 6	7/116) 6	3/116) 6
etting a scholar ship	)/112) 6	5/112) 6	9/112) 6	7/112) 6
oving to a new house	7/115) ..	5/115) 5	3/115) 5	5/115) 5
verage in percentages	4%) 9	5%) 5%	5%) .5%	)%) %

Between brackets = undergraduate
Without brackets = postgraduate

Age

The last social variable that is studied is age. Since the whole study is conducted at An-Najah national University, age structure is classified into two stages. The first stage ranges from 18 to 25 years old, while the second stage is above 25 years old. This classification is meant to include the postgraduate as well as the undergraduate students. The final analysis of the percentages indicates that the undergraduate students are more intimate and more complimenting than the post graduate (Table 4).

Table 4
Percentages of respondents' preferences based on age

casion	fmabrouk mashallah	Alf alfmabrouk	Alf mabrouk	Mabrouk
Passing the tawjihi exam	(9/61) 7/73	(6/61) 10/73	(36/61) 35/73	(7/61) 21/73
Getting a driving license	(3/60) 2/69	(4/60) 4/69	(15/60) 11/69	(38/60) 52/69
New baby	(8/59) 13/73	(13/60) 12/73	(26/60) 33/73	(6/60) 18/37
Job promotion	(8/59) 13/73	(13/59) 12/73	(15/59) 15/73	(23/59) 33/73
Buying a new car	(12/60) 11/72	(7/60) 7/72	(15/60) 19/72	(26/60) 35/73
Money prize	(8/60) 9/71	(8/60) 18/71	(30/60) 21/71	(14/60) 23/71
New cloches	(5/60) 3/676	(4/60) -	(6/60) 7/67	(45/60) 57/67
New job	(10/61) 12/73	(14/61) 18/73	(26/61) 27/73	(11/61) 16/73
Getting a scholar ship	(19/60) 13/70	(3/60) 15/70	(25/60) 25/70	(13/60) 17/70
Moving to a new house	(7/59) 10/72	(7/59) 11/72	(23/59) 22/72	(22/59) 29/72
The average in percentages	(16%) 13%	(17%) 15%	(36%) 30%	(34%) 42%

With brackets: (18 - 25) years old
Without brackets = above 25 years old

The least intimate expression "mabrouk" was chosen by 42% of the participants who are above 25 years old, and by34% of those who are between 18-25 years old. At the same time, the more intimate utterances were chosen by students whose age range from 18 to 25. It seems that education and age are strongly connected as two social variables which influence the choice of complimenting expressions. When students are older and more educated, they show less intimacy in choosing a complimenting expression.

In a pilot study carried by the linguist Wolfson (1981) of the University of Pennsylvania, it was found that the type of compliment given was related to the age of the giver. The young were found to be more complimenting than the old. This can lead to the conclusion that young people with less educational achievements are more intimate that those who are older with better educational status. Therefore, the speech acts of compliment reflect the need to have more social support from the people around since the choice of certain

complimenting expression is based on the previous factors, then definitely it is a pragmatic act that is contextually determined.

Compliments and power

For Bourdieu (1977), every linguistic interaction, however personal and insignificant it may appear, bears the traces of the social structure that it both expresses and helps to reproduce. Therefore, in his words "what speaks in not the utterance, the language, but the whole social person" (Bourdieu, 1986, p. 653). In the model, Bourdieu (1986) described the economics of linguistic exchanges where word and authority coincide. This authority must not be understood as belonging to a certain physical institution; it may be any relation between speaker and listener. Every utterance we produce seems to be affected by the amount of the capital we possess. Bourdieu talks about four types of capital. Two of them, relevant to this study, are the cultural and the social capital. This means that the different forms of knowledge, skill, education and other factors such as age and the place of living can determine, to a great extent, a certain utterance. Therefore, it is not surprising, in this study, to see that the act of compliment is associated more specifically with the type of occasion more than with the existence of a particular social variable alone. This may lead us to assume that the act of complimenting expresses a hidden need to receive more acceptance and appreciation from others. We are in a market where we sell and buy. Those who are at the top of the pyramid are less needy to express their compliments intimately and this is due to the large amounts of different types of capital they possess.

Conclusion

By connecting the speech acts of compliments with different social variables, one can notice that the complimenting speech acts which range from the least to the most intimate ones are affected differently when they are connected with gender, place of living, education, age and power. In some previous studies by Tannen (1990) and others, it has been proved, through large amounts of data analysis and actual observation, that females are more intimate and more social than males. Here in this study, one can see similar findings but with some slight differences. The intimacy of the complimenting speech act is not only based on gender, but the occasion. These occasions reflect either their roles in the society or their future aspiration. In some occasions such as getting a driving license, males were more intimate in their compliments than females. This is due to certain psychological factors as well as the different rules that males and females have in our society. Another determining factor is the place of living. Generally speaking, students who come from villages chose more intimate expression to compliment others than those who come from cities. The point that needs to be indicated here is that the intimacy of expression by students from villages did not hold for all

occasions. The occasions that deal with business, money and social distinction were not expressed intimately by students with village back rounds. A final observation is that both education and age are inversely proportional with the most intimate expressions. It is clear that, when students are older and more educated, they become less needy for intimate compliments. Being more educated and older give students "a reserve fund" or in Bourdieu's terms "capital" instead of being more complimenting and thus more polite with others.

Note on Contributor

Ghada Shubietah is an instructor of English in the Faculty of Humanities at An-Najah National University, Nablus, Palestine. She teaches English for specific purposes in the language center. She holds an MA in Translation and Applied Linguistics from An-Najah National University. Her major publications include English Teaching Methodology, translation and linguistic studies. Her current research investigates the use of complimenting expressions in Palestinian Arabic which are related to certain social variables namely gender, age, education and the place of living. Email: ghada.odwan@najah.edu

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Code-Mixing of Cantonese-English Bilingual Children with Different Language Dominance Patterns

Chi Wui Ng
Department of English, The Chinese University of Hong Kong

Abstract

Code-mixing, which denotes switches between languages as well as a phenomenon reflecting grammars of both languages in interpersonal interactions simultaneously, is a universal language-contact phenomenon present in both individual bilingualism and societal bilingualism, and individual differences exist in both frequency and complexity of code-mixing out of multifarious factors. The present corpus-based longitudinal study investigates impacts of the variable of language dominance on Cantonese-English bilingual children's code-mixing. Spontaneous speech data with critical case sampling were collected from the Hong Kong Bilingual Child Language Corpus, where code-mixing identified in participants' utterances were analyzed both quantitatively and qualitatively. Bilingual children in the current study are discovered to code-mix more frequently and in a more complicated fashion in their weaker language with more intra-sentential switches in the dominant language involving incorporation of language structures of the dominant language with higher syntactic complexity as well as semantic value into utterances of the weaker language. In light of the correlation between language dominance and code-mixing, patterns of code-mixing can plausibly be capitalized upon to formatively assess kindergarten toddlers' bilingual development.

Keywords*: code-mixing, language dominance, bilingualism*

Introduction

It is a no-brainer that language contact, be it at an individual or societal level, paves way for bilingualism. On one hand, an individual's acquisition or learning of two or more languages unequivocally effectuates individual bilingualism, which once denoted native-like control of two or more languages yet is classified by five dimensions, videlicet age, ability, balance of two languages, development, and contexts of acquisition, into multifarious types under a taxonomy, such as simultaneous bilingualism, successive bilingualism, and heritage bilingualism (Benmamoun, Montrul, & Polinsky, 2013) at present (Beatens Beardsmore, 1982; Bloomfield, 1933; Valdes & Figueroa, 1994); whichever type of bilingual to which a person belongs, cross-linguistic influences such as syntactic transfer (Huang, 2009; Yip &

Matthews, 2000) and lexical transfer (Jiang, 2002) are construed as inevitable.

Attributed to such influences, a pejorative conceptualization of bilingualism as a deficiency detracting from one's intellectual and spiritual abilities had been prevalent until 1960s, yet scholars' collective and cumulative effort has corroborated that individual bilinguals enjoy bilingual advantages in multiple respects, ranging from language processing (Desmet & Duyck, 2007) and cognitive processing (Bialystok & Barac, 2013; Kroll & Bialystok, 2013) to metalinguistic ability (Clyne, 1997) and literacy development (Bialystok, 2013) out of an inextricable connection between language and thought as a matter of fact (Baker, 2001; Boroditsky, 2001; Li, 2000; Cohen, 1985); this entails that bilingual development assists humans in carrying out rational activity of the soul (Aristotle, 1955).

On the other hand, interactions between two or more languages in society certainly are the premise for societal bilingualism, plausible outcomes of which embody bilingual language planning (Yule, 2014) and evolution of novel varieties of language such as Hong Kong English (Hung, 2000) as well as lingua francas such as Chinese Pidgin English (Ansaldo, Matthews, & Smith, 2010; Matthews & Li, 2011) as contact languages (Sebba, 1997). In particular, embracing the notion of multiculturalism, bilingual education is a language policy capitalizing upon multiple languages for verbal interactions in the classroom and serves as a mode of special education catering for needs of ethnic minorities as an exceptionality group as well as an avenue for respecting cultural behaviours (Fox, 2004; Gay, 2004; Hallahan, Kauffman, & Pullen, 2014; Ormrod, 2014).

A concrete instance of bilingual education is implemented in Hong Kong, where Cantonese, English, and Putonghua are equally zeroed in on in basic education, for individual and societal good by virtue of the trend of globalization, Hong Kong's status as Asia's World City, which warrants English as a lingua franca for communication, and the city being a place where the East encounters the West, which pinpoints instruction on Chinese languages (Bauman, 1998; Haydon, 1996; Lee & Ng, 2007; Ng, 1984). Such bilingual policies are integral to preservation of endangered languages, vanishing voices, dying words, and most importantly, linguistic diversity (Evans, 2010; Hale et al., 1992; Nettle & Romaine, 2000).

It is no question that one similarity between individual bilingualism and societal bilingualism is presence of code-mixing. Referring to switches between languages as well as a phenomenon reflecting grammars of both languages working simultaneously, code-mixing, or code-switching, is a universal language-contact phenomenon exhibited at an individual level, as in conversations amongst bilingual interlocutors, as well as at societal level, as an attribute of a variety of language or contact language (Baker, 2001; Fromkin, Rodman, & Hyams, 2013). Approaching the issue of code-mixing from a perspective of bilingual acquisition, the present study aims at investigating code-mixing of Cantonese-English bilingual children with distinct language dominance patterns.

Literature Review

Code-mixing can predominantly be categorized into three types: tag-switching, where tags of one language as movable constituents are inserted into utterances of another language, intra-sentential code-switching, where segments of disparate languages are merged in the same sentence, and inter-sentential code-switching where sentences uttered in disparate languages co-exist in the same utterance (Poplack, 1980). Being a prominent area of research in bilingualism, code-mixing is largely studied from three distinct perspectives.

First and foremost, suffice it to say that sociolinguistic research considers code-mixing as an attribute of a variety of language or contact language that is pervasive in a multilingual society. Language being an identity marker, human beings exploit language to represent who they are in a bid to satisfy esteem needs and eventually achieve self-actualization (Jones, 2012; Liu, Holosko, & Lo, 2009; Maslow, 1954); in particular, ability to code-mix is regarded as one's embodied cultural capital for realization of his/her identity as a second language learner, transnational citizen, or simply a bilingual (Bourdieu, 1997; Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013). Exploring code-mixing of English in a collection of Cantopop songs as a one-of-a-kind poetic genre, which is a purposeful and socially constructed text with attendant register variables, Chan (2009) has discovered that not only does code-mixing in Cantopop songs symbolize western concepts and convey connotative meanings, it also facilitates expression of identities of local Hong Kongers (Nunan, 2008; Rose, 2012). In such a vein, code-mixing is definitely conceived as a phenomenon arising from societal bilingualism.

Unlike sociolinguistic research, classroom-based research perceives code-mixing to be a pedagogical strategy or approach employed by teachers in the classroom. With the advent of communicative language teaching in second language instruction, second language teachers in Hong Kong are expected to act as facilitators of students' learning, structure lessons in the form of communicative activities, such as form-focused tasks (Nassaji & Fotos, 2011), metalinguistic awareness tasks heightening students' language awareness (Prtic Soons, 2008; Sze & Leung, 2014), and process drama activities (Chan & Lam, 2010), and conduct lessons merely "in the English medium" (Choudhury, 2011; Curriculum Development Council, 2017, p. 15; Ellis, 2006; Harmer, 2001); even assessments are presumed to be communicative in nature as in task-based assessments (Ke, 2006); there being an inextricable link between assessment and learning, English language teachers in Hong Kong possess low receptivity to pedagogical change and possess a tendency to remain utterly Anglophone and shun code-mixing in the classroom at pains (James, 2006; Lee, 2000). On the other hand, for all a Medium of Instruction (MOI) policy discouraging mixed code in secondary schools with English as MOI, also known as late English immersion, confronting with the actualities of immense examination pressure, complicated instructional content, and

students' variable levels of English proficiency, content-subject teachers have been found to conceive code-mixing as a valuable linguistic resource ameliorating pedagogical efficacy as well as an efficacious tool establishing communities of respect and tolerance (Cheng, 2009; Kottler & Kottler, 2007; Li, 2008; Lightbown & Spada, 2013). When compared to secondary schools, tertiary institutions in Hong Kong appear more flexible and open in that some have opened the floodgates for code-mixing in the classroom to facilitate teaching and learning (Li, 2012; The Chinese University of Hong Kong, 2007). On the whole, Cantonese-English code-mixing in Hong Kong classrooms undeniably remains highly contentious albeit research findings substantiating its pedagogical value.

It is beyond the doubt that the two aforementioned perspectives reckon that code-mixing is an attribute of societal bilingualism whilst bilingual acquisition research on code-mixing views the phenomenon as an indispensable attribute of individual bilingualism. Despite a widespread misconception that only do bilinguals code-mix when they fail to express themselves adequately in one language, antecedent research reveals that by no means does code-mixing signify bilinguals' deficit; on the contrary, it is a conclusive piece of evidence for their mastery of both languages in practice, for code-mixing involves skilled manipulation of overlapping sections of two grammars (Li, 2000). Motivations for bilinguals' code-mixing are threefold: need to present a discourse persona, incorporation of discourse markers signaling topic change, and absence of lexical items in any languages conveying intended semantic or pragmatic meanings (Myers-Scotton, 1998). Even though code-mixing is ubiquitous amongst bilinguals, individual differences surely exist in both quantitative and qualitative respects in that frequency and complexity of code-mixing are substantially influenced by myriads of factors, videlicet language history, language stability, functions of languages, language proficiency, language modes, and biographical data, so are other language contact phenomena (Grosjean, 1998). Quantity and quality of input being influential in bilingual development, code-mixing in bilinguals' language production has been discovered to be associated with code-mixing in input (Hoff, Welsh, Place, & Ribot, 2014). All the same, rarely have impacts of other variables on frequency and complexity of bilinguals' code-mixing been probed into in bilingual acquisition research to date.

Targeting at language dominance, the current study is intended to look into impacts of such a variable on Cantonese-English bilingual children's code-mixing. Needless to say, seldom do bilinguals possess equivalent mastery of two languages; on the contrary, it is likely for them to possess greater proficiency in one language than in another language (Li, 2000); the concept of language dominance captures disparities in rate and complexity of a bilingual's development of two languages in that the language developing faster and with greater complexity is usually denoted as one's dominant language whereas its counterpart is referred to as his/her weaker language (Yip, 2013). Correlated with degree of language use and found to be

influential in language choice, language dominance is unquestionably expected to be a variable exerting far-reaching impacts on both frequency and complexity of bilinguals' code-mixing (Genesee, Paradis, & Crago, 2004; Montrul, 2013). Bernardini and Schlyter (2004)'s Ivy Hypothesis contends that bilingual children resort to functional elements of the dominant language in utterances of the weaker language. Even though Yip and Matthews (2007) argue that code-mixing of bilingual children growing up in bilingual societies is chiefly influenced by rich code-mixed primary language input, hardly can the role of language dominance, which is also a significant factor, be kept out of consideration; impacts of such a variable on code-mixing constitute the crux of the study.

