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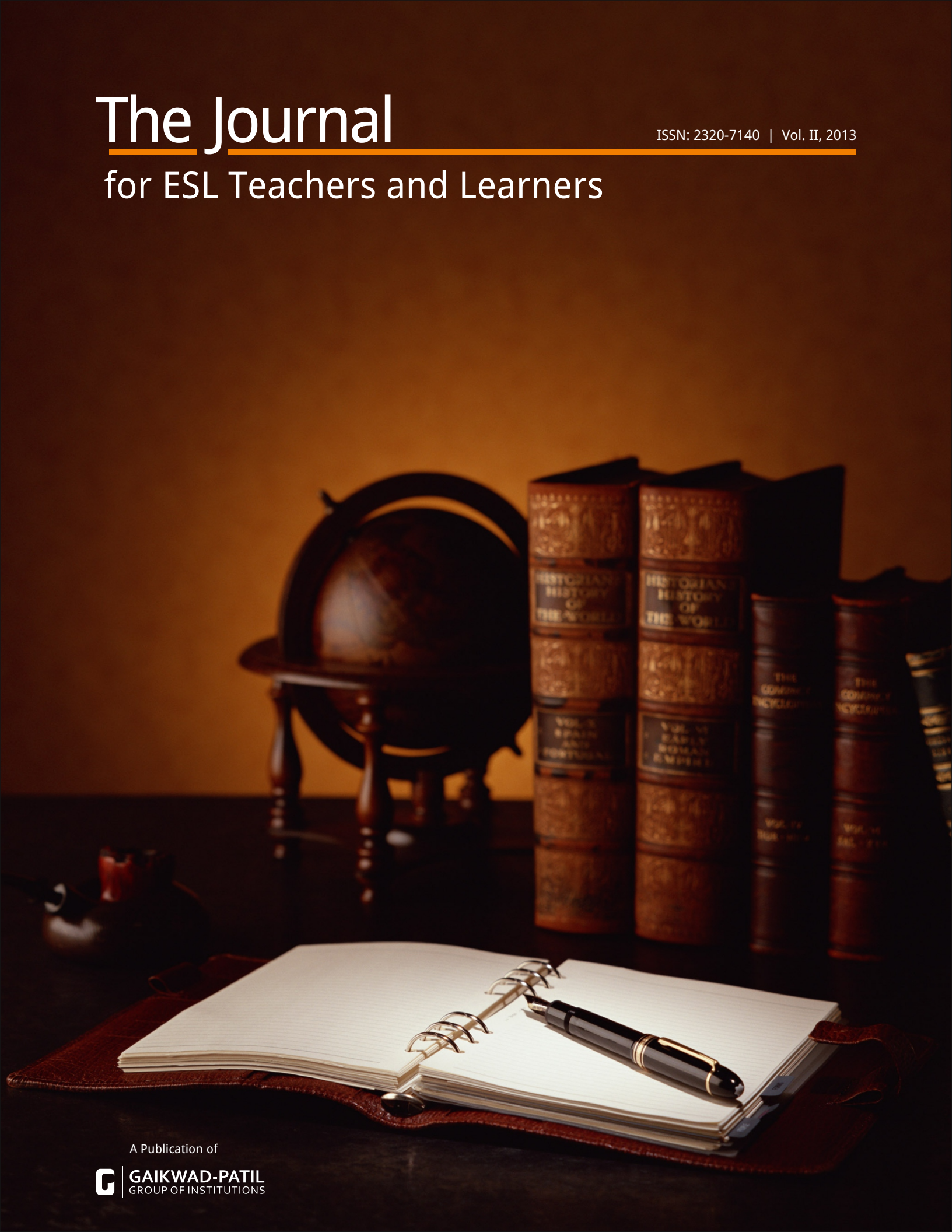

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The Journal for ESL Teachers and Learners is published annually

The Journal for ESL Teachers and Learners is published annually by the Gaikwad-Patil Group of Institutions. The Group runs 12 educational institutes under its banner. Two of them are Tulsiramji Gaikwad-Patil College of Engineering And Technology & Abha Gaikwad-Patil College of Engineering. These colleges organize 'Confluence', an annual international conference on teaching and learning English as a Second Language. Most papers published in The Journal for ESL Teachers and Learners were chosen from those presented at Confluence. However, papers need not necessarily be presented at Confluence to merit publication.

From the Editor's Desk

In its first year, *The Journal for ESL Teachers and Learners* drew papers exclusively from those presented at Confluence, the Annual International Conference on ESL/EFL, jointly organized by Tulsiramji Gaikwad-Patil College of Engineering &Technology and Abha College of Engineering both colleges run by the Gaikwad-Patil Group. This year's volume, however, also contains papers of people who could not be at Confluence but sought publication in a good journal. We missed having them here, but feel happy that they chose *The Journal* as their platform. Although just two, I think this is a good reflection on *The Journal*!

This year's journal contains papers from regions as diverse as Australia, Latin America UK and the Gulf. We are indeed happy to see that *The Journal* enjoys support from people from around the globe. It is quite fitting, I think, that a journal based on a global language should be truly global in nature.

I am thankful to all our contributors for their support. I am also thankful to the entire team who helped me put this volume together. Special thanks to our reviewers who took the pains to review the submissions.

I hope the ESL/EFL community finds this volume helpful in its academic endeavors and that we continue to draw the support of this community in the years to come.

Anjali Patil-Gaikwad
Chief Editor

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The Journal for ESL Teachers and Learners

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Articles arranged alphabetically by authors' last names.

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Upgrading and Maintaining Teachers` Linguistic Performance in English as a Second Language (ESL) Situation

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Abstract: *The paper attempts to direct the attention of practitioners on the need to uplift and maintain the linguistic performance of English teachers. Despite the fact that English language in Nigeria has been in use as a second language and as a medium of instruction for decades, the students and even some teachers are yet to attain the much needed proficiency. This is evident from the mass failure in Secondary School leaving certificate Examinations, which is attributable to the tool language which is highlighted by many scholars. This problem is already in focus and steps towards reducing it are in process. The missing link is that often the yardstick for the analysis is the students` performance. There are seldom researches examining the teachers` Proficiency in the language, to ascertain the standard the students are being taught. The researcher makes an error analysis on papers presented by English teachers in the areas of grammar, vocabulary and expressiveness, and discovers that 7o% of them have some linguistic deficiencies .The writer therefore highlights some of the problems and suggests some ways of remedying them.*

Keywords: ESL, English Teachers, Linguistic Performance, Error Analysis

Introduction:

English language is a second language in Nigeria. It is the official language of instruction (NPE, 1977), the language of commerce and industry, science and technology. Communication in the language is a key factor in learners` educational career. The National University Commission (NUC) makes it mandatory that candidates seeking admission to Nigerian Universities in all courses must possess a credit in it.