However vital impacts language dominance exerts on code-mixing, limited antecedent research on the interrelation between the two has been conducted to date; two prominent ones were carried out by Bentahila and Davies (1992), which was one of the pioneer studies on such a topic and identified disparities in directions of code-mixing of Moroccan bilinguals with distinct language dominance patterns, and Heredia and Altarriba (2001), which was an explanatory study on the motivation for code-mixing possessed by bilinguals with distinct language dominance patterns, respectively. Not only are those two studies rather dated, they also lack a systematic analysis of code-mixing with respect to language dominance using an integration of quantitative and qualitative data analysis methods. More importantly, Cantonese and English being genetically and typologically distinct languages, code-mixing of Cantonese and English in Hong Kong, where both languages are dictated as official languages, is undoubtedly worth examining albeit a lack of relevant studies focusing specifically on code-mixing and language dominance using such a language pair (Yip & Matthews, 2010). The aforementioned research gaps provide motivation for the present study.

More specifically, the study aims at addressing the following research questions:

1) What are attributes of code-mixing in Cantonese and English utterances of Cantonese-English bilingual children with Cantonese as a dominant language respectively?
2) What are attributes of code-mixing in Cantonese and English utterances of Cantonese-English bilingual children with English as a dominant language respectively?
3) What are attributes of code-mixing in Cantonese and English utterances of Cantonese-English bilingual children with balanced bilingual development respectively?

Barely is the study intended to verify Bernardini and Schlyter's (2004) Ivy Hypothesis, which has been studied at length in antecedent research; instead, it focuses on frequency as well as complexity of bilingual children's code-mixing. Possessing a disposition to adopt the dominant language in lieu

of the weaker language in daily language use, and displaying strong preference for their dominant language to their weaker language in conversations with bilingual or even monolingual interlocutors, bilingual children are presumed to be more likely to code mix utterances in their weaker language with segments of their dominant language, and embedded components in the dominant language are also presumed to be more complicated in syntactic structure when compared to their counterparts in the weaker language (Genesee et al., 2004; Montrul, 2013). In other words, Cantonese-English bilingual children with Cantonese and English as a dominant language are predicted to code-mix more frequently and in a more complicated fashion in English and Cantonese utterances respectively whilst those with balanced bilingual development are envisaged to code-mix equally frequently and in an equally complicated fashion in both Cantonese and English utterances. On the basis of the aforementioned predictions, it is further hypothesized that bilingual children code-mix more frequently and in a more complicated fashion in utterances of their weaker language. Such a hypothesis assuredly ought to be taken with an assumption that other variables, such as language history, language stability, functions of languages, language proficiency, language modes, and quantity as well as quality of input of both languages, remain relatively constant.

Methodology

Being a corpus-based longitudinal case study, the present investigation utilizes spontaneous speech data produced by Cantonese-English bilingual children in the Hong Kong Bilingual Child Language Corpus created by Yip and Matthews (2007) available through the Child Language Data Exchange System (CHILDES) database, which is a large-scale longitudinal corpus with spoken data of nine participants collected by means of recording of interactions between participants and adult interlocutors in naturalistic settings between 1994 and 2005. All participants were situated at their sensorimotor or preoperational stage of cognitive development and confronted with psychosocial tasks of autonomy and initiative in the course of data collection (Piaget, Green, Marguerite, & George, 1971; Rosenthal, Gurney, & Moore, 1981). Not only do spontaneous speech data preclude artificiality induced by experimental methods omnipresent in cross-sectional studies, they also enhance objectivity of the study by detracting from researchers' reliance on individual intuitions or personal reflections in the course of data analysis (Ming & Tao, 2008; Yip & Matthews, 2007).

Critical case sampling was applied to select four participants out of nine Cantonese-English bilingual children in the corpus in accordance with their language dominance patterns for in-depth analysis. Three predominant indicators of language dominance prevalently accepted by scholars in the field of bilingual acquisition are Mean Length of Utterance (MLU) differential measured in words, language preferences, and silent periods. MLU opined to

be the most objective indicator of a child's linguistic development in a language, MLUw differential, which denotes difference between mean MLUw values of a child's two languages over a period of development, provides a measure of a child's language dominance in that the MLUw value of the dominant language is presumed to be higher than that of the weaker language (Yip & Matthews, 2007). Language preferences and silent periods, which are concerned about a child's willingness or reluctance to interact in a certain language and periods during which one language is comprehended but not produced by a child respectively, are also relevant to language dominance albeit their lower validity and reliability when compared to MLUw differential (Yip & Matthews, 2007); MLUw differential was thereby selected as a measure of language dominance in the current study, and four participants with distinct language dominance patterns were selected for the study. Mean MLUw differentials of the four selected participants are shown in Table 1.

Janet was exposed to both Cantonese and English from birth and grew up in a one parent-one language environment with her father and mother being native English and Cantonese speakers respectively (Yip & Matthews, 2007). She was a Cantonese-dominant child on account of imbalance of Cantonese and English language input.

Table 1
Mean MLU differentials of four Cantonese-English bilingual children

Participants	Janet	Charlotte	Llywelyn	Darren
Age range	2:10:16 – 03:11:11	01:08:28 – 03:00:03	02:00:12 – 03:04:17	01:07:23 – 03:11:24
Cantonese MLU	4.061	2.313	2.683	2.647
English MLU	2.587	2.808	2.672	2.689
MLU differential (Cantonese MLU – English MLU)	1.474	-0.495	0.011	-0.042
MLU differential (Cantonese MLU % as of English MLU)	156.98	82.37	100.41	98.44

Charlotte is the second of two children with an elder sister who is two years and nine months older (Yip & Matthews, 2007). Her father, who was a professor from the United Kingdom, was on sabbatical leave in New Zealand when she was born whereas her mother is a native Cantonese speaker. She was cared for by a Pilipino domestic helper throughout the period of data collection and was an English-dominant child.

Llywelyn grew up in a one parent-one language environment with his father and mother being native English and Cantonese speakers respectively (Yip & Matthews, 2007). His father was absent from home for work every now and then during his early years, and he was cared for by two Pilipino

domestic helpers throughout the period of data collection. He is the second of two children with an elder brother who is three years and eight months older. He possessed rather balanced bilingual development with slight dominance in Cantonese.

Darren was exposed to both Cantonese and English from birth and grew up in a one parent-two language environment with both his father and mother being native Cantonese speakers speaking English as a second language and interacting with him in both Cantonese and English (Yip & Matthews, 2007). He possessed rather balanced bilingual development with slight dominance in English.

Code-mixing identified in spontaneous speech data produced by the four participants was analyzed both quantitatively and qualitatively. The number of code-mixed utterances produced by a child was first compared with the total number of utterances in a certain language produced by the child to compute the percentage or relative frequency of a participant's code-mixed utterances. Code-mixed utterances were subsequently analyzed in greater depth through identification of the type of each instance of code-mixing as well as the language form of each embedded segment. Types of code-mixing entail intra-sentential and inter-sentential code-switching whilst language forms denote distinct levels of language structures in the grammatical hierarchy, videlicet words, phrases, and clauses (Nelson, 1998). Being an ambiguous notion in grammar or syntax, clauses are defined in the present study as components comprising a subject and a predicative element (Biber, Leech, & Conrad, 2002). Moreover, generative syntax makes a clear distinction between determiner phrases (DP) and noun phrases (NP), yet the current study conceives all nominal expressions as NP for simplification (Sportiche, Koopman, & Stabler, 2014). Descriptive statistics was yielded to provide a general picture of relatively complexity of a participant's code-mixing.

Results

Descriptive statistics of frequencies of code-mixing in Cantonese and English utterances of the four participants were computed and presented in Tables 2 and 3 respectively.

Table 2
Frequencies of code-mixing in Cantonese utterances of four Cantonese-English bilingual children

Participants	Janet	Charlotte	Llywelyn	Darren
Total number of Cantonese utterances	5956	3261	4088	5079
Number of code-mixed utterances	681	1737	437	798
Percentage of code-mixed utterances	11.43%	53.27%	10.69%	15.71%

Code-mixing was discovered in over half of Cantonese utterances of Charlotte, who was English-dominant, yet in solely slightly more than 10% of Cantonese utterances of Janet and Llywelyn, who were Cantonese-dominant and balanced with slight Cantonese dominance respectively. Darren, who was a roughly balanced bilingual with slight English dominance, code-mixed slightly more frequently in Cantonese utterances than his Cantonese-dominant counterparts did.

Table 3
Frequencies of code-mixing in English utterances of four Cantonese-English bilingual children

Participants	Janet	Charlotte	Llywelyn	Darren
Total number of English utterances	3455	3860	3862	5082
Number of code-mixed utterances	1018	146	257	326
Percentage of code-mixed utterances	29.46%	3.79%	6.65%	6.41%

Findings of frequencies of code-mixing in English utterances of the four participants are construed as opposite to those of frequencies of code-mixing in Cantonese utterances. Charlotte, who code-mixed most frequently in Cantonese utterances, possessed the lowest proportion of code-mixed English utterances. In contrast, Janet, who possessed about one-tenth of code-mixed Cantonese utterances, code-mixed in over one-fourth of her English utterances. Concerning Llywelyn and Darren, both of whom possessed

balanced bilingual development, code-mixing was present in almost 6% of their English utterances. The aforementioned findings doubtlessly demonstrate a strong correlation between language dominance and frequency of code-mixing in that code-mixing is more frequent in utterances of the weaker language, as in Charlotte's Cantonese utterances and Janet's English utterances.

The analysis of frequencies of the four participants' code-mixing is that of complexity of their code-mixing, which will be presented separately.

Figures 1a and 1b manifest that inter-sentential switching dominated code-mixing of Janet, who was Cantonese-dominant, in both Cantonese and English utterances albeit a much larger proportion of intra-sentential switching in her Cantonese utterances; this suggests that she possessed a higher propensity to be contingent upon Cantonese language structures when incorporating English language structures into her Cantonese utterances, yielding more intra-sentential switching with elements of both languages in the same sentence.

Types of Code-Mixing in Janet's Cantonese Utterances
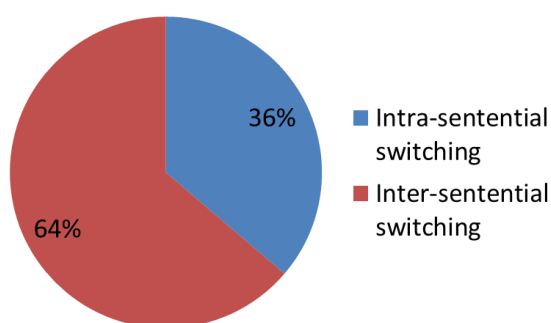
Types of Code-Mixing in Janet's English Utterances
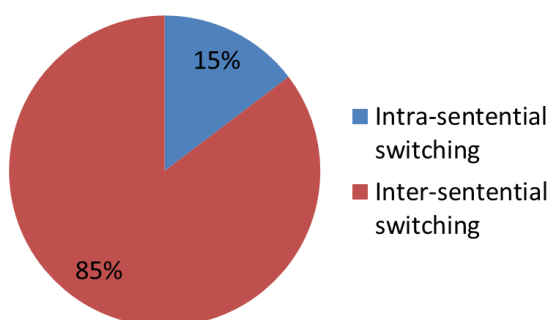
Figures 1a and 1b. Types of code-mixing in Janet's Cantonese (left) and English (right) utterances.

Figures 2 and 3 present types of code-mixed language forms in Janet's Cantonese and English utterances respectively. She mostly embedded clauses of the other language into utterances of the matrix language in inter-sentential switching as in (3), where an English clause was embedded into a context where the adult interlocutor intended to elicit Cantonese utterances. In intra-sentential switching, she embedded more English proper nouns (as in (4)) and Cantonese clauses (as in (5)) into her Cantonese and English utterances respectively. Comprising combinations of subjects and predicates, clauses are absolutely more complicated than proper nouns, which are names of entities, in a syntactic respect.

Types of Intra-Sententially Code-Mixed Language Forms in Janet's Cantonese Utterances
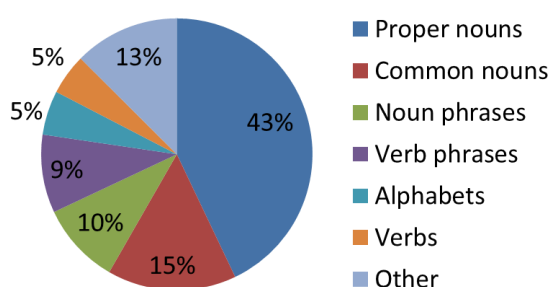
- Proper nouns — 43%
- Common nouns — 15%
- Noun phrases — 10%
- Verb phrases — 9%
- Alphabets — 5%
- Verbs — 5%
- Other — 13%

Types of Inter-Sententially Code-Mixed Language Forms in Janet's Cantonese Utterances

- Clauses — 31%
- Exclamations — 18%
- Common nouns — 9%
- Noun phrases — 9%
- Proper nouns — 7%
- Verb phrases — 7%
- Alphabets — 5%
- Ordinal numbers — 3%
- Verbs — 3%
- Adverbs — 2%
- Other — 6%
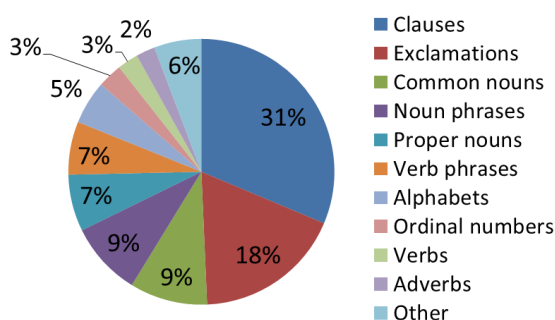
Figures 2a and 2b. Types of intra-sententially (left) and inter-sententially (right) code-mixed language forms in Janet's Cantonese utterances.

Types of Intra-Sententially Code-Mixed Language Forms in Janet's English Utterances

- Clauses — 25%
- Common nouns — 21%
- Sentence Final Particles — 13%
- Pronouns — 10%
- Verb phrases — 10%
- Other — 21%

Types of Inter-Sententially Code-Mixed Language Forms in Janet's English Utterances

- Clauses — 34%
- Verb phrases — 23%
- Common nouns — 13%
- Noun phrases — 6%
- Exclamations — 5%
- Pronouns — 5%
- Prepositional phrases — 3%
- Verbs — 3%
- Adverbs — 2%
- Adjectives — 1%
- Sentence final particles — 1%
- Other — 4%
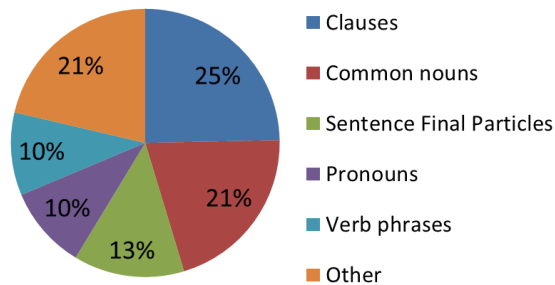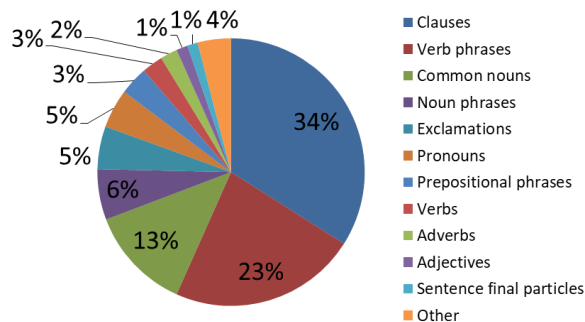
Figures 3a and 3b. Types of Intra-Sententially (Left) and Inter-Sententially (Right) Code-Mixed Language Forms in Janet's English Utterances.