In recent years, massive failure in the secondary school leaving certificates examinations in English language and in all other subjects has been attributed to the low level proficiency in English language among the students. The problem is in focus and the attention of Educational planners and policy makers is geared towards looking for its solution. Some of the recommendations and the steps taken include the improvement of teachers' welfare, provision of better teaching/learning facilities, etc., as presented by experts such as Aliyu(2004), Egenege(2003),Chikere(2003) Oltunji(2003) and Opara(2oo3). Yet not much is seen on the ground pertaining to improved performance on the subject. This is due to the fact that most often the yardstick for assessment is students` performance which is either based on their examination results or is an analysis of their linguistic performance. There is, however, little research examining teachers` proficiency to ascertain the standard of the language the students are taught.

Objective of the Study

This paper is written with the objective of directing the attention of pedagogies in developing and maintaining fluent linguistic skills of the English language teacher. It is motivated by the instances of errors observed in some of the papers presented by teachers during a conference.

Research Methodology

Ten papers presented by the English teachers are randomly selected .A paragraph from the selected papers is further chosen for the study. They are then labeled from one to ten. These are subjected to linguistic analyses, bringing out wrong usage in terms of spelling, wrong choices of vocabulary, ungrammatical sentences and inexpressiveness.

The paragraphs are broken down into sentences for analytical convenience. The findings are then presented in tabular forms which are immediately followed by their interpretation. A general table of summary on all the findings is also drawn and explained.

Presentation and Discussion of Data

All the ten papers selected are subjected to the analysis as described in the methodology section, but only a sample of analysis on the first paper is presented here.

Sample of Analysis

Paper 1 Sentence by sentence presentation

1. There has been a cry in Nigeria about the falling standard of Education in the country.
2. The article examines challenges faced by readers using English as a medium of instruction.
3. The problem arises from poor approach to teaching through English, which is due to taking English as a medium of instruction for granted as a second and official language.
4. Some teachers who use English as a medium of instructions sometimes do not have clear understanding of some English concepts.
5. Thus learners wish they were taught through their mother tongue.

Due to the difficulty of reaching a compromise on which indigenous language (Hausa, Yoruba, Igbo etc) should be adopted in the country as a lingua franca, a proposal is made for maintaining the English as a medium of instruction.

SENTENCES	GRAMMAR	VOCABULARY	EXPRESSIVENESS
1	NIL	NIL	NIL
2	Article	NIL	NIL
3	Article	NIL	Vague
4	Article	NIL	NIL
5	NIL	NIL	NIL
	Article	NIL	NIL

TABLE I - Linguistic Analysis of paper 1

The writer exhibits some linguistic problems particularly in the use of article. Sentence number three is vague and requires restructuring.

The General Findings

The findings of the research are presented in the table below.

PAPER	GRAMMAR	VOCABULARY	EXPRESSIVENESS
1	4	NIL	1
2	2	2	2
3	3	2	1
4	3	NIL	NIL
5	2	NIL	NIL
6	3	NIL	NIL
7	3	NIL	1
8	NIL	NIL	NIL
9	NIL	NIL	NIL
10	NIL	NIL	NIL
TOTAL 29	20	4	5
100%	69%	14%	17%

TABLE II Errors in the writings of teachers of English

This analysis reveals that out of the 10 papers analyzed only 3, forming 30% are error free. The other 7 that forms 70% contains various types of errors A total of 29 errors are recorded, 20 errors that form 69% are in the grammatical category, 4 errors that form 14% are in the vocabulary category and 5 of the errors that form 14% are in the area of expressiveness.

Conclusion and Recommendations

The findings reveal that 70% of English teachers in Nigeria have some deficiencies in using the language. Teachers constitute the core of the school system, they serve as guides and models for the learners; as such they must be trained and their proficiency must be maintained.

One of the most common ways of upgrading teachers in Nigeria is by sending them for additional training through post graduate programs, workshops and seminars. Though this is a good development, often the standard is hardly maintained. There is also the problem of professionalism in English language teaching (ELT) unlike in other fields where we find rigorous internal training and trade ethics that protect the profession and its members and also control its standard.

The following are recommended to upgrade and maintain the English language teachers` proficiency:

1. To inculcate the ethics of professionalism so that members become proud of their job and guard it jealously and protect it from ineffective members who are unwilling to perform.

2. To introduce internal training on a regular basis for teachers similar to the weekly updating carried out by Medical Doctors in Hospitals .This will provide a platform for standard maintenance and additional training.

These are simple yet cost effective approaches and highly beneficial if experimented.

It is believed that if these are well designed and experimented, the standard of the ESL teacher will be uplifted and at the same time be maintained.

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Derivation of Nouns from Verbs & Vice versa in English as a Second Language

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Abstract: *This paper reports an experimental study conducted with an aim to find out the common processes children use to derive nouns from verbs and vice versa in English as a second language. The sample size was 10 (5 males & 5 females) and sample age was 8-10 yrs. A list of nouns and verbs accompanied by pictures of agentive nouns like beggar, student etc. and verbs like write, teach or swim etc. was given to subjects and they were asked to derive verbs and nouns respectively. Findings showed that during deriving verbs from nouns, children over-generalized backformation in almost all words by removing end letters, even in thief. Since they were not familiar with some words like 'gambler' or 'burglar' most of them removed er or ar, producing phonotactics not permissible in English language e.g. gambl & burgl. In deriving agentive nouns from verbs, subjects kept adding r or er depending on word endings even if the actual orthography included or. Some showed their familiarity with suffixes like ist or al by using them, though their usage was incorrect there.*

Introduction

Deriving agent nouns from verbs and verbs from agent nouns is one of the most common processes children come across during their acquisition of English as a second language, so I thought it would be interesting to give them some agent nouns & verbs and see how they derive verbs and agent nouns respectively from them. This change of class i.e. nouns derived from verbs, and deriving verbs from nouns is studied under a specific branch of Linguistics known as Morphology. Morphology can be defined as a study of internal structure of words and their formation. The processes involved in the formation of words are called word formation processes or morphological processes. Agent nouns are formed by verbs through the process of 'derivation' in which addition of affixes to the base results in the formation of new words. In English language suffixes like er, -or, -r , -ent/ant and ar are referred to as agentive suffixes because their affixation to the action verbs produces agent nouns. On the other hand, verbs are derived from agent nouns usually by the process of 'backformation aka back derivation'.

Text

According to “The Lexical Phonology and Morphology Model”, in our mental lexicon, morphological and phonological rules are organized in blocks called “strata”. These strata are

[1] Agent noun is a noun that denotes an agent who does the action denoted by the verb from which the noun is derived such as 'cutter' derived from cut.
[2] An affix is a bound morpheme which attaches to a root/ stem to form a new word.
[3] Base is the root or stem to which affix word attaches.
[4] Backformation can be defined as a morphological process in which real or imagined affix is removed from an existing to create another .e.g. editor-edit, burglar-burgle etc.
[5] Lexicon can be described as a mental dictionary; a list of forms that a speaker has to know because they are arbitrary signs, unpredictable in some way.

hierarchically arranged. Kiparsky(1982a) model recognizes three strata and proposes that Stratum 1 deals with irregular inflection and irregular derivation; Stratum 2 deals with regular derivation and compounding; and Stratum 3 deals with regular inflection.