(1) Adult: Gam2mai6 hai6 lo1   gam2mai6 tung4 nei5 jat1cai4
　　　　　(咁　咪　係　囉　咁　咪　同　你　一　齊
　　　　　then　　　yes　SFP　then　　　with　you　together
　　　　　waan2 lo1   hai6mai6 aa3
　　　　　玩　　囉　係　咪　呀)
　　　　　play　SFP　right　　　SFP
　　　　"Then he will play with you together, right?"
　　　Child: Hai6 aa3
　　　　　(係　呀
　　　　　yes　SFP
　　　　"Yes."
　　　Adult: Hai6 lo1
　　　　　(係　囉
　　　　　yes　SFP
　　　　"Yes."
　　　Child: I'm… I'm… I'm… I show xxx photos.
　　　(Janet 3;03;24)

60

(2) Child: Ho2ji5 jung6 Clariol gaa3
(可 以用　Clariol 㗎)
can　use　Clariol SFP
"You can use Clariol."
(Janet 2;10;30)

(3) Child: Ngo5 jiu3　wee wee
(我　要　wee wee)
I　need　wee
"I need to wee."
(Janet 2;10;16)

　　　　Figures 4a and 4b indicate that code-mixing patterns of Charlotte, who was English-dominant, were opposite to those of Janet in that more intra-sentential switching was found in her English in lieu of Cantonese utterances; this means that English language structures were hinged upon more frequently when Cantonese language structures were embedded into her English utterances. On the basis of disparate code-mixing patterns between Janet and Charlotte, it appears that intra-sentential switching is more pervasive when language structures of the weaker language are embedded into utterances of the dominant language.

Types of Code-Mixing in Charlotte's Cantonese Utterances
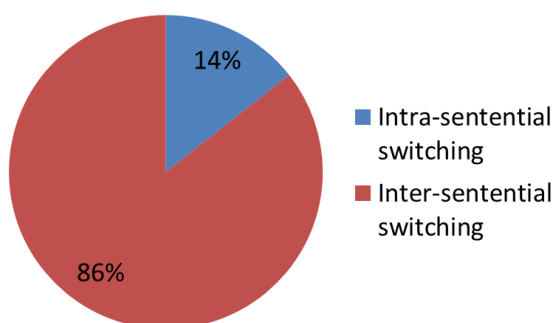
Types of Code-Mixing in Charlotte's English Utterances
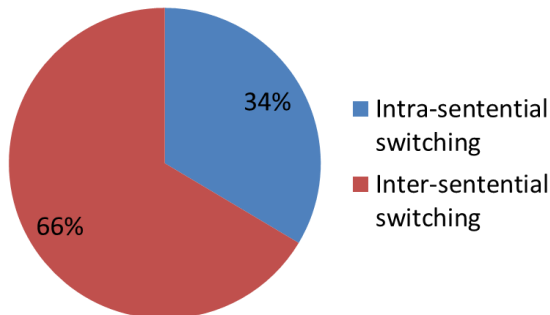
Figures 4a and 4b. Types of code-mixing in Charlotte's Cantonese (left) and English (right) utterances.

Figures 5 and 6 present types of code-mixed language forms in Charlotte's Cantonese and English utterances respectively. Lexical elements as well as syntactically more complex ones, such as common nouns (as in (6)) and clauses, of English are more frequently embedded into her Cantonese utterances whereas functional elements, such as sentence final particles (as in (7)) and exclamations (as in (8)), of Cantonese are more ubiquitous in her code-mixed English utterances. Such findings irrefutably imply that English language structures embedded into Cantonese utterances possess much higher semantic value than Cantonese language structures embedded into English utterances do.

Types of Intra-Sententially Code-Mixed Language Forms in Charlotte's Cantonese Utterances

Types of Inter-Sententially Code-Mixed Language Forms in Charlotte's Cantonese Utterances

Legend:
- Clauses
- Common nouns
- Verb phrases
- Verbs
- Exclamations
- Noun phrases
- Adjectives
- Adverbs
- Proper nouns
- Pronouns
- Other

Values shown: 37%, 16%, 13%, 8%, 7%, 6%, 3%, 3%, 3%, 2%, 2%
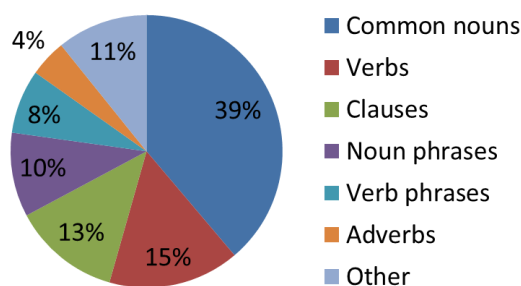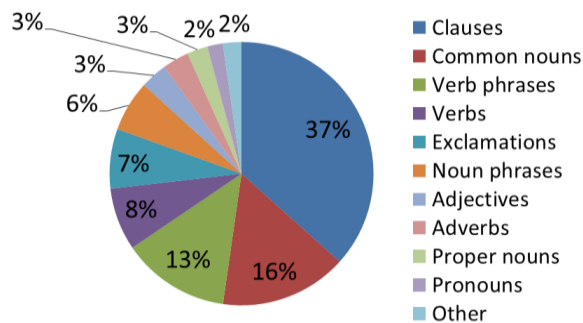
Figures 5a and 5b. Types of intra-sententially (left) and inter-sententially (right) code-mixed language forms in Charlotte's Cantonese utterances.

Types of Intra-Sententially Code-Mixed Language Forms in Charlotte's English Utterances

Legend:
- Sentence final particles
- Common nouns
- Clauses
- Pronouns
- Determiners
- Other

Values shown: 29%, 23%, 14%, 14%, 10%, 10%

Types of Inter-Sententially Code-Mixed Language Forms in Charlotte's English Utterances

Legend:
- Exclamations
- Common nouns
- Proper nouns
- Clauses
- Verbs
- Pronouns
- Verb phrases
- Other

Values shown: 25%, 18%, 17%, 11%, 9%, 7%, 5%, 8%
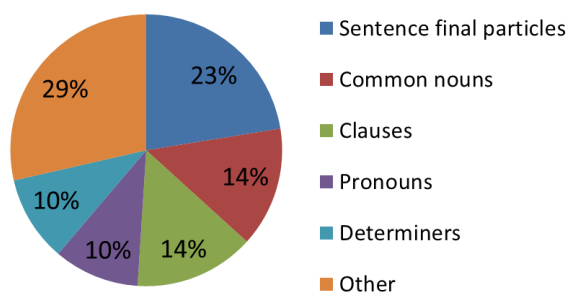
Figures 6a and 6b. Types of intra-sententially (left) and inter-sententially (right) code-mixed language forms in Charlotte's English utterances.

(4)   Child: Ne1go3 aa3 Gaa3gaa3 money
          (呢 個 呀 家 家 money)
           this   SFP Ka Ka   money
         "This is Ka Ka's money."
   (Charlotte 1;08;28)

(5)   Child: Pretty aa4
         Pretty SFP
         "Is it pretty?"
   (Charlotte 1;10;09)

(6)   Adult: Excuse me, you say excuse me.
     Child: Aai1jaa3 aai1
         (哎 吔 哎
         Ah   ah
         "Ah!"
   (Charlotte 1;08;28)

Regarding the two balanced bilinguals, videlicet Llywelyn and Darren, scarcely were disparities in proportions of intra-sentential and inter-sentential switching between their Cantonese and English utterances as significant as those in Janet and Charlotte, both of whom obviously possessed clear patterns of language dominance, as shown in Figures 7 and 8; this could plausibly be explicated by their relatively balanced bilingual development. That said, in spite of their lack of clear patterns of language dominance, intra-sentential switching was observed to take up a larger proportion of the total number of code-mixing in utterances of their slightly dominant language, videlicet Cantonese for Llywelyn and English for Darren, than in utterances of their slightly weaker language. All the same, the two participants' language dominance being frightfully insignificant, hardly is it plausible to tell whether the aforementioned disparities identified in their patterns of code-mixing are genuinely attributable to their language dominance.

Types of Code-Mixing in Llywelyn's Cantonese Utterances

22%

78%

■ Intra-sentential switching

■ Inter-sentential switching

Types of Code-Mixing in Llywelyn's English Utterances
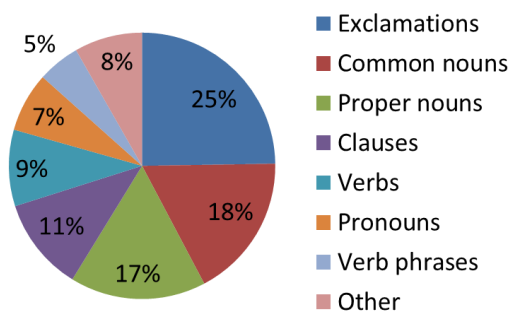

12%

88%

■ Intra-sentential switching

■ Inter-sentential switching
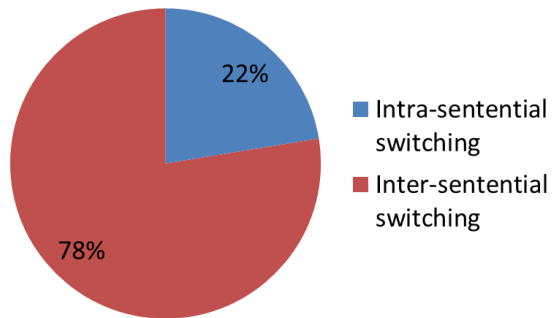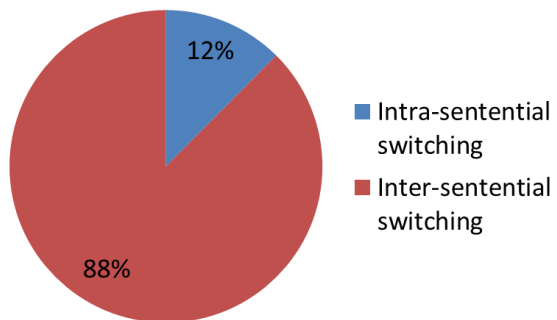
Figures 7a and 7b. Types of code-mixing in Llywelyn's Cantonese (left) and English (right) utterances.

Types of Code-Mixing in Darren's Cantonese Utterances

18%

■ Intra-sentential switching

■ Inter-sentential switching

82%
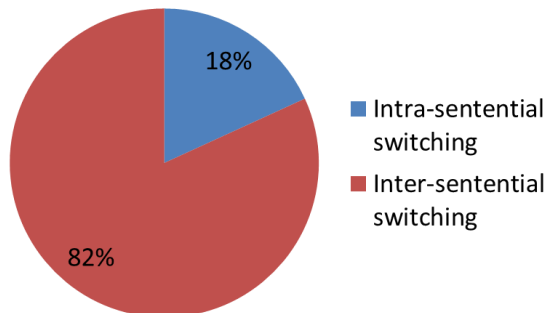
Types of Code-Mixing in Darren's English Utterances

23%

■ Intra-sentential switching

■ Inter-sentential switching

77%
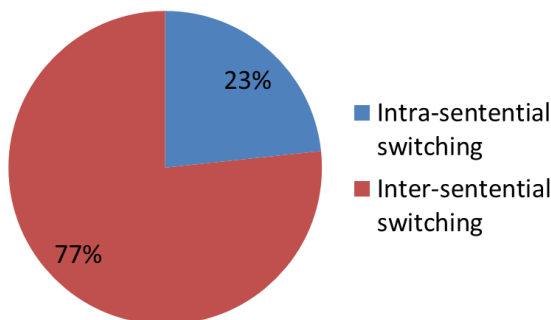
Figures 8a and 8b. Types of code-mixing in Darren's Cantonese (left) and English (right) utterances.

A close scrutiny of types of code-mixed language forms in utterances produced by Llywelyn and Darren from Figure 9 to Figure 12 suggests that Llywelyn's pattern of code-mixing was akin to that of Janet, yet Darren's pattern of code-mixing deviated from that of Charlotte. Similar to Janet, Llywelyn also embedded syntactically complex structures, videlicet clauses, more frequently into his English utterances than his Cantonese utterances. In contrast, no particular pattern of complexity was observed in Darren's code-mixing in that simpler word-level structures and more complex clausal structures were roughly proportionally between code-mixing in both directions. Complexity of code-mixing of balanced bilingual children is thereby said to be more variable and less predictable than that of dominant bilingual children.

Types of Intra-Sententially Code-Mixed Language Forms in Llywelyn's Cantonese Utterances

Legend:
- Common nouns
- Noun phrases
- Adjectives
- Verbs
- Cardinal numbers
- Clauses
- Other

Values: 45%, 16%, 11%, 7%, 7%, 6%, 8%

Types of Inter-Sententially Code-Mixed Language Forms in Llywelyn's Cantonese Utterances

Legend:
- Common nouns
- Noun phrases
- Clauses
- Exclamations
- Unintelligible
- Verbs
- Cardinal numbers
- Pronouns
- Other

Values: 44%, 13%, 10%, 7%, 5%, 5%, 4%, 3%, 9%
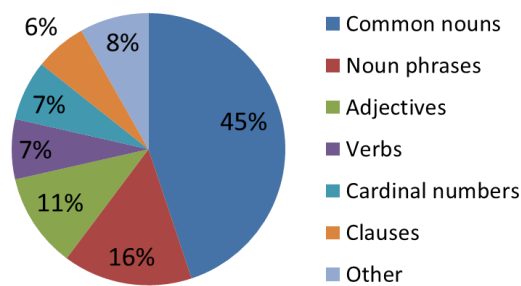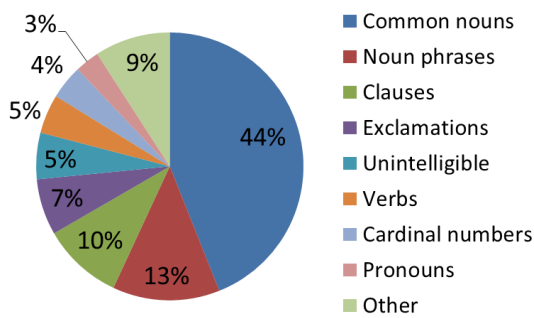
Figures 9a and 9b. Types of intra-sententially (left) and inter-sententially (right) code-mixed language forms in Llywelyn's Cantonese utterances.

Types of Intra-Sententially Code-Mixed Language Forms in Llywelyn's English Utterances

- ■ Clauses
- ■ Common nouns
- ■ Determiners
- ■ Adverbs
- ■ Sentence final particles
- ■ Other

Types of Inter-Sententially Code-Mixed Language Forms in Llywelyn's English Utterances

- ■ Clauses
- ■ Verb phrases
- ■ Exclamations
- ■ Pronouns
- ■ Common nouns
- ■ Adverbs
- ■ Other
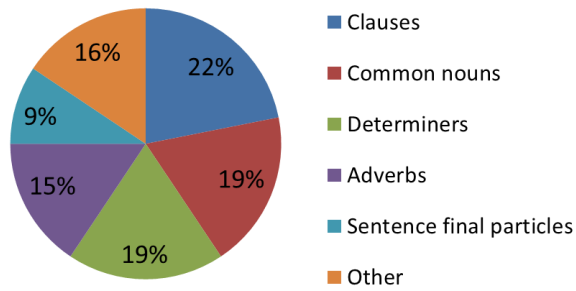
Figures 10a and 10b. Types of intra-sententially (left) and inter-sententially (right) code-mixed language forms in Llywelyn's English utterances.