-er is a Germanic suffix which is usually attached to verbs to create agentive nouns (with the meaning 'someone who does whatever is designated by the verb'). It is 'neutral', in the sense that when it is attached to a stem, it does not bring any change in the phonological makeup of the stem. Deriving nouns from verbs or vice versa with using er suffix is a regular derivation process which is a very productive process and therefore words resulting from these processes i.e. deverbal nouns and denominal verbs will come at stratum 2. On the other hand, derivation using other affixes which are non-neutral and do bring changes in the phonological makeup in the bases to which they are attached are found at stratum 1 e.g. ent as in student.

When children are exposed to a language, they analyze the word forms they encounter, identify stems, roots and affixes. Children also show a general preference for marking added meaning with an affix. This holds consistent with Greenberg's (1966) observation that added complexity (of meaning) is typically marked in languages by added morphemes.

Children do not wait until they have learnt the appropriate word. They need words to fill semantic gaps. Therefore when needed, they themselves construct a form for the meaning they want to convey. In first language acquisition, children between two and two and a half begin to produce derivational affixes. In English, for instance, children start to produce agent and instrument -er, though they do not use this suffix consistently until around age four (Clark and Hecht 1982). They misremember newly encountered agentive nouns as using -er even when they have -ist or ian or dent endings (Clark and Cohen 1984). These findings suggest that children do generalize principles and rules while analyzing word forms and then construct new words themselves.

Data Representation

Deriving Verbs from Agent Nouns

Sub	Shop lifter	Gambler	Burglar	Loafer	Kidnapper	Baby sitter	Student	Beggar	Administrator	Thief
1	-er +ing	+[6]er	+er	+[7]er	-(p)er	explained meaning	-ent +y	+er		+er
2	-Lifter	-er	+ing	+ing	-(P)er +ing	-er +ing	-ent +y	-(g)ar	explained meaning	stealer
3	-er +ing	-er +ing	+ing	+ing	-(p)er	-(t)er	-ent +y	+ing	-or +e	
4	-er	-er			-er					

[6] '+' sign refers to the addition of segments to the given word, e.g. +er means adding 'er' to the given word.
[7] '-' sign refers to the deletion of the given segment, e.g. er means deleting 'er' from the given word.

	+ing	+ing			+ing		Learn	+ing		
5	-er +ing	-ler	-lar		-er +ing	-(t)er	+s		-or +ion	-f +ves
6	-er	-r	-r	-r	-(p)er	-er	-ent +y	-r	-a	-f
7	-er	-ler	-lar	-r	-(p)er	-er +ing	-ent +y	-ar	- nistrator +sion	-ief +eft
8	-er	-er	-ar +e	-er	-(p)er	-(t)er	-ent +y	-gar +ing	-or +e	-ief +eft
9	-er +ing	-er +ing		+ing	-er	explain ed meaning	-ent +y	-gar	-rator	
10	-lifter +s	-ler	-lar +s	-er	-(p)er		-ent +y	-ar +s	-or +e	

Findings:
The most common processes used by the children were:
-removing the word final letters (1/2/ 3 letters)
-removing 2-3 word final letters and add'+ing' to it.
Empty spaces shows that children were not able to give any answer for those form(s).

Analysis
Children's familiarity with words was of course an influencing factor for derivation. It is evident in 'study' and 'kidnapper' as they were the easiest to derive. The word structure of 'thief' wasn't in er or r form, due to which it was problematic for children. In most cases, it was evident that children were trying to identify the root from the word and adding or removing suffixes from it. But the verbs they derived were mostly not in root forms but had the present continuous ending ing. The way they derive verbs from agent nouns can be taken back to their school instruction where they are taught things like...what does a beggar do? Beg! What does a player do? Play! These kinds of instructions make children realize that usually they are supposed to use backformation technique which mostly yields correct forms but not always. The difficult area primarily deals with the number of end letters of the alphabet to be deleted.

A Subject came up with 'thiefer' too, showing his preference to add up er affix though he had to derive a verb from thief. Children also came up with forms like thieves, theft etc., showing their preference to use a familiar form even when it was not appropriate there. One student came up with 'stealer'. This was quite interesting because stealer is indeed a potential noun word but is not in use because it is blocked by already existing 'thief'. Since English language does not

Blocking can be described as a process by which a potential word is prevented from occurring in a language because another form with the same meaning and function already exists in that language.

permit existence of exact synonyms like most other languages, therefore stealer can't become an actual word. But construction of "stealer" gives us the opportunity to have a look into child's mind that he knows that thief "steals" and therefore as an agent the noun should be steal + er. Though he was supposed to derive a verb from agent noun but he derived another potential agent noun.

Verb form of the noun 'thief' can be 'thieving' too, but its use is very rare therefore students might not have familiar with the form.

Deriving Agent Nouns From Verbs:

Subject	Teach	Write	Sail	Manage	Drive	Read	compute	travel	Survive	Swim
1	+er	+r	+er	+r	+r		+r		+r	+er
2	+er	+ter -e	+er	+r	+r	+er	+r	+er		+er
3	+er	+r	+er	+r	+r	+er	+r	+er	-e	+mer
4	+er	+r	+er	+r	+r	+er	+r	+er	+al	+er
5	+er	t+r -e	+er	+r	+r	+er	+r	+ls	+r	+ming
6	+er		+er	+r	+r	+er	+r	+ling	+r	+mer
7	+er	+r	+er	+r	+r	+er	+r	+ler	+r	+mer
8	+er	+r	+er	+r	+r	+er	+rist	+ler	-e, +r	+mer
9	+er		+er	+r	+r		+r	+ler	+r	+mer
10	+er	t+r -e	+er	+r	+r	+er	+r	+ler	+r	+mer

Findings:

Addition of '-er' and '-r' were not most used techniques for forming nouns from verbs. Children used 'r' when a verb ended with '-e' and '-er' elsewhere. For Example, in 'sail', where '-or' needs to be added, all subjects added 'er' to make it 'sailer'. Some students showed familiarity with words in case of 'swim' or 'travel' where they formed correct geminates or especially in survive-where one subject added or correctly. Some students over-generalized germination and produced words like 'writter'. A few students showed their familiarity with suffixes like 'al' or 'ist' and used them, though they produced incorrect forms.

Analysis

-er is a very productive suffix and therefore has been abundantly used by students. But the decision of which orthographical form to use proved quite challenging for children. It is noteworthy that the subjects had been introduced to English in their schools, with very little opportunity to speak the language at home. Thus their learning medium was instructional only. Their prior interaction or familiarity with these suffixes must have been solely from their teachers and textbooks.

Where er is selected, it usually takes one of its two complementary meanings. Either it turns the verb into an agentive noun referring to a human (e.g. drive-driver) or it turns the verb into an instrumental noun referring to an object (e.g. cook-cooker or compute-computer). Children did not show this understanding and all derived 'computer' from 'compute' without realizing that noun took instrumental meaning instead of agentive meaning.

Conclusion

This experimental study can be concluded by the fact that the most common strategy children use to drive agent nouns from verbs is to add er ,-r or -or to the verb. This addition of an affix does not come on its own but needs familiarity with the word and the affix on the part of the learner.

The result of the study reflects the way in which children think about these word categories and their derivation. It also shows the general pattern of derivation and the effect of the frequency of the word on derivation process. It also shows that children don't just memorize forms but also use their own hypothesis to derive one form into another. This result can be implied in the pedagogy of English in the way that children should be encouraged to recognize the root of the word and should be made to explore the nature and insertion of affixes in the word.

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Does Corpus Analysis Tool Enhance Using Correct Compound Verbs?

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Abstract: *Corpus linguistics is a relatively new filed in linguistics and a new approach to language study. It involves the examination of linguistic phenomena through large collections of machine-readable texts. In other words corpus linguistics is the study of language through corpus-based or corpus-driven research. A compound verb is a unit which behaves either lexically or syntactically as a single verb and it includes one verb and one or more other words. These verbs are problematic for EFL students because they are not often listed in a dictionary in a separate form and their meaning is hard to find. This study investigated how Iranian language learners have problems in the use of correct form of compound verbs and whether Corpus Analysis Tool enhance using correct form of compound verbs. Based on the results, 60% of the compound verbs were used wrongly by all the participants. It was also indicated that Corpus Analysis Tool has an impact in the use of correct form of compound verbs.*

Keywords: Corpus linguistics, Corpus Analysis Tool, Collocation, Compound Verb, Preposition

Introduction

Corpus linguistics is the study of language through a corpus as a collection of texts in electronic format (Cheng et al., 2003). In recent years, computers have increasingly found their way into different branches of sciences and in this new world of technology, linguistics like other disciplines can benefit from modern tools such as electronic corpora. Recently large corpora have played a crucial role in solving various problems of linguistics such as language learning and teaching and translation studies (Mohammadi, 2007).

Corpora have been used in teaching and learning of languages for many years. The application of corpora in language teaching helps the students to learn how and where to put words into sentences. It actually helps them learn the language inductively (Yoon & Hirvela, 2004). When we talk about the application of corpora in language teaching and learning, this includes both the use of corpus tools, i.e. the text collections, and software packages and of corpus methods, i.e. the analytic techniques that are used when we work with corpus. By helping students acquire knowledge about corpus-based approach, we can help learn them (directly or indirectly) how and where to put words into sentences, which a dictionary often fails to do (Yoon & Hirvela, 2004).

Computer assisted language learning (CALL) includes the use of language corpora and allows exploring a corpus through concordance lines. Here an inductive learning will take place by observing patterns in the target language and learning about language form and use. This activity is called data-driven learning (DDL). It is a process which brings the learner face to face with the data which make the learner a linguistic researcher (Okeeffe et al., 2007).

Corpus activities in the classroom are data-driven learning where learners are asked to make hypotheses and draw conclusions. Thus, learners discover facts about the language on the basis of corpus data in the form of concordance lines. They are learning from authentic examples of language. Over the past two decades, corpora have not only been used in linguistic research but also in the teaching and learning of languages. Computer corpora of English open a wide range of possibilities for teachers and learners of this language (Garcia, 2010).

According to Quirk et al. (1985) a compound verb is a unit which behave either lexically or syntactically as a single verb and they include one verb and one or more other words which may be of any class (preposition or adverb). In compound verbs the action is not expressed by the verb alone. These verbs are problematic for ESL students because they are not often listed in a dictionary in a separate form and their meaning is hard to find (Graham and Walsh, 1996).

Corpus analysis tool as a special resource might be useful for finding information about collocations (Bowker, 2002). Regarding the usefulness of corpus analysis tool, this study aimed at investigating whether Iranian EFL learners have any problem in the use of correct form of compound verbs and how corpus analysis tool enhance using correct form of compound verbs.

Review of the Related Literature

Lang (2009) determines the effectiveness of discovery learning through corpus work which encourages students to explore languages and to learn by relating new data to the language system they have been dealing with till now. She found that working with corpora helps learners to focus on the grammatical patterns of language in ways that are not possible by language textbooks and traditional language classes. Furthermore, learners are able to generate their own original questions in the form of hypotheses and test them by means of authentic data and make their own discoveries.

Jafarpour and Koosha (2005) conducted a study to see whether concordancing materials have any effect on the teaching/learning of collocations of prepositions and the results showed that concordancing was highly effective in the teaching and learning of collocations of prepositions. Braun (2007) conducted an empirical case study to integrate corpus materials and corpus-based learning activities into English language classes at a secondary school in Germany. The results indicated that the group which was given corpus-based activities scored significantly higher than the group which was given the traditional activities.

Fuentes (2003) assessed the oral performance of third year Business English (BE) students according to a corpus-based approach. The results of the students' performances confirmed the positive influence of in-class corpus-based activities. Hanfer and Candlin (2007) investigated the relationship between students' use of online corpus tools and professional discourse practice in professional legal training courses. The findings reflected that students viewed corpus tools as a convenient and helpful tool to provide language support for their legal writing in order to avoid making stupid mistakes.

Method

This study was a true experimental study. It was conducted in 2012 in Shiraz, Iran. The participants of this study were 50 students at intermediate level of Iran Language Institute (ILI) and they were selected through a convenient sampling. A cloze test focusing on ten problematic compound verbs (according to Fitikides, 2000) was designed in which the prepositions of those compound verbs were missed. The researcher has undergone the following steps while conducting this study. First, having downloaded a Corpus Analysis Tool designed by Anthony (2010) from http://www.antlab.sci.waseda.ac.jp/antco.

Based on the goal of the study, a specialized monolingual corpus which involved some English compound verbs (related to those selected compound verbs) was compiled. Next, all 50 students were divided into two groups (control and experimental). Then, both groups of the students were given a pre-test and they had to fill in the blanks with correct prepositions just using monolingual dictionaries.

After that, the experimental group received information about AntConc Corpus Analysis Tool. Afterwards, this test was administered again as a post-test. The control group was permitted to use monolingual dictionary but the experimental group had to use AntConc Corpus Analysis Tool. Finally, having collected the data, the researcher analyzed the data using statistical techniques and tried to answer the research question.

Findings

After collecting the cloze tests of both pre-test and post-test, the data were tabulated and illustrated in the following tables. In order to make sure that there was no initial difference between the participants of the study (control and experimental groups) in the use of correct compound verbs, an independent t-test was run. The results are shown in Table 1.

Table 1

Comparing the Means on the Pre-test

Groups	Participants	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Control	25	4.4	1.446	0.289
Experimental	25	4.8	1.114	0.223

As the results in table 1 shows, there is no significant difference between the means of control and experimental groups. Therefore, we could make sure that the control and the experimental groups were homogeneous and there was no initial difference between the two groups.