Types of Intra-Sententially Code-Mixed Language Forms in Darren's Cantonese Utterances

- Proper nouns
- Common nouns
- Clauses
- Verbs
- Verb phrases
- Other
- Other

32% | 21% | 12% | 10% | 8% | 17%

Types of Inter-Sententially Code-Mixed Language Forms in Darren's Cantonese Utterances

- Clauses
- Exclamations
- Common nouns
- Noun phrases
- Proper nouns
- Adjectives
- Verb phrases
- Other

35% | 30% | 10% | 7% | 5% | 4% | 4% | 5%
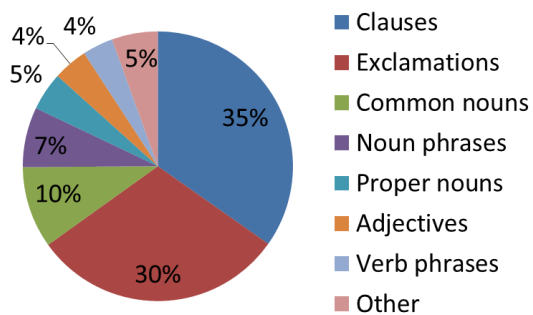
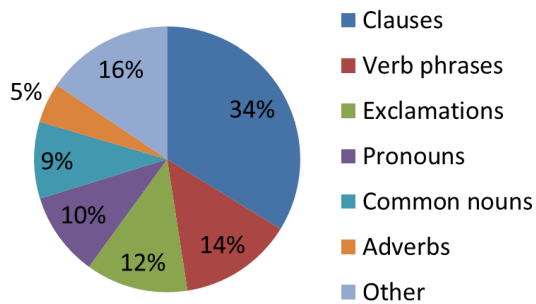*Figures 11a and 11b.* Types of intra-sententially (left) and inter-sententially (right) code-mixed language forms in Darren's Cantonese utterances.

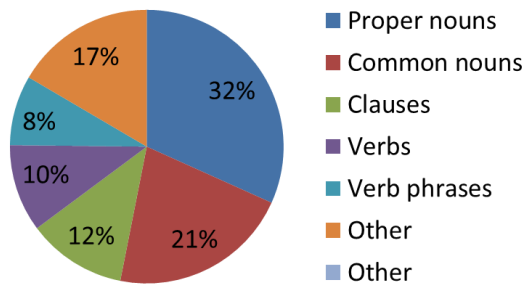**Types of Intra-Sententially Code-Mixed Language Forms in Darren's English Utterances**

- Common nouns
- Clauses
- Verbs
- Other

58% 21% 7% 14%

Types of Inter-Sententially Code-Mixed Language Forms in Darren's English Utterances

- Clauses
- Common nouns
- Verb phrases
- Noun phrases
- Verbs
- Other

44% 19% 13% 6% 5% 13%
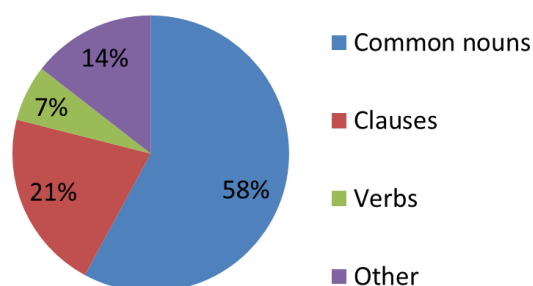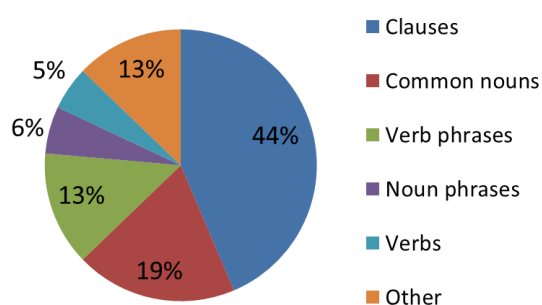
Figures 12a and 12b. Types of intra-sententially (left) and inter-sententially (right) code-mixed language forms in Darren's English utterances.

Discussion

On the basis of antecedent studies, it was postulated that bilingual children code-mix more frequently and in a more complicated fashion in utterances of their weaker language. Findings delineated in the antecedent section generally confirm research predictions and hypothesis formulated, yet such a hypothesis indisputably ought to be interpreted with respect to the present research context.

To begin with, Cantonese-English bilingual children appear to code-mix more frequently in utterances of their weaker language. Such a hypothesis is apparently supported by a higher proportion or percentage of occurrence of code-mixing in English and Cantonese utterances produced by Charlotte, who was English-dominant, and Janet, who was Cantonese-dominant, respectively; such findings concur with antecedent research findings on language embedding, which suggest that bilingual children who have reached a higher level of syntactic complexity in one language than another language are apt to incorporate elements of a dominant language into utterances of a weaker

language (Yip & Matthews, 2000). Notwithstanding its inherent difference from syntactic transfer or lexical borrowing, code-mixing is still deemed to be an avenue for embedding of language structures of the dominant language into the weaker language as a matrix language of utterances. Another plausible explication is bilingual children's language preference. Preferring to interact with other interlocutors in their dominant language, bilingual children are less likely to code-mix their utterances with their weaker language when their dominant language is the matrix language yet are likely to capitalize upon linguistic elements of the dominant language even when the matrix language is the weaker language (Genesee et al., 2004; Montrul, 2013). Should the same hypothesis be applicable to balanced bilinguals, an equal frequency of code-mixing ought to be expected to be identified in utterances of both languages produced by balanced bilinguals; findings of the present study however fail to comply with such a prediction. Both Llywelyn and Darren code-mixed more frequently in their Cantonese utterances than in their English utterances; the input factor is plausibly in place in that Cantonese utterances embedded with English language structures are omnipresent in discourse amongst local Hong Kong citizens and so readily available to bilingual children as primary language input (Yip & Matthews, 2007). Having received such input, those children may plausibly learn from, if not imitate, those patterns of code-mixing and produce utterances with Cantonese as a matrix language and embedded English language structures.

As for types of code-mixing, inter-sentential code-mixing is predominant in utterances of both languages produced by all four participants albeit a higher proportion of intra-sentential code-mixing in utterances of the dominant language. Involving skilled manipulation of overlapping sections of two grammars, intra-sentential switching, where language structures of both languages are present in the same sentence, is incontestably considered much more challenging and complicated than inter-sentential mixing in that syntactic functions performed by distinct elements in both languages have to be contemplated to formulate a well-formed intra-sententially code-mixed utterance (Li, 2000). In intra-sentential code-mixing, seldom are two languages combined in an arbitrary fashion; instead, one language typically provides the grammatical framework for language items of the other language to fit in (Li, 2000). Being more proficient in the dominant language, bilingual children may find it easier to exploit the dominant language as the matrix language setting the grammatical framework in intra-sentential code-mixing; for such a reason, it is reasonable that intra-sentential code-mixing is more frequent in utterances of the dominant language. For instance, possessing a more advanced level of mastery of Cantonese and English respectively, Janet and Charlotte probably found formulation of Cantonese and English sentences easier respectively, so they were more likely to employ their dominant language to set a grammatical framework for intra-sentential code-mixing. Possessing roughly equivalent mastery of two languages, balanced bilingual children probably find formulation of Cantonese and English sentences

equally easy or difficult, so a significantly high proportion of intra-sentential code-mixing is absent in any of the two languages.

Besides code-mixing more frequently, Cantonese-English bilingual children also appear to code-mix in a more complicated fashion in their weaker language; this entails that language structures of the dominant language with higher syntactic complexity and semantic value are embedded into utterances of the weaker language. Possessing higher syntactic complexity and semantic value respectively, clauses, which comprise subjects and predicative elements, and common nouns, which denote classes of entities, of the dominant language are more prevalently embedded into Charlotte's Cantonese utterances and Janet's English utterances to convey meanings and propositional content (Biber et al., 2002). In contrast, possessing lower syntactic complexity as well as semantic value, proper nouns, which denote individuals, sentence final particles, and exclamations of the weaker language are pervasively embedded into the dominant language for the purpose of naming or conveyance of meanings without genuine prepositional content (Biber et al., 2002). Such findings provide counter evidence for Bernardini and Schlyter (2004)'s Ivy Hypothesis in that Cantonese-English bilingual children are likely to resort to lexical in lieu of functional elements of the dominant language, such as clauses and common nouns, and incorporate them into utterances of the weaker language. That said, the current study not possessing a goal of assembling evidence for or against that hypothesis, more evidence manifestly ought to be procured for the sake of putting forward a more tenable argument in support of or opposition to Ivy's Hypothesis. Variability of the code-mixing pattern of balanced Cantonese-English bilingual children could be accounted for by their lack of clear language dominance pattern and more significant impacts from primary language input received as well as their personal preferences for code-mixing, which ought to be studied in greater depth.

After elucidation of the overriding findings of the study, one additional issue worthy of deliberation is the interconnection between language dominance and language input. Input being influential in bilingual development, by no means can any attributes of bilinguals' language production be dissociated from input (Hoff et al., 2014); Yip and Matthews (2007) also noted that it is frightfully difficult to segregate bilingual children's acquisition of adult-like code-mixing behaivour from code-mixing as instantiation of their own bilingual development against a backdrop of a multilingual society, where code-mixing is ubiquitous amongst adults. The present study comparing frequency and complexity of code-mixing of Cantonese-English bilingual children with distinct language dominance patterns is argued to be valid in that it possesses no intention to rule out impacts effectuated by adult input or study the mere effect of language dominance on patterns of code-mixing; instead, only does it attempt to compare patterns of code-mixing amongst bilingual children with distinct language dominance patterns given an assumption that other variables,

embodying adult input, remain relatively constant. Being a naturalistic study, hardly can the study strictly control all variables of participants by reason of its impracticality; this incontrovertibly constitutes one limitation of the study and ought to be overcome by ameliorated research design in the future.

Apart from that, the study plainly possesses some other limitations in a methodological respect. First of all, one plausible pitfall as regards longitudinal corpus data is the low frequency of sampling. Attributed to limited duration of each recording session as well as frequency of recording, only was approximately 1% of a child's language production estimated to be capable of being captured and documented in the corpus, so the representativeness of the sample is in doubt (Yip & Matthews, 2007); for such a reason, reliability of the quantitative aspect of the study, especially the percentage of code-mixed utterances amongst the total number of utterances, might have been undermined. Another potential caveat in regard to spontaneous speech data on the whole is existence of a considerable amount of individual variation. Should a distinction between linguistic competence and linguistic performance be given credence to, rarely does a child's language production comprehensively represent his/her underlying linguistic competence (Yip & Matthews, 2007). In particular, there being no obligatory context for code-mixing, personal preferences constitute the determinant of bilingual children's production of code-mixed utterances; such a small sample size with solely two dominant bilinguals and two balanced bilinguals is thereby insufficient to conclusively verify any research hypotheses, but a larger sample size is warranted. Added to the aforementioned limitations pertaining to the source of data, only has the study taken the formal aspect of code-mixing into account, but it has kept its functional aspect out of consideration. More specifically, never have semantic and pragmatic meanings conveyed by code-mixed utterances been touched upon. Leech (1974) has constructed a taxonomy of seven types of meaning whilst Cruse (2011) has also identified several types of non-descriptive meaning irrespective of propositions conveyed by utterances; such frameworks can be adopted to study distinct types of meaning conveyed in code-mixed utterances produced by bilingual children with disparate language dominance patterns.

Conclusion

As an attempt to expand the body of bilingual acquisition research on Cantonese-English bilingual children's code-mixing, the current study targets an independent variable of language dominance and aims at investigating code-mixing of Cantonese-English bilingual children with distinct language dominance patterns via a corpus-based longitudinal approach. Bilingual children with asymmetrical bilingual development are discovered to code-mix more frequently and in a more complicated fashion in utterances of their weaker language with more intra-sentential switching in the dominant language and incorporation of language structures of the dominant language

with higher syntactic complexity as well as semantic value into utterances of the weaker language. On the other hand, code-mixing of bilingual children with balanced bilingual development are found to be influenced less by language dominance patterns yet more by the input factor.

Having elucidated and explicated impacts of language dominance on Cantonese-English bilingual children's code-mixing in naturalistic settings at length, not only does the study add to the existing body of literature on bilingual acquisition of Cantonese-English bilingual children, who possess an informative language pair as a result of marked genetic and typological disparities between Cantonese and English, it also uncovers code-mixing as a language contact phenomenon on a more comprehensive basis and enables scholars in the field of bilingualism to decipher code-mixing from more alternative perspectives. It is hoped that future studies associating code-mixing with language dominance in more diverse language pairs can develop pattern of code-mixing into a valid and reliable measure of language dominance; this is infallibly regarded as a methodological advancement in the field of bilingual acquisition research. Not only does such a measure possess theoretical usage, it may also possess practical applications in educational settings. When well-established, pattern of code-mixing can be applied by kindergarten teachers as an alternative and easily accessible language assessment tool to formatively assess children's bilingual development. The study is thereby said to possess both theoretical and practical significance.

For all its theoretical and practical significance, possessing certain limitations, the study decidedly ought to be ameliorated in terms of research design to yield more conclusive findings. More specifically, being rather limited, longitudinal corpus data are suggested to be supplemented by diary data, which manage to yield extended developmental trajectories of bilingual children's linguistic development to compensate for the weakness of low frequency of sampling whereas the sample size is also recommended to be enlarged to detract from impacts of individual variation in language production on quantitative analysis (Yip & Matthews, 2007). In addition, it is proposed that both formal and functional respects of code-mixed utterances be studied in future research with the hope of understanding not only bilingual children's contexts of code-mixing but also their reasons for code-mixing. Last but surely not the least, it is worth comparing code-mixing patterns of bilingual children with bilingual adults with similar language dominance patterns as an annex of the study for identification of any similarities or disparities in patterns of code-mixing between bilinguals at distinct stages of development or levels of proficiency. Not only are these directions for future research meant to expand the body of literature in the field, they are also expected to possess practical applications and inform pedagogical practice.

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Note on Contributor

Chi Wui Ng is a Graduate Master in an aided secondary school in Hong Kong as well as a Master's student in applied English linguistics in the Department of English at the Chinese University of Hong Kong, Shatin, N. T. Hong Kong. His research interests in the field of applied linguistics are English grammar, second language development, second language instruction, and pedagogical grammar. Email:ngchiwui@link.cuhk.edu.hk

Motivation and Barriers for University Teachers to Apply Blended Learning in Language Classes

Thi Nhi Nguyen
Hue University of Foreign Languages, Vietnam
Vrije Universiteit Brussel, Brussel

Brent Philipsen
Vrije Universiteit Brussel, Belgium

Jaël Muls
Vrije Universiteit Brussel, Belgium

Renfeng Wang
Vrije Universiteit Brussel, Belgium
Xi'an International Studies University, China

Koen Lombaerts
Vrije Universiteit Brussel, Belgium

Abstract

The study examined university teachers who make choices to apply blended learning to language teaching. The samples were 15 teachers of English at the University of Foreign Languages, Hue University in Vietnam. The research instrument was interviews with semi-structured questions. Data were then analysed using inductive approach, as explained by Thomas (2006), with raw data being condensed and coded into categories. The results revealed that two of the main findings regarding the motivation for university language teachers to apply blended learning in their classes were the need to increase professional development and to keep teachers updated with new technology; whereas class size, students' self-awareness, and students' low economic background were found to be the main barriers preventing teachers from applying blended learning approach. Besides, findings also support the existing body of knowledge regarding the reasons why and why not teachers apply blended learning in their teaching practice.

Keywords: barriers, blended learning, language teaching, motivation

Problem statement

Recent technological advances in connection with developments in teaching and learning methodologies are assumed to bring new opportunities for more effective learning (Hubackova, 2015; López-Pérez, Pérez-López & Rodríguez-

Ariza, 2011; Mendieta Aguilar, 2012). Particularly, these developments have led to more consistent learning environments using blended learning as a starting point (Hubackova, 2015; King & Arnold, 2012). Research has shown that the significant increase in popularity of blended learning has been shown to promote effective learning (Al-Huneidi & Schreurs, 2013; Graham, Woodfield, & Harrison, 2013; Ocak, 2011)

When implemented in language classes, however, in addition to its positive benefits that motivate teachers and students, studies also indicated several problems that occurred when applying blended learning approaches that resulted in teachers choosing not to "teach" blended courses (Ocak, 2011). The present study, therefore, focused on examining the motivation as well as the barriers teachers experience when applying a blended learning approach to their classes.

Literature review

Although blended learning has become popular in education, its definition is still ambiguous (Graham, 2006; Ocak, 2011). According to Rossett and Frazee (2006, p. 2): "Blended learning (BL) integrates seemingly opposite approaches, such as formal and informal learning, face-to-face and online experiences, directed paths and reliance on self-direction, and digital references and collegial connections, in order to achieve individual and organizational goals".