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics of the Participants in the Pre-test

Compound Verbs	Misuse of preposition		Omission of Preposition		Correct use of preposition	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Believed in	32	64%	2	4%	16	32%
Interested in	27	54%	0	0%	23	46%
Marry to	25	50%	10	20%	15	30%
Proud of	26	52%	0	0%	24	48%
Similar to	20	40%	0	0%	30	60%
Sure of	28	56%	0	0%	22	44%
Surprised by	40	80%	0	0%	10	20%
Explain to	8	16%	32	64%	10	20%
Succeed in	5	10%	30	60%	15	30%
Reply to	0	0%	17	34%	33	66%
Total	211	42%	91	18%	198	40%

As the results show, 42% of the prepositions of the compound verbs were misused by the participants, 18% of them were omitted and only 40% of the compound verbs were used rightly. So, it could be concluded that about 60% of the compound verbs were used wrongly.

Table 3
The Comparison between Control and Experimental Groups' Performances on the Post-test

Groups	Participants	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Control	25	5.8	1.49	.249
Experimental	25	8.3	0.9	0.180

It can be seen in the above table that there is a difference between means of the control (5.8) and experimental (8.3) groups which shows that the experimental group had a better performance in the post test than the control group which confirms the assumption that corpus analysis tool has an effect on the use of correct compound verbs.

The main purpose of the study was to identify types of errors made by Iranian langue learners when choosing correct prepositions for compound verbs and to study the impact of AntConc Corpus Analysis Tool. To do so, 50 English students were selected. The results of the study show that Iranian language learners had major problems in the use of correct compound verbs in English texts.(Table 2); that is, 60% of the compound verbs were used wrongly.

It can be seen that they mostly misused the prepositions of the compound verbs (42%) which might be due to the fact that Persian compound verbs have different prepositions comparing to those of English. For instance, the Persian compound verbs "marry with" and "similar with" equal the English compound verbs "marry to" and "similar to" respectively. So, Iranian language learners try to use those Persian prepositions in their corresponding English compound verbs. The results of the study also indicated that 18% of the prepositions of compound verbs were omitted which might be due to the fact that the students considered those verbs as transitive verbs.

The results for the first question of this study are in line with Jafarpour and Koosha (2005) who found that Iranian EFL learners have problems with production of English collocations specially collocations of prepositions. DDL approach showed to be highly effective in the teaching and learning collocations of prepositions. Moreover, Hill (1999) states that lack of collocational competence of English prepositions can be a cause of EFL students' problems in learning English prepositions. So, it is necessary for Iranian language learners to increase their knowledge about compound verbs in order to have native-like translations.

The second question of this study was whether Corpus Analysis Tool had an impact on the use of correct compound verbs. The results of the pre-test examination, which are shown in Table 1 indicates that there is no significant difference between the means of control and experimental groups, which shows the equality of their knowledge about compound verbs. However, the results of the post-test shown in Table 3 display a significant difference between the means of the two groups, which suggests that Corpus Analysis Tool has an impact on the use of correct form of compound verbs.

The results obtained for the second question of this study confirms Mohammadi's (2007) suggestion that monolingual corpus is an effective tool for learning collocations in comparison with other traditional resources that give more than one equivalent or improper ones. However, the findings are similar to Yoon and Hirvella's (2004) claim that students accept corpus activity to be beneficial for their English writing specially for learning collocations of words, and they confirm that corpora increase their confidence in second language writing. As Braun (2007) suggested, integrating corpus-based activities into English language classes will lead to better performance especially in concordance activities.

Considering the previous studies, Iranian researches had investigated the role of Corpus Analysis Tool in language learning and he results of this study alongside with other studies confirm the view that Corpus Analysis Tool has an impact in use of correct compound verbs.

Conclusion

However, findings of the study done on both control and experimental groups show that both groups have major problems in the use of correct prepositions (60%). The most problematic point was misuse of prepositions of compound verbs (42%) which might be due to the fact that Persian compound verbs have different prepositions comparing to those of English and the less problematic one was omission of prepositions (18%).

The results of the study indicated that using corpus analysis tool has a significant effect in use of correct compound verbs in comparison to other resources like monolingual dictionaries. In a nutshell, this study is an important reminder to language researchers and teachers about the importance of using corpus analysis tool in order to expose learners to authentic English texts.

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Challenges in the learnability of English Personal Pronouns and Possessives A case of Arabic speaking Undergraduate students

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Abstract: *Every language has its unique morphological and syntactic rules which we call grammar. These rules need to be mastered for using appropriate lexical or grammatical items like the pronouns or the different forms of the possessives in English. Learning a language involves learning not just the vocabulary, but it includes learning to use the vocabulary appropriately in different contexts. Inappropriate use of possessives can result in miscommunication and mis-interpretation of the messages transmitted. The study is based on authentic data and observation of specific grammatical items like Personal Pronouns and Possessives employed by ten Arabic speaking undergraduate students of Dhofar region. The results of the investigation show that the students have difficulty in selecting the suitable pronouns with appropriate forms for the gender and number. They also have a tendency to use the second person forms of personal pronouns and possessives in every context in English.*

Key words: *Acquisition, appropriate, context, personal pronouns, usage.*

Introduction

In the acquisition of L2, the lexical and grammatical rules of the target language need to be learned from the level of familiarizing oneself to mastering the selection of the appropriate lexical and grammatical categories like the adjectives, pronouns or the form of the possessives. It is equally important to ensure that the intent of the message perceived is the same as the message produced. Hence a need is felt to learn the use of correct pronouns in learning ESL in order to prevent miscommunication.

Pronouns and possessives are areas of special focus for the learners of English as a Second language by Arabic undergraduate students. With the increasing emphasis on developing competence in communicating in English, learners are facing challenges in the acquisition of pronouns and their corresponding possessives. The problem is more pronounced, both with second and third person singular and plural forms.

Using the right vocabulary of a language effectively is as important as using it appropriately. The common causes of choice of an incorrect form of the pronoun can be: (i) Mother Tongue influence (ii) incorrect learning (iii) false analogy (iv) overgeneralization or (v) wrong learning habits. Any or all these factors can contribute individually or collectively to effective use of language.

Class room is a place in which the teacher can constantly monitor, guide, evaluate and reinforce the grammar and vocabulary, particularly concentrating on problematic areas like verb tenses, prepositions, pronouns and possessives. In ESL, knowing the rules of grammar is being able to produce correct sentences and knowing the rules that enable one to use these sentences appropriately, to perform different speech acts in particular social situations. As these rules of use are culture-bound and language specific, they need to be learnt carefully (Munby, 1978).

The overall proficiency attained in a language depends on the learner's judgment of selection and appropriate use of different elements of a language. It includes both one's grammatical competence and the sociolinguistic competence. Thus, developing both the grammatical and sociolinguistic skills in language learning is equally important, along with the rules of grammar.

Nunan (1997) found that opportunities to reflect on the learning led students to a greater sensitivity to the learning process over time. Students are able to make greater connections and analogies between their English classes and content courses taught in English. Evidence to this effect was observed in the students' writing samples from journals and portfolios, which helped develop their productive skills at large and the use of pronouns in particular.

i. Pronouns

a. Natural gender Vs Grammatical gender

The present study supports Hymes' (1971) contention that knowledge of a language is not limited to the knowledge of the rules of grammar alone. Hymes is of the view that if an adequate theory of language user and language use is to develop, it has to consider the possibility, feasibility, appropriateness of the learning elements to the context, and above all, what the knowledge use will entail.

Pronouns are a category of lexical items to be acquired by learners in the early stages of language learning. Initially, the learner is taught to distinguish between the masculine and feminine forms of pronouns, which is a common feature in most languages. But this also depends on the fact whether there exists a neuter form for inanimate nouns, to refer to forms which do not fall under either of the two categories. Where there does not exist a neuter form, as in the case of French or Hindi, the noun, whether animate or inanimate has to follow one of the two natural genders. In such a case, the learner is faced with the problem of learning a noun along with its grammatical gender, rather than trying to associate the noun with its natural gender. In Arabic, as in the case of English, the nouns follow the natural gender and there is also a neuter gender to refer to inanimate objects, equivalent to ***'it'*** in English. Despite the clear distinction in natural gender, the choice of the appropriate pronoun depending on masculine/feminine distinction poses difficulties to some of the learners. Furthermore, Arabic has a singular/plural distinction for the second person ***you,*** unlike in English. But there exists a distinction between masculine/feminine, and singular/plural in the case of first person and third person pronouns.

Arabic language has 12 different personal pronouns for singular, dual and plural, and first, second and third person distinction, as opposed to the 7 forms of subject pronouns in English. This difference is both advantageous at the same time disadvantageous to Arabic speakers of ESL learners. Let us look at the following examples drawn from actual speech samples.

Ex: *(1a) After the class, *you* shall go home and rest. (Actual)
(1b) After the class, *I* shall go home and rest. (intended)
*(2a) If I not study, *you* exam will be difficult. (Actual)
(2b) If I do not study, *my* exam will be difficult. (Intended)

Similar is the case with '*we*' and '*us*'. The distinction between the subject pronoun and object pronoun is obscure in the speech some of the subjects, like in the sentences (3) and (4):

Ex:*(3a) He gave *my* the notebook.(Actual)
(3b) He gave *me* the notebook.(intended)
*(4a) I gave *he* the mobile phone. (Actual)
(4b) I gave *him* the mobile phone.(intended)

With the third person, both subject/object pronouns and masculine/feminine distinctions are very unclear.

Some of the common difficulties observed in the use of pronouns are:

(a) Among the subject pronouns *I, you, he, she, it, we* and *they*, the most common confusion Occurs with *he, she, it* and *they*. '*You*' is often confused with '*they*'.
Ex: *(5a) The children are young. *You* are playing in the garden. (Actual)
(5b) The children are young. *They* are playing in the garden. (Intended)

(b) The object pronouns *me, you, him, her, it, us* and *them* are often mistaken for the subject pronouns and they are used interchangeably.
Ex: *(6a) *Him* cannot speak English very well. (Actual)
(6b) *He* cannot speak English very well. (Intended)

(c) Reflexive pronouns like *myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, oneself, ourselves, yourselves,* and *themselves* are rarely used and when they are used, they are used as a compounded form of subject pronoun + *self(ves)*.
Ex: *(7a) He painted the picture *heself.* (Actual)
(7b) He painted the picture *himself.* (Intended)

b. Singular Vs Plural

With the introduction of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approach, a learner's communicative abilities are further enriched in second language acquisition, with activity-based teaching techniques and serve more pragmatic purposes. With all the pronouns, where there is a singular/plural form, the learners are quite unsure of the exact number form of the pronoun to be used in a given context. For example,

*(8a) Ali and Ahmed are my friends. I like *him* very much. (Actual)

(8b) Ali and Ahmed are my friends. I like *them* very much. (Intended)

ii. Possessives

Language performs different functions in society. Each function involves a different set of vocabulary appropriate in use in the given context and suitable for the situation. For clarity of thought and unambiguity of expression, it is essential to focus on the what, why and how of the grammatical and lexical items in use.

According to Halliday (1970), there are three basic functions of language:

1. The interactional function, which enables one to establish, maintain and specify relations between the members of society.
2. The ideational function, which helps to transmit information between members of society.
3. The textual function, which addresses the organization of discourse as relevant to the situation.

A sound knowledge of the basic grammar enhances the communicative competence of a learner as an effective user of language.

1. Possessive Adjectives

Possessive Adjectives are often replaced by their corresponding subject or the object pronouns, i.e., *my/me, your/you, his/him, her/she,* and *them/they* or vice versa, as in the following sentences:

*(9a) *Me* sister is a teacher, but *me* brother is a student. (Actual)
(9b) *My* sister is a teacher, but *my* brother is a student. (intended)

*(10a) We told *they* the truth.(Actual)
(10b) We told *them* the truth. (Intended)

a. Natural Vs Grammatical gender

In Arabic there is a gender distinction even in the plural form of the possessive adjectives. Therefore, the subjects are not sure if the same form can be used in English for both masculine and feminine nouns, unlike with the singular subjects. Hence the sentences of the type below occur very commonly in their speech.

Among the possessive adjective forms which are frequently found to create confusion among the leaners, are the third person singular/plural without gender distinction. In other words, they are used inappropriately with both genders irrespective of the subject in question, as in sentence 8(a).

Interestingly, there is a spelling problem which occurs with both possessive adjectives and possessive pronoun forms. '*Their'* and *'there's'* is spelt as *'there'* and '*there's*' respectively by many of the subjects.

b. Singular Vs Plural

As in the case of singular, plural form *'their'* is often substituted by the singular forms, sometimes even with inanimate neutral 'its' for masculine or feminine subjects.

Ex: *(11a) The President is very intelligent. *Its* plans are very successful.(Actual)

(11b) The President is very intelligent. *His* plans are very successful. (intended)

2. Possessive Pronouns

With possessive pronouns, the learners tend to use the lexical item which is morphologically/orthographically or phonetically similar to the intended form. As in the case of first person singular, which is often found in their speech, like *me/mine, myself* and so on, other than '*mine*', which is the appropriate form to be used in the context. While, the third person singular masculine/feminine forms are relatively simpler and easier to use in sentences.

Conclusion

The kind of learning problems discussed above with grammatical items arise largely due to the morphological structure of the items learnt in English on an analogy with (dis)similar forms in Arabic language, which is the L1 of the subjects.

A second possible cause is the improper learning of the basic grammar of English with its rules and structures, specific to the language. Although comparison with the frame of L1 can help understand the structure of an L2, it is best to learn the grammatical rules and structures independently of the L1 of the learner.

Another important cause is the relative importance given to the rules of grammar and the attitude towards learning and applying the rules appropriately.