This broad definition is often used to describe corporate settings (Rossett & Frazee, 2006). In the field of education, however, blended learning is often described as a combination of the physical environment with the virtual one (Al-Huneidi & Schreurs, 2013). The most typical features of blended learning are the combination of the following: (1) instructional modalities (or delivery media); (2) instructional methods; and (3) online and face-to-face instruction. Among these features, online and face-to-face instruction most accurately reflects the current state of blended learning (Bonk & Graham, 2006). It also encompasses the first and second feature because it combines two separate historical models of teaching and learning: traditional face-to-face learning system and the distributed learning system, while also emphasizing the role of computer-based technology in blended learning (Garrison & Kanuka, 2004; Graham, 2006).

Many educators believe that blended learning can give learners and teachers opportunities for more effective learning and teaching (Graham, Woodfield, & Harrison, 2013; Heinze & Procter, 2004; Ocak, 2011; Šafranj, 2013). More specifically, Graham (2006) categorizes the pros of blended learning into three groups: 1) pedagogic richness, 2) flexibility, and 3) increased cost-effectiveness. First, pedagogic richness refers to the role of blended learning in increasing interactive, peer-assisted and student-centered strategies that teachers can use in their class to develop knowledge sharing and collaboration among students. The virtual learning environment can help

teachers to overcome difficulties faced during their lectures, such as limited lecture time, a large student groups and passive attitudes in the face-to-face learning environment (Tuncay & Uzunboylu, 2012). Second, flexibility refers to the combination between e-learning and traditional face-to-face instruction to create the balance between flexibility and students' interaction experience. In blended learning, students can explore and learn about the asynchronous content at their own pace and time (Kasraie & Alahmed, 2014). Third, the combination of blended learning and traditional face-to-face learning has potential to make it more cost effective in terms of infrastructures as well as maintenance of classroom buildings (Maulan & Ibrahim, 2012). Besides, blended learning is believed to be able to bring teacher closer to their students and develop the interaction between them (Jusoff & Khodabandelou, 2009). It can create both a community of inquiry and a platform of free and interactive dialogue, which helps to encourage the exchange of information, especially for introverted students (Okaz, 2015). More importantly, Heinze and Procter (2004) argue that blended learning is a valuable tool to support student differentiation since there is a wide range of features that can serve various types of learners.

Ertmer et al. (2012) describe two types of barriers impacting the use of technology by teachers in their classroom. The first type is the external barrier including inadequate resources, lack of training and support. Teachers continue to report that they do not have enough time, resources, and training to use technology for classroom instruction. They often see technology as a burden because it interrupts instruction, takes time to plan online activities; and it requires additional training because they are not technology experts (Hubackova, 2015; King & Arnold, 2012; Kopcha, 2012; Watson & McIntyre, 2012). There is a growing concern that blended learning may cause teachers to spend more time on learning a new technology than to improve the student motivation and learning (Klein, Spector, Grabowski, & Teja, 2004). The second type discussed by Ertmer et al. (2012) is the internal barrier such as teachers' confidence, beliefs about teaching and learning, or the recognition of technological value in teaching and learning activities. As a result, giving access to online facilities does not always work in helping teachers and students use them effectively (Mendieta Aguilar, 2012). Additionally, when changing to a new method involving the combination of new technologies to the traditional familiar face-to-face instruction, the role of the teacher changes (Mendieta Aguilar, 2012; Ocak, 2011). Technology integrating into the classroom also requires teachers to believe in its professional and pedagogical value (Van Praag & Sanchez, 2015). However, it is clear that there is a gap between the amount of technology available in today's classrooms and teachers' use of that technology for instructional purposes (Kopcha, 2012). Therefore, many teachers are still not enthusiastic and unwilling to take a risk outside their comfort zone, which consequently can lead to the lower success of blended learning (Okaz, 2015).

Purpose of the study

The present study was carried out to examine the specific reasons for why university teachers apply blended learning in their language classes. It is imperative to know teachers' motivation as well as the barriers they experience in teaching blended courses since these can direct teachers or program designers to reflect on or take into consideration these elements when developing new or optimize existing blended learning courses.

Methodology

Participants were recruited from the Department of English, University of Foreign Languages, Hue University in Vietnam, where blended learning has been introduced through workshops and seminars for a few years. To carry out the examination, 15 out of 50 teachers of the Department were selected for an in-depth interview. Each of the teachers has at least three or more years of English teaching experience. Also, to have an unbiased view on the reasons for using or not using blended learning, teachers were chosen randomly without knowing in advance if they apply the approach or not. Details about participants' demographic information, their experience with blended learning approach and their time teaching English are summarized in Table 1.

Table 1
An overview of interviewees

Teacher (T)	Age	Gender	Apply BL or not	Teaching experience
T1	27	Female	Yes	5 years
T2	28	Female	Yes	6 years
T3	26	Female	Yes	3 years
T4	45	Female	Yes	20 years
T5	49	Female	Yes	24 years
T6	33	Female	Yes	7 years
T7	56	Male	Yes	33 years
T8	55	Female	Yes	32 years
T9	53	Female	No	30 years
T10	29	Female	No	7 years
T11	29	Female	Yes	6 years
T12	29	Female	Yes	6 years
T13	26	Female	Yes	4 years
T14	28	Female	Yes	6 years
T15	30	Female	Yes	7 years

To examine the teachers' perspective, a semi-structured interview with pre-set 15 questions was used. The interview scheme was constructed based on the discussions in the literature review that were related to the topic of motivation and barriers for applying blended learning. The questions were open-ended so that interviews could be more flexible to explore teachers' reflections and their perceptions about their motivations as well as barriers to the application of blended learning in their teaching processes. To heighten the validity of the data, questions were derived from previous research on this topic; and two teachers (different from 15 selected) were interviewed in the pilot study before the actual interviews to check if the participants could appropriately answer the questions.

In December 2016, emails with the topic and purpose of the research were sent to teachers to ask for their acceptance to an interview. Two pilot interviews were then carried out to check the validity of the questions. Most of the interviews then took place in February 2017, in Vietnam; and four of which were done online in March because those teachers could not arrange time for a meeting in the period when the researcher went to Vietnam to collect data. The interviews started with the interviewees signing the consent form which stated the introduction, the purpose, and the rules of the session. Finally, the different topical questions related to the research questions were posed. All of the interviews were audio recorded and transcribed verbatim. The length of each interview was a maximum of one hour.

Regarding data analysis, a general inductive approach for the analysis of qualitative data as described by Thomas (2006) was applied. Accordingly, extensive and varied raw text data from the interviews were condensed, summarized, and coded based on the ideas from interview questions. The codes then were sorted and put in themes and categories that were linked to the research objectives. In order to do this, once the interviews were transcribed verbatim, the researcher read each transcript and made notes of words, theories or short phrases that sum up what was being said. In the second stage, the researcher collected all of the words and phrases from all of the interviews and all duplications were crossed out. After this, a shorter list of categories was compiled, further refined and grouped into a list of more general categories that showed the motivation as well as barriers for the implementation of blended learning in language teaching.

Results

The similarly coded data were identified and then linked together to form sub-themes and themes regarding the motivation and barriers for teachers to apply blended learning. The results are demonstrated as follows:

First of all, a brief overview of the use of blended learning among the interviewees is displayed in Table 1. Accordingly, only two out of 15 teachers do not use blended learning, though they clearly know the approach. However,

among those applying blended learning in their teaching, four out of 13 teacjers think that their online activities are not real blended learning examples since they think they do not really spend much time interacting with students online.

Regarding the motivation for teachers to use blended learning, data analysis revealed 17 reasons.

Positive change in students' learning habit and attitude

All of the teachers including those two who did not use the approach assured that students in blended learning courses were "more active in learning, be more dynamic, take more responsibilities in their learning" (T2). Also, two teachers mentioned that blended learning was good for less active students because, via online platform, they feel more confident or safer to ask questions and discuss a problem without facing the teacher: "when I post something online, and they, if they don't understand they will say, Ms. Trang I don't know how to do this, I don't know how to do that, or sometimes, they just send me private message" (T3).

More opportunities to enhance students' learning

Four of the teachers claimed the increasing in learning time for their students beside merely two periods each week for classroom meeting. As T15 explained:

> Normally we only have 2 periods for one class a week, a 2 periods with 50 students inside the classroom is not much. So with the online activities and online platform, I have more opportunities to understand the students' level and students have more opportunities to be understood by the teacher.

Then, by participating in online activities, students were required to give feedback to their peers, receive feedback, or to keep journal and write reflection on their learning; this in turn helped them make progress in their learning (T1, T2, T4, T7, T8, T12, & T15).

More flexibility for students

As explained by some teachers, "students are more flexible with blended learning because they can decide when and where to do their study" (T9); "Students have more options to choose which one is the most suitable or the best learning strategies" (T13). Also, "it's up to the students to decide how much time" to take part in online learning (T7); and they could learn "at their own pace" because the time was "more flexible with blended learning" (T9).

Good channel to increase interaction

Eight out of 15 teachers claimed the convenience of online interaction. As said by T2, "blended learning is good for interaction". Because in face-to-face class, the time for discussion was fixed and limited to only two periods, there was not enough time for further discussion after the lessons (T1, T2, T7, & T15). Being more detailed, T4 said:

> Sometimes I cannot interact directly with each student in our class, but with blended learning, it means that they can send me individual their comment or their feedback and I can give them the explanation, my feedback to students, each student, so individually, it's very useful.

Closer teacher-students relationship

Nine out of 15 teachers mentioned that "using blended learning is a way to build the relationship between teacher and students" (T15). Thanks to online channels for interaction, "the relationship between the teacher and the students is enhanced in blended learning" (T13). Instead of being a lecturer, teachers became "a friend or, or a participant in the classroom only, not as a teacher", or "a coordinator" "a facilitator" for online activities (T2, T7, T6, & T9).

Great source of materials

Six teachers admitted the benefit of blended learning regarding the source of materials. Online materials were said to be more "resourceful" according to T14:

> One student contributes one source of material, another student contributes to another source of material and so they have like a library of tests and like materials for their practice… for me I also accumulate the sources of materials, portfolio and text.

Importantly, blended learning was believed to be bring more "authentic material" and useful for students because "some textbooks we use at school is somehow outdated, you know, the world is changing every single moment, and when students they study online and they read newspaper online, they get updated with the information" (T3).

More helpful for teaching activities

Blended learning was reported to assist teachers very much in their teaching. T2, who has used blended learning for a long time, confirmed that blended learning has helped her to make "classroom management" easier and "do a better job of assessing my students' needs and level"; since:

I can just look at the grades and I could just see who has done their homework, who's not, just overall I sometimes just go through the grades of each student and see if it's too high or too low and see like what's the range so I can kind of the idea of where the students are.

Four teachers said it was easier for them to keep track of students online, and to manage their participating: "more or less I can control whether my students learn or not by looking at the updated time" (T3). Remarkably, in blended learning, one of them confirmed that teachers "may take advantages of other forms of assessment, not only summative like wait for the final examination but also formative, they can assess on the whole process of learning of the students" (T13).

Source for professional development

Four of the teachers who used blended learning shared that "when you are using blended learning, you are learning too" (T3). As T4 clarified, while searching for online materials for the students, "I read a lot, and I access to get more information on internet… I feel very interesting because I learn a lot of new things myself". Besides, T7 revealed that "we can learn from the students, a lot", because for students' work, "some presentation are very good, you don't need to, to do anything more, and you can use that presentation for your lecture, for the, for the other class".

Cost saving

One out of 13 teachers applying the approach and one out of the two who did not apply mentioned the cost saving as a benefit of blended learning. As for their explanation, when using online materials, teachers "don't have to collect the material, I mean hard copy, because they are on the web" (T9); or "another important thing is that actually students will save money in receiving photocopying, receive materials in paper (T3)".

Keep updated with latest teaching approach

As mentioned by three teachers, one of the reasons motivating them to use blended learning was that it helped them keep up with the innovation in teaching methodology. T14 said:

I think the benefit is that I am keeping up with the trends in ELT method, because like using blended learning is an innovation in current teaching in the world and if I am so technology ahh... lag back… I will be out of date.

One even said she felt "more professional" to use technology in her teaching practice and "it is more suitable for our life today" (T12).Apart from the motivation, the following themes also emerged from the data analysis as the barriers that prevent teachers from using the blended learning approach in their teaching practice.

Technology issues

The interviews revealed three aspects to technology issues, namely, limited knowledge and skills of using technology, technical problems, and fast changing technology.

Many teachers, especially the ones with over 10 years of teaching experience, admitted that they were not good at technology and using technology. This makes it more difficult for teachers to organize and manage the online learning part, as explained by T11: "because I'm not good at using technology as well, so it's quite, you know it's quite hard for me to control all my students". Seriously, not only the teacher but also, as mentioned by T2, "some students are very very poor in technology", especially those who were "from rural area" so "I have to create every single account for students" when organizing a new online platform

Most teachers revealed that technical problems happened quite often: "While I'm preparing, sometimes I'm going to finish and just a click, everything disappear, I feel like crazy… and another point, we have to download or install some of the software and the computer works like very slowly" (T5). Another one said "my computer was with full of virus because I downloaded some kinds of software to create the slideshows and post that online for my classes" (T15). These technical problems were really a big challenge for the teachers. As teacher 13 stated "sometimes the technological difficulties may demotivate the teachers".

The fast changing technology was also a barrier to other teachers. Teachers found it troublesome when "technology changes very quickly"; and "I have to learn about the, I mean update the knowledge about the technology every week, every month…and I feel really tired" (T6). Moreover, some online platforms or software "update every 6 months" and, as T4 said, they had "to buy the new version".

Time consuming

The biggest barrier mentioned by all of the teachers, especially for one of the two who did not use this approach was that "it's much, much more time consuming" than the traditional face to face method, as T2 said: "it's very time consuming to get the website up and running… It's very time consuming to, like, do an online kind of homework... It's very time consuming to go over each student writing and write comment".

Large number of students

Four teachers mentioned the large number of students they were in charge per semester as one of the biggest barriers for their use of blended learning. As stated by T8, "the teachers try to use blended learning, but because of the number of students…large class size…most of classes are from 50 to 55 students…I think 30 students is ideal". T15 also added:

> If I can teach like 5 classes per week, then I can have 5 online platforms for those classes, but if I need to teach like 13 like during the last semester…I think it would be impossible for me to do blended teaching.

Lack of human interaction for language skills practice

Three out of the 13 teachers who applied blended learning said that in some situations, face to face learning was better, and they spent more time on face to face interaction because online interaction was not suitable for language skills practice. As T12 said, "face-to-face activities have the emotional interaction"; and she "can see the motivation from students". T15 also explained:

> We can understand students more, we can know their difficulty, especially practical skills… for face to face…they can improve their communication skills… they can learn how to read the behavior or the expression from the other, so this is more human and this is more interesting.

Lack of support from the institution

The teachers in the study indicated that lack of support from the institution was in five forms: Lack of policy and guideline; lack of facilities; lack of technical support; lack of training; lack of financial support; and lack of collaboration.

Lack of policy and guideline pertaining to blended learning became evident from the interviews with the teachers. Eight out of 15 teachers mentioned there was only the oral encouragement from the president of the university and dean of the faculty to use blended learning to "enhance…teaching and learning", but it was "not formal encouragement". As emphasized by T12: "they encourage us to do but they don't have any specific guideline". T2 also confirmed that she did research on this issue at the university and the results showed "there are no clear policies and guideline".

Four teachers mentioned they were not satisfied with the facilities provided at the university. As summarized by T2, the facilities provided at the university was "nothing close to what I want"; although "every room has computers which they got, have internet nowadays, sometimes it doesn't run

but… more often than not, it works". T1 also said "especially with the lack of facilities, sometimes students said they cannot access the course because the internet connection is so weak, or they didn't have, they don't have any devices".