The observations of the study lead to the conclusion that learning pronouns in English is a complicated area for the learners of Arabic due to the gender and number differences which is distinct from those which exist in English language, while Arabic has dual form for the number features, English has only singular and plural forms, which needs to be understood clearly as a basic difference. The confusions which arise in the personal pronouns and the possessive forms of adjectives and pronouns with respect to third person, both singular and plural forms need to be acquired through practice of each of these categories in its usage in context appropriately. An effective method of overcoming this problem in the use of English pronouns and possessives is exposing the learners to more and more of oral and written texts with pronouns used differently in different contexts, preferably using audiovisual techniques. This also helps to improve the receptivity and retention of the patterns of phrases and sentences, akin to learning L1.

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Championing Indian TESOL Teachers in the Arabian Gulf

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Abstract. *This critical study problematises the plight of the TESOL teacher of Indian origin in the Arabian Gulf. Working within a theoretical framework of Kachru's Three Circles Model, secondary research suggests that these teachers are often marginalised from the more lucrative tertiary TESOL posts in the region in favour of native speaker teachers even though the former are qualified, experienced and have a suitable English level for higher education teaching. The study used qualitative open questionnaires to glean rich data from two Indian teachers who had worked effectively in such posts as well as the deans who had employed them. All respondents argued that employing teachers of Indian origin proved to be a boon to the institutions involved. On the other hand, they all also recognised the continuing misconceptions that prevail in the region regarding the suitability of such teachers for these posts. The findings aim to send a message of hope to TESOL teachers of Indian origin that such Gulf-based posts are attainable. In addition, the study sends a message to TESOL employers in the Gulf that preconceptions and prejudices regarding these teachers' suitability mean that institutions may be missing out on talented, dedicated and skilled practitioners.*

Keywords: Non-native, Kachru, world Englishes, EIL, linguistic imperialism, accent

Introduction

The rapid growth of many Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) economies has created a need for a knowledge economy, which has led many tertiary institutions to use or adapt Western curricula in which English as a medium of instruction (EMI) becomes the norm. As higher education (HE) students often have insufficient English (IELTS Researchers, 2011), support courses are offered to help students close this language gap and cope with the demands of EMI-based study (Moussly, 2010). This has created TESOL employment opportunities predominantly for native English speaking teachers (NESTs). This critical study, framed within the parameters of societal inequality, questions the perceived wisdom of employing NESTs over non-native English speaking teachers (NNESTs) in the GCC by highlighting the particular plight of Indian TESOL teachers. While research is emerging - albeit slowly - regarding the plight of the Arab TESOL teacher in the Gulf (Syed, 2003), there is little or no evidence of the same for TESOL teachers of Indian origin. One might question why such research is needed in the GCC context. My answer is threefold. First, while Indian professionals find posts successfully in government and international companies (Pradhan, 2009), it is less likely to find Indian TESOL teachers in government and private international institutions. Second, fluent English usage among Indian professionals is prevalent (Kachru in Lowenburg, 2000), so qualified and experienced Indian TESOL teachers would appear to be suitable candidates for employment. Finally, by teaching alongside such teachers I have observed first hand their effectiveness and work ethic as well as the challenges they face at the recruitment stage and in the early stages of employment.

This study is significant in that it enters new ground by problematising the plight of Gulf-based Indian TESOL teachers. Their situation is framed within the global context of Kachru's Three Circles model of World Englishes (Kachru in Rajadurai, 2007), in which both the concept of English as an international language (EIL) and the debate on linguistic imperialism are analysed, before focusing on the NEST Vs. NNEST divide in the Gulf context as it applies to Indian TESOL teachers. The findings in this study are from successful Indian HE TESOL teachers and the deans who chose to employ them. The aim of this study is to send out three messages. First, these teachers can attain lucrative HE positions. Second, negative stakeholder perceptions about the suitability of such teachers should be reconsidered. And third, further

Indians in the Gulf

The number of Indians working in the Gulf is estimated at between 3 and 4.5 million (Pradhan, 2009; Indian Diaspora, n.d.) and a growing number of Indian skilled professionals make up this ethnic group (Pradhan, 2009). Entrepreneurship is visible among the Indian communities in the region (Gour, n.d.) including the establishment of private Indian curriculum schools which primarily serve the needs of the Indian community (Indian Diaspora, n.d.). Despite the existence of discriminatory practices against unskilled labour, including that from India (95 pc Indians, 2007), professional Indians are generally sheltered from this, although company salary scales can be determined according to nationality with locals earning the most followed by Westerners, Arabs and finally Asians (Salaries in Dubai, n.d.). While the salary gap for Indian professionals may have closed in recent times due to competitive salaries in the home country (Booming Indian economy, 2007), this is not reflected in education. Private Indian schools provide employment opportunities but pay is usually the lowest in the sector (Sankar, 2010; Masudi, 2009). Given these unfavourable circumstances, the best paid TESOL options for teachers are in international private schools or in the government or international HE sector. These posts generally go to NESTs. However, assuming that an Indian TESOL teacher is experienced, qualified and competent, one would need to question why they might be overlooked.

The Case for Inclusion

Kachru's Three Circles Model of World Englishes (Kachru in Rajadurai, 2007) recognises English varieties by grouping them thus: Inner Circle countries reflect those with mother tongue English; Outer Circle countries are those where English holds official status alongside the native tongue; and finally Expanding Circle countries are those where English is learned as a foreign language and used to interact with other non-native speakers (Gupta, 2006). Phillipson (1992) refers to the Inner Circle as Core English countries while the other circles comprise the Periphery. Considering that the ratio of non-native speakers of English to native speakers is at least 4 to 1 (Kachru & Nelson in Dahan, 2007) it is clear that Periphery English is dominant in English usage worldwide. India is considered an Outer Circle country and English is used both inter- and intra-nationally (Dahan, 2007). The 1990s estimate of 60 million fluent users suggests that India has the third largest population of English users in the world (Kachru in Lowenburg, 2000). English has been appropriated in India to form a recognised variety known as Indian English (Rubdy & Saraceni, 2006a) and the English language is perceived by younger generations in Indian society to be the language of modernity (Crystal, 1997).

Kachru's model has been useful in giving credence to different English varieties, but its sense of national boundaries may already be an anachronism as Inner Circle English is employed by an increasing number of Outer Circle users (Rudby & Saraceni, 2006c) and McKay (2006) notes how Expanding Circle governments, including those of the Gulf, formulate language policy to achieve Outer Circle status. While moving to the centre may, for example, validate a NNEST's right to be judged alongside a NEST, other commentators prefer to legitimise Periphery English varieties and question the ownership of English (see, for example, Widdowson, 1994; Norton, 1997). However, McKay (2006) believes that in the Expanding Circle a more pragmatic, acceptable approach to English usage, and therefore learning, might be English as an International Language (EIL).