The teachers also experienced lack of technical support for problems related to blended learning. Most of the teachers said they had little support to solve the technical problems. As T1 said, "most of the time I try to solve out everything myself". T12 emphasized, when she needed help from the technician, they would not be there immediately: "sometimes I have a technical problem but 1 week, two weeks, they solve the problem; that is too late". Most importantly, regarding the quality of technician staff at the university, according to T2, there are not "any sort of person that they can come with expertise in technology, but at least understand … simple ideas about teaching and language teaching".

The teachers also reported that they lacked training to apply blended learning. Nine teachers reported training workshop or seminar for teachers' professional development regarding the applying of blended learning was not very often. "There has been nothing so far… I remember once, 3 or 4 years ago, there was a workshop to train how to use Moodle… and since that workshop was held, nothing more" (T1); "I don't know if I miss it or not, but I haven't attended any workshop on blended learning" (T9).

The lack of funding was mentioned by seven teachers to be great barrier for them to use blended learning, because "you can't do so much with so little money" (T2). Four of them said they needed the money to buy the "license" and get access to some online sources that required payment: "we have to pay money and the school sometimes they do not give us enough right to access some websites that I think it's good for my teaching activities" (T6).

There was also lack of collaboration among teachers, making it challenging to manage students' learning activities in the blended mode. Twelve out of 13 teachers who applied this approach confirmed that there was little cooperation. It just happened in small groups "of colleagues that you are kind of close to"; and it was "just kind of informal" meetings at coffee shops (T3).

More challenging to manage students' learning activities

While some teachers said that blended learning could help them to manage their students' learning better, one of the two teachers who did not use blended learning believed that one of the barriers was their inability to control how students performed online tasks. T9 said "we can't control the time they work online". T4 clarified that students can be distracted with other online activities, "for example they play game, or they chat with their friends, or they use Facebook … or personal work".

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Two other teachers reported the dishonest action of students when they did the tasks online. T15 further explained: "I need to trust the students but the reality has showed me a number of cases where the students do something for their friends".

Low economic background of students

Four teachers mentioned the low economic background of the students as a barrier for blended learning to be applied successfully. As mentioned by T6, "some of the students in our school, they do not have the condition... to follow all of our online activities, so traditional method should be good for them". T2 even emphasized this as the very big challenge to implement blended learning, since "most of the students in our university are from poor area, who don't have access to computer or never seen it, so it's really hard to chase foreign standard, international standard".

Discussion

Motivation for university language teachers to apply blended learning

The results of our study regarding the motivation indicate that blended learning has a high potential to create the favorable environment to improve effective teaching and learning, as discussed in Graham, Woodfield, and Harrison (2013); Heinze and Procter (2004); Ocak (2011), and Šafranj (2013). Evidently, there is a positive change in students' learning habits and attitudes; they become more active, dynamic and independent, as well as more autonomous and responsible for their own learning. Also, blended learning, with the online component, does provide students more time to learn beyond class activities. Teachers can also give more tasks to their students to increase their learning time than in traditional face-to-face methods. Moreover, online materials for teaching and learning are also more diverse and authentic, which means they bring many choices for the learners as well as teachers. Importantly, the factor emphasized the most is the convenience of online interaction. Online channels are said to be much easier and help to bring teacher and students closer to each other, and develop the interaction between them (Jusoff & Khodabandelou, 2009). Via these online channels, teacher and all students are brought together; and this consequently helps to increase the opportunities for students to learn, not only from the teacher, but also from their peers. Connection with others will also create the sense of community, which is claimed to be able to contribute to the development of students' levels of thinking (Garrison & Kanuka, 2004). Besides, effective teaching is explained when blended learning can help teachers to organize and manage the classes better, because it cannot happen in a poorly managed class (Marzano, Marzano, & Pickering, 2003). Teachers can also keep track of and see the progress their students make during the semester via online

assessment, which happens continuously for the whole learning process. Also, the findings show that the pedagogy of the teachers who apply blended learning becomes more diverse. It goes from classroom lectures by the teacher to more group-oriented work for students via presentation or online discussion, to peer-assisted learning via peer evaluation and feedback, and finally self-regulated learning for the students via different online activities outside class. This is in line with Graham (2006) who addressed the pedagogy richness as a benefit of blended learning.

Second, Graham (2006) also mentions two other factors that motivate teachers to use blended learning, namely, flexibility and cost-saving. These factors are also confirmed to be true based on the data of our study. Flexibility is shown via the fact that the learning time becomes more flexible, and students can learn at their own pace. Besides, students can also have different learning strategies for themselves with online activities. This can also be referred to the argument made by Heinze and Procter (2004) who suggest that blended learning supports students' differentiation and serves different types of learners. Remarkably, blended learning is also shown by the data to be cost-effective, but unlike in Maulan and Ibrahim (2012), who refer to infrastructures as well as the maintenance of classroom buildings, the teachers in this study explain it by stating that it is money-saving not to buy hard copy materials.

Our findings also provide that the most interesting results, however, fall into two other categories that have not been discussed in the literature. The first one is that the online component of blended learning approaches is seen by teachers as a good source for their professional development. Actually, blended learning is argued by Owston, Sinclair, and Wideman (2008) to have potential as a means for professional development in the field of Mathematics and Sciences, but not yet in any study on language teaching. According to the evidence from this research, teachers can develop themselves professionally by preparing for online activities, since they are required to do much more research or reading on a topic to select the most suitable materials, which, in turn, helps them to widen their knowledge. Also, the sharing of materials, students' work or experience via online platforms also helps teachers to learn from their students in the sense that there can be good sources of materials, new experience or ideas among many students that teacher can use for their future lectures. The other new factor emerging is that language teachers are also motivated to use blended learning because they feel the need to keep them updated with innovative teaching approaches, or keep them updated with the fast changes in the era of technology. Especially in a developing country like Vietnam, where technology integration in education happens more slowly than in developed countries, some teachers see the need to normalize the use of technology as a tool, not as the center of attention, but as a means to support teaching and learning.

Barriers for university language teachers to applying blended learning approach

The barriers when moving to a newer teaching approach are probably inevitable, and they can even outweigh the motivation. Basically, the results of this study reveal both external barriers and internal barriers as mentioned by Ertmer et al. (2012). However, the more considerable ones seem to fall into the former.

First of all, regarding the external barriers, the two primary factors that prevent the use of blended learning are time and technology. Since in most cases, language teachers are not expert in information and communication technology (ICT) (Hubackova, 2015), ICT literacy becomes one of the weaknesses for many of them, especially for the older generation who were born before technology was brought into education. Limited knowledge and skills about technology also lead to the fact that teachers find it much more complicated to solve technical problems, while the fast development in this field also requires them to continue learning and stay updated. Moreover, there is the concern that teachers may spend more time on learning a new technology than on improving student learning experience (Klein, Spector, Grabowski, & Teja, 2004). This is evident by the results indicating that teachers need a lot of time to learn to use the technology, and to learn how to solve technical problems themselves. Another big obstacle, therefore, is that teaching online can be time-consuming. In addition to the time needed to learn about new technology, teachers also need much more time for other work such as preparing for both types of activities, setting up and running an online platform, researching to select the most suitable materials for their students, and giving continuous feedback on students' work, particularly when the teachers have to deal with so many students. Significantly, while blended learning is believed to have the ability to meet the needs of a greater number of students (Garrison & Kanuka, 2004; King & Arnold, 2012), the findings from this study are the opposite. Specifically, a large number of students here means more challenges for teachers, and becomes a great barrier for the use of blended learning approach. Especially at the selected university, where teachers still have many classes in a semester, and each class has from 40 to 60 students; it definitely takes them a lot of time to answer students' questions, to take part in online discussion with different groups, and to give feedback to the work of hundreds, or even thousands of students. In brief, since it is so time-consuming, blended learning is limited to the full use, or even denied by the teachers.

Another important external barrier is that while institutional support are important for the implementation of blended learning (Ocak, 2011), the results shows a shortage of support from the university in terms of facilities, policy, training sessions, financial and technical support. Although there are necessary facilities such as internet, computer, CD player, projector, and speakers provided, as reflected by many teachers, they are not always helpful.

Remarkably, there are no policies and clear guidelines about using blended learning at the institutional level. It is significant to have a formal approach to the development of policies to support blended learning (Garrison & Kanuka, 2004). However, for teachers at the university in this study, it is all about personal choice. No official policy leads to the lack of training sessions since there will be no funding for it. Evidently, teachers either look for free platforms or pay money by themselves to gain access to online sources. Some teachers even pay money to take online course for their professional development regarding blended learning. Besides, technical problems happen very often but the technician team is not helpful because they are not well-trained; and they are not experts in teaching methodology.

Also, although blended learning is argued to help provide better and easier communication (Jusoff & Khodabandelou, 2009; Okaz, 2015), the results show that it is different in language teaching and learning. As responded by the teachers, since language learning needs a lot of practice, it is better for their students to have face-to-face direct interaction. Noticeably, there are two aspects arising from the results which have not been discussed in the literature and can be listed as external barriers. First, it is the low economic background of the students, particularly since Vietnam is still a developing country and many students come from regions where devices for online learning are not available. This, in turn, means students from these regions are not often equipped with knowledge of how to use technology. Second, some students are not well-disciplined or independent. Although it is a small number, there are still students who do not efficiently complete online assignments.

Regarding the internal barriers, such as teachers' confidence or belief about teaching and learning (Ertmer et al., 2012), the data also indicates a slight difference because this is just a minor reason and happens in a small number of teachers. It is also the minority who thinks that technology should only be an additional source and cannot replace the teacher. In short, it is mainly about the external barriers as discussed above that slow them down or demotivate them. Finally, Ocak (2011) and Yang (2014) both mentioned the changing role as a barrier for the teacher to move to blended learning, but the results of this study showed that it is not. Teachers are willing to accept the change from being a lecturer to being a facilitator, a friend of the students. They now accept to be told by students to adjust their method if it is not suitable; and they are even happy to see their learners becoming more centered and active in their learning process.

Conclusion

The primary purpose of this study was to examine the motivation as well as the barriers for university language teachers to apply blended learning in their teaching practices. By using a qualitative approach, a case study was done at the University of Foreign Languages, Hue University in Vietnam. Data

analysis from the 15 semi-structured interviews has shown some remarkable results. Beside the factors that were confirmed in previous research as mentioned in the literature, this study also brings some additional ideas concerning the motivation and barriers for language teachers in applying the innovative approach of blended learning. First, it is confirmed that blended learning can help enhance effective learning and teaching practices by increasing the learning time for students, making them more active in their learning, offering more chances to increase interaction between teacher and students, offering more diverse and authentic sources of materials, and developing the formative assessment for students' progress. Along with the existing motivation, two additional elements found in this research are the chance for teachers to develop themselves professionally via online sources; and the need of teachers to keep updated with the development of technology. In terms of the barriers, this research shows blended learning is still a big challenge for teachers to use it fully. External factors such as technological issues, time consuming, institutional support, and environment for effective communication have been confirmed. Likewise, the large number of students, their self-awareness and low economic background are three additional barriers emerged from the findings to be the challenges for teachers.

There are some limitations of the study. Firstly, since the sample of the research is quite small (n =15) and the scope is only in one institution, it is unavoidable that the results may not be generalized to the wider population. Secondly, though the invitation was sent to more male participants, only one of them participated in the research. The author supposed there could be different motivation and barriers for different gender; but since the number is too small, it could not be discussed. This could be seen as an aspect that may be further explored in future research. Third, this study employed only one method of in-depth interview. To improve the validity of the findings, future studies can use the triangulation method, and combine interview data with other data types such as class observation, focus group and survey.

Despite the limitation, there are several pedagogical implications from the findings of this research. First, it is important to create more favorable conditions for the use of blended learning, i.e., to deal with the external barriers if we want blended learning to be better implemented. There must be a clear policy and guidelines from the policy maker at the institutional level so that blended learning can be applied more consistently. The facilities should be reinforced, the number of students in each class and the number of class for a teacher in each semester should be reduced, more training should be provided for both technicians and teachers, and more collaboration should be encouraged among the teachers. If these issues can be addressed, it is potential that blended learning can have bigger chances to develop. Second, it is actually not simple to make blended learning comprehensively applied in less developed countries; since it is difficult for them to meet the requirements that have just been raised in the first point. Therefore, although it can be positive, it may take much more time and effort to bring blended learning to a stage of

being more popular and perfectly adapted.

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Note on Contributors

Thi Nhi Nguyen is currently working at the University of Foreign Languages, Hue University, Vietnam. She was a Master student of Educational Sciences at the Vrije Universiteit Brussel, academic year 2015-2017. She graduated and got her B.A degree in English Language Teaching in 2010 at University College of Foreign Languages, Hue University. Email: nhi208@gmail.com

Brent Philipsen recently finished his Ph.D. in the Educational Sciences at the Vrije Universiteit Brussel. In his research he mainly focused on teacher professional development for online and blended learning. Email: Brent.Philipsen@vub.be

Jaël Muls is a PhD student at the Department of Educational Sciences, Vrije Universiteit Brussel. Her research draws attention to the relationship between social media and education. More specifically, the PhD-study explores the intersections between school related and personal social media use in secondary schools. Email: jael.muls@vub.be

Renfeng Wang is currently a post-doctoral fellow at the School of English Education of Xi'an International Studies University (China) and the Department of Educational Sciences of Vrije Universiteit Brussel (Belgium). He focuses on the obstacles that impede older adults from getting involved in educational activities from the perspective of different cultural contexts. Email: Renfeng.Wang@vub.be

Koen Lombaerts is chairman of the Department of Educational Sciences at the Vrije Universiteit Brussel. The work of Prof. Dr. Koen Lombaerts deals with the development and implementation of innovative learning environments within formal and informal educational settings. A central focus in his research is clarifying learner needs when designing learning and e- learning environments, taking into account the impact of self-regulatory skills of students and teachers. Email: koen.lombaerts@vub.be

An Analysis of Instructors' Perspectives to First Language (L1) use in Monolingual Japanese University Contexts

Jagon P. Chichon
Anglia Ruskin University

Abstract

A multi-method approach was used to understand the attitudes of English Language Teachers working in universities in Japan to first language use (L1) in the second language (L2) classroom. Findings indicate that instructors recognise the benefits of the L1 and have awareness of current empirical findings, though, their approach is highly dependent on contextual factors such as the maturity and motivation of learners, learner proficiency and the complexity of content. Prior teaching experience in the Japanese public school system also had a significant effect on their present state suggesting teachers' attitudes are in part driven by the realities of their present and past contexts. The study concludes by suggesting strategies for utilising the L1 in a more systematic manner to maintain engagement levels and scaffold content.

Keywords: L1 use, context driven, Japan, University

Introduction

According to some, acquisition of another language ought to be "based on the use of language in communicative situations without recourse to the native language" (Krashen & Terrell, 1983, p. 9). While few would refute the argument that it is vital to receive ample exposure to the second language (L2), in certain situations judicious first language (L1) use could play a more pivotal role in aiding learners' comprehension of and development in the target language (TL). Foreign language (FL) contexts are typically monolingual; so when faced with communication breakdowns or issues with comprehension the L1 is the learners' natural remedy and may prove a useful resource for the instructor to provide clarification as appropriate and maintain attention (Cook, 2001).

An assertion which has gained momentum in recent years and is reflected by the positive attitudes of teachers to the L1 (Copland & Neokleous, 2010; McMillan & Rivers, 2011; Yavuz, 2012) with the argument that prudent use can assist in the teaching and learning process (Tang, 2002). In particular, Vygotsky's (1980) sociocultural approach has been referred to in support of judicious L1 use as it may enable students to mediate "their understanding of task and content, which supports their co-construction of the TL" (Swain & Lapkin, 2013, p. 110). This is a claim supported by Bhooth, Azman, and

Ismail (2014) who found that the L1 serves as a scaffolding mechanism, a method to build on existing knowledge, which encourages learners to work collaboratively to facilitate learning. Consequently, the L1 might enable teachers and learners to clarify troublesome language features or concepts which would otherwise be beyond a learner's comprehension (Swain & Lapkin, 2002).

The Japanese context

Despite this apparent shift, it is unclear to what extent it has filtered into practice, particularly in Japan where perceptions of the L1 may be heavily influenced by a recent push to improve English proficiency and become more globalised. In a 2013 article in the Japan Times, it was reported that the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT), the department responsible for education in Japan, were pushing for language classes to principally be conducted in English, intimating a diminished role for the L1. Furthermore, Japanese learners receive six years of English instruction, typically by a bilingual teacher, though, the focus is generally on passing university entrance exams not communicative use (Butler & Iino, 2005; Gorsuch, 2001; Kikuchi & Browne, 2009), hence, at university level there could be a greater desire to unlock this passive knowledge through extensive TL input and use without reference to the L1 (Ford, 2009).

Research Questions

Building on empirical data taken from university contexts in Japan (Ford, 2009; McMillan & Rivers, 2011) this study aims to understand teachers' views to L1 use and establish whether context influences attitudes. The following research questions have been posed to address these objectives:

1) What is the attitude of instructors to learners' first language use in the second language classroom?
2) How do instructors perceive teachers' first language use in the second language classroom?
3) What factors influence decisions to use the first language?

In spite of a call for a more pragmatic approach to L1 use plentiful exposure to the TL is considered paramount in the learning process (Crawford, 2004). Thus, it is hoped this study will provide practical input from instructors on strategies for utilising the L1 sensibly alongside the TL and aid teaching pedagogy by offering guidance for professionals in other FL contexts.

Literature Review

Many studies have examined L1 use in the L2 classroom, though few have drawn comparisons between teachers' attitudes across different contexts which is a particularly pertinent research area, and a key motivator in the present study, as other literature has attributed context as a salient influence on L1 use. Moore's (2013) study investigated the influence of context on the quantity of L1 use during peer interactions preceding two oral presentation tasks in a Japanese university English as a foreign language (EFL) course and discovered that context had a significant bearing on students' L1 use. As well as influential factors such as learners' L2 proficiency, engagement with the task and/or interlocutor and the negotiation of task, it was found that dyads generally used less L1 over time possibly due to the shift away from procedural discussions associated with planning their presentations towards the actual production side itself. Contextual factors were also pertinent in Leeming's (2011) study of Japanese high school students' L1 use. Using observation and interviews it was found that learners' use tended to be positive but was dependent on learner proficiency and task. Though interestingly both of the aforementioned studies focused on the examination of L1 use within small groups and pair work situations which might be more controlled and reflect an entirely different dynamic to a larger classroom setting.

Considering L1 use within larger learner groups, Crawford (2004) analysed teachers' perspectives in mainstream education in Australia and found that educators relied significantly on the learners' L1, particularly with lower proficiency users. Based on survey data many participants claimed that the L1 was necessary as it aided the language learning process and provided a mechanism for making connections with the TL culture. However, teachers' experience within the TL culture and their proficiency in the TL had some bearing on attitudes which may suggest that some of these participants were unable to confidently use the TL themselves, thus remaining focused on L1 use. The influence of teachers' proficiency and experience may also become apparent in the present study as the sample consists of educators with differing levels of Japanese proficiency and length of stay in Japan.

Conversely, through an analysis of audio recorded interviews with 10 native English instructors teaching in Japanese universities, Ford (2009) discovered overwhelming support for an English only approach to instruction. In complete contrast to the Crawford study, reluctance to utilise the L1 was spawned from the belief that teachers' use may increase the frequency of learners' use, to the detriment of the TL. Furthermore, participants felt that in a FL context learners have fewer opportunities to receive comprehensible input so a L2 rich learning environment was considered desirable. However, despite an emphasis on maximising their own L2 use instructors appeared more accepting of learners' L1 use particularly when the topic, or language, was complex requiring clarification and discussion of the TL.

In a similar vein to Ford (2009), McMillan and Rivers (2011) analysed the views of 29 native English teachers to L1 use and its relevance to Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). Evidently, in spite of an English-only policy at the university, teachers generally had a positive attitude toward the L1 believing it may enhance learning. An abundance of reasons supporting its use were cited, such as to facilitate successful communication, aid understanding, build rapport and demonstrate appreciation of the learners' linguistic and cultural identity. On the whole, teachers had robust opinions with the suggestion that prohibiting the learners' L1 "goes against the grain of bilingual education and the promotion of multilingualism" (McMillan & Rivers, 2011, p. 255). Nevertheless, certain detractors argued that L1 use may restrict learners' ability to negotiate meaning, learners working collaboratively to consider and develop an understanding of the TL (Long, 2000), as they may go off-task which according to these participants was problematic. Similarly, more ardent supporters of the English only ideal proposed that banning the L1 altogether helps students to develop better communication skills in the TL.

Surprisingly, a correlation between attitudes in support of judicious L1 use and teachers' proficiency in Japanese was not supported by the data. In fact, some of the more proficient Japanese speakers had wholly negative views, whereas, teachers with very low Japanese ability expressed positivity indicating that personal language learning experiences influence teachers' decisions regarding L1 use to some extent.

Despite the contrasting views outlined in McMillan and Rivers (2011), the participants in De La Campa and Nassaji (2009) were entirely positive to L1 use. Collecting data over a 12 week semester using observations, interviews and stimulated recall sessions, it was found that the two participants consistently used the L1 in their teaching, including the delivery of instructions, as it was claimed that it facilitates the learning process. However, in their analysis of the quantity and use of the L1 by a group of French Immersion students, Swain and Lapkin (2000) found that students who used less L1 while planning to write a story in the L2 produced a higher quality piece of work leading to the conclusion that reliance on the TL may develop better communication skills, which was also a view expressed in McMillan and Rivers (2011).

In an attempt to understand whether teachers perceive the L1 in a similar light, Bruen and Kelly (2015) interviewed six university lecturers from a higher institution in Ireland and found significant support for the use of translation. While these participants put forth various benefits of the L1, such as learning vocabulary and checking comprehension, they argued that utilising translation outside of monolingual learner groups would not be appropriate so some teachers felt the context lent itself to this approach. The influence of context was further evident in that participants were teaching on degrees in Applied Language and Intercultural Studies or International Business where many of the students were training to become translators suggesting a strong

extrinsic motivation for study. Similarly, their learners were also intending to spend their third year in a country where the L2 was spoken so they had a genuine need to use the TL. Obviously, this is in stark contrast to compulsory L2 courses taking place in monolingual settings where learners have not chosen to study the TL and may not have a clear end goal connected to the L2.

As is evident from this review, literature around L1 use in the L2 classroom has produced contrasting findings which is largely the result of variants based on context in that teachers' and students' attitudes and L1 use reflects aspects of their learning environments. Hence the decision to conduct the present study, as it is expected that the participants' attitudes to the L1 will most likely depend on the challenges they face.

Methodology

The context

Nine instructors currently teaching in two universities in Tokyo, Japan, form the basis of the sample. For the purpose of anonymity each institution will be referred to as University One (U1) and University Two (U2) and participants as P1-P9 throughout. Both courses are compulsory. However, while the syllabus at U1 is discussion based and tailored towards the learners' faculty, the course at U2 is English for Specific Purposes (ESP) and uses a text designed for professional adults. Class sizes at U1 tend to consist of 10-15 learners and 25-30 learners at U2; and each class is 90 minutes in length (U1 once a week; U2 twice a week).

Significantly U1 is within the top three universities in Japan and has a reputation for a committed student body requiring strong grades to attend suggesting their proficiency in English is also high. In contrast, U2 requires less academic acumen, though, overseas study is mandatory in their second year, indicating that the students may have limited English proficiency but possibly a greater motivation to improve their English fluency.

Participants

The instructors are all native English speakers, qualified to either Trinity Diploma/Cambridge DELTA and/or Master's level with teaching experience ranging from 5-20 years (mean length 13.1 years) and length of time in Japan 3-20 years (mean length 10.7 years). Each instructor has a variable level of Japanese ability based on self-assessment using a five point scale (1=expert, 5 = novice).

Data collection

Data were collected using questionnaires and group interviews. The questionnaires consisted of 26 closed and open questions, and statements

using the Likert scale (e.g. strongly agree to strongly disagree). Following completion of anonymous questionnaires participants volunteered to take part in semi structured group interviews, involving a 60-minute discussion based around 10 questions; though, the format allowed for flexibility.

The questions for both data collection methods were generated following informal discussions with peers both face-to-face and via an online forum. Additionally, the questionnaire was piloted with a sample of teachers without involvement in the project.

Data analysis

The interview questions and questionnaire were divided into two sections: teachers' use and learners' use so responses were categorised under these two headings and further sub-divided into instructors' attitudes and factors influencing instructors' attitudes to the L1. Forum-based research conducted with a large pool of experienced teachers prior to developing the questionnaires, generated a variety of reasons for and against L1 use. These were cross referenced against other studies (e.g., Ford, 2009; McMillan & Rivers, 2011) to form possible categories which enabled the grouping of responses:

- Institutional policy
- Pedagogical beliefs
- Building/sustaining rapport
- Classroom management
- Learners' needs (e.g. learner proficiency, affective needs of learners)
- Context
- Personal language learning experience
- Complexity of content

Questionnaires were administered prior to interview and data were analysed to establish other probable categories and partially formed the questions for the group interviews. In addition, audio from the interviews was reviewed by myself and a colleague to consider whether any other categories had emerged.

Data from the questionnaires were quantified by determining the number of participants who: a) had a positive/negative stance to L1 use; b) and the factors influencing those attitudes. This was converted into a percentage to establish possible trends, correlations or contradictions. An analysis of the audio for the interviews was conducted to record any pertinent information, providing a qualitative analysis to expand on responses and elaborate on findings. The responses from the two collection methods (i.e. questionnaires and interviews) were later compared to check the credibility of data by identifying conflicting responses between the two.

Results

Based on questionnaires and interview data, instructors produced varied views (see Table 1) regarding L1 use. The data obtained from the questionnaires appear reflective of the interviews in that just under half of the participants (44%) exhibited a general negativity to the L1, 33% indicating positivity and 22% neutrality.

Table 1
Attitudes to teachers' L1 use

Factors	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Agree
Teachers should only use the TL		44% (4)	22% (2)	22% (2)	11% (1)
L1 Builds Rapport		44% (4)	33% (3)	22% (2)	
L1 use lazy		22% (2)	22% (2)	56% (5)	
L1 last resort	11% (1)	33% (3)	33% (3)	22% (2)	
Teachers' L1 use influences students		33% (3)	44% (4)	22% (2)	
Occasional L1 use saves time	33% (3)	67% (6)			
Useful for low levels	11% (1)	78% (7)			11% (1)

Note: "TL" refers to "Target language" and "L1" refers to "first language".

Attitudes to instructors' L1 use

Despite corroboration of the two data collection methods, a large percentage of the participants (78%) indicated varying degrees of L1 use, yet, during the interviews all of the participants acknowledged using it in their practice to different extents.

In spite of the high proportion of participants claiming to use the L1, there was a mixed response regarding "English only" with 44% agreeing and 33% disagreeing with this notion. During the interviews some of the instructors suggested that it may depend on the context or teacher with P8 stating that "teachers' L1 use reduces input but depending on the situation the benefits of using it might outweigh the negatives". This divergence of attitude was evident throughout the data with some (44%) questioning instructors' use as it "may indicate a skills deficit' (P4) and/or 'diminish an instructor's teaching ability" (P9). However, the remaining participants (56%) disagreed with the association between laziness and L1 use as at times it may be

unavoidable.

Nevertheless, the majority agreed in principal that classes ought to be conducted in the TL as it "provides learners with comprehensible input and maintains levels of interest in the class" (P5). Although at the same time, prudent L1 use was widely supported (56%) which was summed up by P1 who suggested that "teachers use the L2 99% of the time but reverting to the L1 occasionally is positive".

Factors influencing attitudes to instructors' L1 use

A range of factors (see Table 2) such as prior teaching experience, overuse of the L1 and the desire to provide comprehensible input and output seemed to influence the views of these instructors.

Prior teaching experience

Experience in the Japanese public school system appeared to significantly influence the stance of some instructors (44%) as it was claimed that translation is commonplace in Japan which has negatively transferred to learners' language use in English class at university. Therefore, it was argued that the teacher's role is to guide learners by illustrating that "using a second language is not a big deal" (P8) and reducing the role of the L1.

L1 as a crutch

Indeed, a significant amount of the sample (66%) felt that the overuse of translation, which Japanese learners have grown accustomed to, "gives learners a crutch so although they might be anxious we shouldn't indulge them and instead push them to man up" (P6).

Comprehensible input and output

Although these contextual factors were significant, 56% of participants contended that too much L1 use may also be a negative from a pedagogical standpoint with the argument that "you learn a language through usage and input in the L2 which is why the methodology of the CELTA is so sound" (P6). However, while all of these participants recognised the relationship between TL use and acquisition, some believed that instead of eradicating the L1 it could actually be used to aid learning and sustain communication, asserting that "the methodology of English only is sound but the reality is somewhat different" (P7)

Attitudes to learners' L1 use

As is apparent from Table 2 these participants appeared more accepting of

learners' L1 use as it was claimed that it aids their understanding of language and content (44%) enabling them to complete tasks more effectively. However, the general consensus indicated a preference for an English only classroom (56%) to maximise opportunities for input and output.

Table 2
Teachers' attitude to learners' L1 use

	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
English only policy essential For input & output	33% (3)	22% (2)	11% (1)	22% (2)	11% (1)
Translation helps with learning and retaining lexis		33% (3)	44% (4)	11% (1)	11% (1)
L1 to ask & provide clarity helps students to complete activities more effectively		44% (4)	33% (3)	22% (2)	
Teachers' job to teach English so learners should use English at all times	11% (1)	11% (1)	11% (1)	56% (5)	11% (1)
L1 use gives fuller understanding of English helping learners to improve		44% (4)	33% (3)	22% (2)	
L2 to discuss & consider meaning helps learners to process the TL more deeply	22% (2)	44% (4)	33% (3)		
L1 gives learners autonomy		33% (3)	33% (3)	22% (2)	11% (1)
Too much L1 demotivates some learners		44% (4)	33% (3)	22% (2)	

Note. 'L1' refers to 'the first language' and 'L2' 'the second language'

Indeed, navigating linguistic gaps without reference to the L1 was supported by 66% of participants during the interviews who argued that "it's unlikely in the real world that they'll have the chance to check meaning in their L1" (P9). Interestingly, 66% disagreed with the idea that English ought to be used by students all of the time suggesting that, in fact, the L1 can make input and output more comprehensible (66%). However, although the sample appeared generally divisive over L1 use, an overwhelming majority (89%) claimed that its overuse may in fact impact on learner motivation which ought to be a consideration.

Factors influencing attitudes to learners' L1 use

As is evident from the previous section participants produced a mixed response to L1 use which appears to be the result of factors attached to their contexts.

L1 as a crutch

Pointedly, almost all of the sample agreed (89%) that Japanese learners are too reliant on their L1 so its role ought to be reduced to show "learners that using another language is nothing to fear" (P6).

Motivation & maturity of learners

Overreliance on their L1 was claimed by these participants (56%) to be compounded by the fact that some learners are unable to manage their own L1 use resulting in frequent off-task discussions. This was emphasised by P5 who stated that "if you have motivated learners who are doing their best to communicate in English and occasionally revert to the L1 that's fine" but "less motivated classes will just use Japanese to discuss something off task".

Learner proficiency

Despite the perceived inability of learners to manage their own L1 use, over half of these participants (56%) claimed that learner proficiency was an important consideration, arguing that the L1 helps them "to recognise the gap between what they know and what they want to say' as they are 'still more reliant on concepts translated in their L1" (P9). Although, almost all (89%) emphasised the need to consider every learner as more advanced users have "a better conceptual understanding of English" (P6) and a wider linguistic repertoire.

Comprehensible input & output

However, although some (44%) felt that the influence of prior learning in Japanese schools, where "students rarely produce the TL' and 'L2 input is often preceded by translation" (P6), may prevent input and output, 66% contended that the L1 actually aids acquisition.

Prior teaching experience

In fact, prior teaching experience was frequently referenced by those at U2, suggesting that it has a considerable impact on their approach to L1 use. During the interviews numerous responses were attached to their experience in Japanese public schools with claims that prior learning of English is "*irrelevant because they haven't had to use the language in JHS/HS*" (P5/P6) and "by the time they reach us they're not familiar with a communicative classroom where they have to produce the TL" (P6). Indeed, instructors were also critical of the methodology associated with the approach in Japan to English study suggesting that "the Grammar translation method is prevalent" so the L1 is often overused (P6), thus, aspects of prior teaching have significantly impacted on their attitudes.

Discussion

Attitudes to the L1

A point widely conceded in the present study was that L1 use is an unavoidable consequence of language acquisition particularly in monolingual settings (Cook, 2001; Leeming, 2011) as it can provide clarification, reduce learner frustration (Bruen & Kelly, 2015) and possibly ensure closer attention is paid to the TL (Copland & Neokleous, 2010). However, despite an overall optimism to learners' use, it was far from definitive and resulted in conflicting views with contextual factors, such as learners' needs and course content, appearing to influence approach to the L1 which is reflective of other studies (De La Campa, 2009; Moore, 2013).

Indeed, consideration of the learning environment was important in the present study with the argument that too much L1 use may be demotivating for learners desiring maximum TL use (Turnbull & Arnett, 2002). This was also the case in Moore's (2013) study in that, according to instructors, the L1 and TL had to be balanced so not to affect the motivation of those wishing to have continuous exposure to the TL. Moreover, from a student's perspective, Schweers' (1999) examination of L1 use at a Puerto Rican university indicated that while teachers believed it should occasionally be used, some students disagreed, suggesting that consideration of individual preferences is essential (Macaro, 2005), which appears to be supported by the present study.

Nevertheless, despite claims that the L1 can alleviate the cognitive

burden associated with language acquisition (Scott & De la Fuente, 2008), some participants contended that avoidance is preferable. This was also the case in McMillan and Rivers (2011) as it was claimed that encouraging TL use for discussion of language develops better communication skills. A notion supported by Swain and Lapkin (2000) who found that although the L1 was successfully used to construct a story in the L2, those pairs using more L1 during collaborative dialogues (discussion of language/tasks with peers) produced weaker stories suggesting that maximising TL use may have been more beneficial. Though, as DiCamilla and Anton (2012) point out less able students doubtlessly have a greater need to use their L1 which may explain the relationship between the quantity of L1 use and the quality of work produced in the aforementioned study.

As with other research (Izumi, 2003; Leger & Storch, 2009, Long, 1996; Swain, 2000) these participants recognised that regular TL use supports acquisition, yet, some maintained that supplementing it with occasional L1 use is at times necessary. An argument reinforced by Bruen and Kelly (2015) who found that language lecturers in their study supported L1 use in limited instances, such as the explanation of complex grammar, where it could reduce cognitive overload and learner anxiety.

Furthermore, according to Eckerth (2009) and Storch (2007) while instructors would prefer learners to negotiate meaning and form through the TL, it may not be a realistic objective; instead when faced with complexity students instinctively reach for their L1 to form connections and reduce memory constraints (Macaro, 2005). An assertion held by almost half in the present study suggesting that although the ideal is to analyse and evaluate the TL without the L1, it might not be feasible or indeed practical especially with lower proficiency learners.

Despite participants appearing fairly pragmatic and adaptable to L1 use from a learner's perspective, views to teachers' use were far more uncompromising, particularly with those from U2, with the perception that immersing learners in the TL is the most effective way to learn it (Turnbull, 2001). However, complete avoidance by teachers was not considered viable given the demands in certain contexts. The influence of context was also prevalent in Moore (2013) who found that instructors' use was dependent on time constraints and content. Similar findings were identified in Sali's (2014) investigation of a group of Turkish EFL teachers, in that the L1 was used to achieve the lesson aims, "speed up learner comprehension" (p. 315) and increase communication.

Despite the suggestion that the L1 may save time and aid communication, the tendency in the present study was to avoid it themselves. This reluctance was in keeping with Ford (2009), yet, generally speaking empirical data has shown that a minor intervention by the teacher in the L1 can keep learners on task and encourage the continuity of communicative TL use (McMillan & Rivers, 2011). An assertion supported by Cook (2001) who argues that when the cost of the TL is too great the L1 ought to be employed,

though, participants in the present study generally disagreed, claiming that other strategies could be used.

The preference for alternatives to the L1 resulted from a concern that teachers' language could influence learners' linguistic choice, leading to greater L1 use, which was also mentioned in Ford (2009). Yet, according to Macaro's (2001) examination of six student teachers, the quantity of their L1 use did not significantly impact on learners indicating that this decision may be independent of the teacher. Nevertheless, teachers in Japan are afforded a comparatively high status (Hargreaves, 2009) and salaries remain competitive with other professions (Darling-Hammond & Cobb, 1995), intimating that teachers may be more respected and potentially have greater influence over learners. Thus, teachers' L1 use may be a more salient concern in Japanese contexts and could be a genuine issue for these participants.

Factors influencing attitudes to L1 use

While it was conceded that learners' L1 use is unavoidable in monolingual contexts, these participants asserted the importance of maximising opportunities for TL input and output. This attitude appears to be supported by empirical data, although, numerous caveats were provided which will be explored further in the following section.

Comprehensible input and output

Comprehensible input (Krashen, 1982) and opportunities for output (Swain, 1985) are widely considered to be essential components of language acquisition, though, in FL contexts learners have limited opportunities for input so their instructor could be the only source available (Turnbull, 2001; Turnbull & Arnett, 2002). This was a concern in the present study as it was argued that a substantial element of a teacher's role is to provide comprehensible and meaningful input, which was also significant in Ford (2009) and McMillan and Rivers (2011).

However, some argued that occasional L1 use might in fact aid comprehension in that it can emphasise certain aspects of the TL resulting in a more thorough understanding of it (McMillan & Rivers, 2011; Sali, 2014). A claim supported in the literature (Butzkamm, 1998; Long, 1996; Van Lier, 1995) with the argument that the quality of input is of greater importance than the quantity suggesting that teachers' L1 use may enable learners to engage more fully with the TL (Turnbull, 2001), leading to intake (Long, 1996) - internalising the language item. An argument reinforced by McMillan & Turnbull (2009) in their study of teachers' L1 use in a French immersion context in that code switching can improve the quantity and quality of learners' comprehension & production of the TL (Macaro, 2005).

Nevertheless, as in McMillan and Rivers (2011) division appeared as to whether the L1 encourages or disrupts communication, yet, the general

consensus in the literature is that judicious L1 use promotes rich communication and learning in the L2 (Levine, 2009). Hence, providing the L1 is on-task it may aid TL input and output (Long, 1996; Macaro, 2005; McMillan & Turnbull, 2009; Sali, 2014).

L1 as a crutch

Despite this assertion, some in the present sample were reluctant to acknowledge its benefits reporting that Japanese learners tend to be over reliant on their L1. Conversely, while a number of studies (Bruen & Kelly, 2015; Klapper, 1998) have argued that the L1 may reduce anxiety and frustration, the overwhelming feeling with these participants was that L1 dependency should be discouraged and more anxious learners ought to be pushed to use the TL more. A point supported by Madylus (2001) who claimed that permitting the L1 for fear of raising anxiety levels potentially gives the TL a symbolic value making it appear unattainable and unyielding, which was a major concern in the present study.

Similar views were espoused by instructors in Ford (2009), Manara (2007) and McMillan and Rivers (2011) suggesting this concern is fairly widespread. Although, it could be a more salient issue in Japan as the shyness of learners, their reticence to speak out (Matsumoto, 1994) and the avoidance of communicative English during school are synonymous with this context which may result in a greater dependency on the L1.

Indeed, Hobbs, Matsuo and Payne (2010) referenced the impact schooling had on the Japanese tutors in their study as it was suggested that the traditional method (teacher-led and minimal TL use) dominates in Japan which influenced their participants' pedagogy. In the same way, the prior learning experience of Japanese University students may have skewed perceptions of how languages are learnt and their expectations of English class. Thus, some instructors in the present study appeared intent on realigning this ingrained attitude, which possibly explains their negative perceptions.

Prior teaching experience

As well as potentially distorting learners' attitudes to English class at university, it appears that some in the present study have formed negative associations to L1 use as a result of their own teaching experience in Japanese public schools. Contrary to the pedagogy of these participants the Grammar Translation Method (GTM) predominates in Japan (Leeming, 2011) and conceivably their first-hand experience of this may have impacted on their attitudes to L1 use. This also appeared to be an influence in Ford (2009) and McMillan and Turnbull (2009), as negativity to the L1 was regularly accompanied by the mention of learners' schooling prior to university and the unnecessary use of translation.

Plainly, context has directly impacted on their perceptions which was also significant in other studies. De La Campa and Nassaji (2009) found that the FL setting was a significant influence on perceptions and uses of the L1 leading them to conclude that decisions regarding its use are partly "context driven" (p. 753). McMillan and Turnbull (2009) identified a similar phenomenon, in that teachers' attitudes were influenced by their backgrounds, life histories (Vygotsky, 1987) or prior learning experiences which Swain and Lapkin (2013) claim impact on teachers' behaviour in class. In addition, evidence indicates that L1 use varies significantly across different contexts (see Macaro, 2001; Rolin-Ianziti & Brownlie, 2002) suggesting that each teaching environment has its own unique characteristics. Thus, as in the present study it appears that teachers tend to form beliefs and practice around the considerations of their context.

Learner proficiency

One such factor was learner proficiency as it was conceded that those with a less developed L2 may utilise their more sophisticated L1 to support SLA. In contrast, usage by higher levels was viewed as unacceptable (McMillan & Rivers, 2011) as these learners are able to articulate themselves in the TL. This is supported by Carson and Kashihara (2012) who found that all but the highest proficiency learners in their study advocated the importance of the L1 to check comprehension. Likewise, Swain and Lapkin (2000) asserted that higher proficiency learners use less L1 than lower ability users suggesting that "as L2 proficiency increases, there is less and less need to use the L1 as a cognitive tool" (Swain & Lapkin, 2013, p. 110).

This is telling as it reveals that instructors in the present study are generally reactive to their context and understand that in certain instances the L1 may be an appropriate remedy. These findings are also supported by empirical data (Crawford, 2004; Ford, 2009; Manara, 2007; Moore, 2013; Swain & Lapkin, 2000) signifying that an adaptable approach to learners' L1 use is beneficial which was widely acknowledged in the present study.

Nevertheless, a significant portion of this sample indicated that regardless of learners' proficiency they would not use the L1, which appears contrary to empirical data. For instance, just 10% of language teachers in Crawford's (2004) study reported using the TL in beginner classes, which gradually increased as their learners developed linguistically. The same phenomena was identified in Moore (2013) in that teachers varied their language depending on different factors, such as proficiency, demonstrating that instructors in other contexts alter their language based on learners' needs. A finding reflective of other studies (McMillan & Rivers, 2011; Sali, 2014; Song & Andrews, 2009) in that learner proficiency tends to influence teachers' approach to L1 use, yet, irrespective of learners' proficiency some participants remained reluctant to use it.

Indeed, the advantages of L1 use were widely agreed in principal, yet, those at U2 contended that its use is highly dependent on learner maturity and motivation as the majority of their learners rarely push themselves to use the TL and frequently revert to off-task L1 use. A point alluded to in Ford (2009) where it was claimed that first year university courses in Japan tend to be compulsory so learner motivation may be fairly low and thus off-task L1 use could be prominent. This was also a concern of Leeming (2011) who speculated that the observed differences in L1 use by dyads in his/her study may have been the result of motivation. This supports the apprehension expressed by some of these participants in that their learners' lack of engagement in English class may produce large quantities of off-task L1 use.

Inappropriate L1 use was a definite concern in the present study and has also been raised in other research (McMillan & Rivers, 2011), though, according to Anton and DiCamilla (1998) and Swain and Lapkin (2000) L1 use by learners, which is often viewed as lazy or off-task, may be an attempt to achieve intersubjectivity (*language as a tool to manage or understand a task*).

An argument supported by Leeming (2011) who, following a comparison of two dyads of female high school students in Japan, found that any deviations to learners' L1 generally served specific functions, mainly with the intention of comprehending the task and language. Indeed, Fotos (2001) identified similar findings in that the L1 was effectively used for conversational strategies and clarification which may suggest that although the participants in the present study were concerned about off-task L1 use, it may not be to the extent imagined.

However, both Leeming's (2011) and Fotos' (2001) studies observed small groups in controlled environments so these findings may not be representative of larger class sizes, similar to those taught by the present sample. Furthermore, students' L1 use in the aforementioned studies was closely monitored under experimental conditions, which Foster (1998) argues affects the behaviour of students, so this data may not accurately reflect actual usage and perceptions of the L1. Moreover, according to MacIntyre (2007) a variety of factors influence students' Willingness to Communicate (WTC) in the TL, including the situational context (e.g., language classroom). Therefore, learners' attitudes to the L1 might adapt depending on context and those around them so a classroom environment may increase the likelihood of off-task L1 use. Subsequently, the reported off-task usage in the present study maybe a salient concern despite suggestions to the contrary.

Clearly, students' inability or reluctance to manage their own L1 use, has an influence on the decisions of these participants. A point supported by Leeming who found that the L1 was far less effective in a mandatory course which combined low proficiency, unmotivated learners with more enthusiastic, higher ability students, similar to the U2 context. This was an

argument constructed in the present study as participants stressed that while the L1 might facilitate acquisition, its effectiveness relies on different contextual factors, including the attitude of learners.

De La Campa and Nassaji (2009) identified similar data as it was found that teachers' expectations in terms of the quantity of TL and L1 use differed significantly leading to claims that the demands of the context shape instructors' approach, which appears to be the case in the present study. Evidently, learner motivation seems to influence language use and although these participants may overestimate the quantity of off-task L1 usage it is a legitimate concern which may explain the cautious approach expressed by some.

Conclusion

Despite awareness of the benefits of the L1, a host of reasons connected to their context, such as learners' maturity and motivation and proficiency, appear to have influenced participants' attitudes and approach to L1 use. Significantly, prior teaching experience in Japanese schools seems to have resulted in a fairly rigid approach to the L1 by some of these participants. Therefore, as with other studies attitudes and approach appear to be context driven (Ford, 2009; Kurihara, 2013; Nishimuro & Borg, 2013; Saito, 2014) and instructors' decisions reflect these challenges (McMillan & Rivers, 2011)

However, instructors ought to consider explicitly discussing how both languages may effectively be used (Levine, 2009) during class to encourage learners to actively participate. Providing a forum for learners to contribute may reassert their role as adults, potentially altering attitudes to English class. Furthermore, planned, consistent and systematic use would clarify expectations and potentially realign perceptions regarding English class at University. An argument supported by Macaro (2001) who suggests that a framework is needed which "identifies when reference to the L1 can be a valuable tool and when it is simply used as an easy option" (p. 545).

Another pertinent factor discussed was learner anxiety, as there was a belief that Japanese learners tend to be fairly introvert and risk averse which, in addition to their prior English study, favouring the learning of grammar and writing, produces a general reluctance to produce the TL for fear of standing out (Leeming, 2011; Ohata, 2005). As a result, instructors seem determined to alter students' behaviour and attitude to learning English which may have led to a stricter approach to the L1 as there is a concern that even judicious L1 use may give learners an erroneous impression of expectations in English class.

While this is a valid concern, denying access to the L1 may lead to learner frustration (Bruen & Kelly, 2014; Klapper, 1998), resulting in a loss of attention and potentially greater off-task use. Indeed, Norman (2008) observed that minimal L1 use with "students (who were) often unresponsive, inattentive and unwilling to speak in class" (p. 692) led to better participation and TL use which suggests that the L1 could be utilised in this and other

contexts to prevent students losing interest (Norman, 2008).

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Note on Contributor

Jagon Chichon taught English for Academic Purposes (EAP) in the UK and Japan, which led to his pursuing of an MA in linguistics. This in turn has motivated his research in second language acquisition. In the future, he intends to do a PhD with a focus on Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA). Email: jagonchichon@yahoo.co.uk