EIL transcends native varieties by providing a lingua franca for international communication, thereby sidestepping the need for an Inner Circle English standard. Perhaps its major advantage is its inclusivity and ability to transcend borders, cultures and ethnicities. The belief that EIL is as monolithic as current Inner Circle English is a misconception according to Seidlhofer (2006), as it shows awareness of other varieties including Inner Circle English (Promodoru, 2006), and allows for non-native speaker accents thereby liberating all its users from Inner Circle constraints (McKay, 2006). With the HE sector increasingly using EMI in the Outer and Expanding Circles, McKay (2006) and Crystal (1997) both suggest that EIL would be a logical way forward in the education sector.

The Case for Exclusion

Following the tenets of World Englishes and EIL it would be acceptable for an Outer Circle Indian TESOL teacher to give instruction to Expanding Circle users from the Gulf. So why is that not the case? The main reason is how the global dominance of Inner Circle English is perpetuated in the Gulf. Linguistic Imperialism (LI) refers to how language is used as an instrument of control by some countries over others (Phillipson, 1992). Ahmed (2010) alludes to its neo-colonial underpinnings while Rudby and Saraceni (2006b) traces its seamless transition from being the language of the global marketplace in the 20th century to the language of the information-based economy in the 21st, thereby perpetuating a sense of superiority that 'others' native cultures in the process (Holliday, 2005). As the status quo is often uncontested, language-based discrimination prevails (Jenkins, 2007) so despite the appropriation of the 'norm' in the form of World Englishes, these are often benchmarked unfavourably against the Inner Circle variety (McKay, 2006).

EMI includes an existing framework and materials and can afford its users a language which is still the international standard for communication (Kirkpatrick, 2006). However, it is also a key area in enforcing neo-colonial and neo-liberal Inner Circle values as access to HE is often determined by Inner Circle English assessment (McKay, 2006). Governments fearful of Anglo-American values invading their culture still desire Western education models (Kirkpatrick, 2006). This desire for Western curricula is a boon for the Western education industry and TESOL's global role in this is one of complicity. At the level of research, Jenkins (2007) indicates that professional journals defer to native speaker researchers. Kumaravadivelu (2006) argues that the Periphery elite in TESOL "surrenders its voice and vision to the centre [and] by their uncritical acceptance of the native speaker dominance, non-native professionals legitimise their own marginalisation" (p.22). Kumaravadivelu is particularly damning in his appraisal of this issue of marginalisation and argues that the industry brings "...to the fore the coloniality, rather than the globality, of the English language [and casts] a long, hegemonic shadow over the activity of TESOL" (p.22). However, he senses that the TESOL Core has started to take a critical stance. Central to that stance is the problematizing of the NEST vs. NNEST debate, which is integral to the context of the Indian TESOL teacher in the GCC.

It is generally accepted that NESTs hold a privileged position in TESOL (Holliday, 2005), Where learners have choice, NESTs are good for business, given the perceptions of prestige that learners associate with them. But how does one define a NEST? Holliday (2005) posits that few teachers, regardless of their NES or NNES status, will use English perfectly. McKay (2006) accepts that a NEST has the edge in accent and nuance but it is questionable whether either is essential in HE English teaching. The native speaker fallacy (Phillipson, 1992) assumes that the goal of language learning is native speaker competence. While Skutnabb-Kangas (2000) shows evidence from Norway, the Netherlands and Hungary of effective language policy which ignored the Western-driven tenets of NEST dependency, Canagarajah

(1999) suggests that, in general, Periphery education perpetuates this fallacy. Prejudice against NNESTs is not new. Meydges (n.d.) believes that though informed debate in the 1980s and 1990s supported NNESTs, in current times this debate has dissipated. Hence, today NNESTs still find their ability questioned and fall prey to the native speaker fallacy themselves (Promodoru, 2006); especially regarding accent. Kennetz, van den Hoven and Parkman (2011) sees accent as a loaded social and economic construct in TESOL which leads NNESTs to try and adopt a native speaker variety. The irony of this is that any teacher, regardless of their accent, will probably modify it to be understood by language learners (Gupta, 2006).

In spite of the negative perceptions of NNESTs, research also extols their virtues. McKennetz et al (2011) suggests that due to the present-day multicultural make-up of students, cultural identities of teachers are also recognised and respected, with Braine (2005) positing that students become more tolerant of NNESTs the longer they are taught by them. McKay (2006) highlights their ability to support students as they were L2 learners themselves and finally, Braine (2005) cites the increased acceptance and legitimacy of their research in respected journals. Holliday suggests that NNESTs should enhance their image by pursuing further studies so that the 'them and us' divide is rendered obsolete in favour of a universal standard of what Rampton (in Hadley, 2006:35) calls the “expert teacher” In a similar vein, Liu (1999) supports basing quality in TESOL teaching on skills rather than language variety. This appears to be the noble way forward but would it be accepted in the Gulf context?

English is considered the lingua franca of the Gulf (Zughoul, 2003) due to the large number of expatriates, who, for example, make up more than 80% of the UAE population. Some regional governments have championed its use (Syed, 2003) as the link to modernity and progress, with EMI as an integral part of HE language policy (Ahmed, 2010) and NESTs the preferred option for pre-sessional English access courses (Hourani, Diallo & Said, 2011). Local students buy into the native speaker fallacy (Findlow, 2006) despite the likelihood that they will use English predominantly with other non-native speakers (Dahan, 2007). One reason to support the fallacy is students' aversion to unfamiliar accents (ibid.). However, research suggests that within professional circles it is difficult to distinguish accents based on audio recordings. A study by Kennetz et al. (2011) into student preferences on accents provided revealing outcomes. First, students were asked to give an order of preference on six listed accents taken from a spread of Kachru's Circles. The UK accents ranked highest with the South Asia accent last. Then students listened to a standard text being read by professionals from the six regions and were asked to rank them on preference. The UK accent came last while the South Asian accent came second. A similar study by Jenkins (2007), this time conducted among NNESTs, also suggested an initial native speaker fallacy that was not borne out once accents had been listened to and rated.

What the literature indicates is that despite the many challenges faced by Indian TESOL teachers, there are strong arguments for supporting their employment in HE in GCC countries, given their educational background, their comfortable use of the language, and the way English is used in the region. There is even evidence that the issue of accent is based on misconceptions embedded within the native speaker fallacy. However, the fact that regional linguistic imperialism appears to be sustained calls for the need to problematise the plight of the TESOL teacher of Indian origin in the Gulf in the context of higher education, highlighted by the lack of research into the position of NNESTs in the Gulf in general, and specifically the population in the context of this study.

Methodology

This study is paradigmatically positioned within a critical framework which aims to raise awareness of the inequalities that exist in society (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007). It assumed that while the population may have been aware of inequalities within the TESOL profession it may not have been aware that this inequality had been successfully challenged. The study aimed to investigate the following research questions:

- What are the perspectives of Indian TESOL teachers who secured employment and operated effectively in HE Gulf settings?
- What are the perspectives of academic deans who chose to recruit and retain such teachers?

The perspectives alluded to comprise coping strategies when faced with discrimination as well as views on linguistic imperialism, the native speaker fallacy and the likelihood that perceptions towards Indian TESOL teachers will change. The research design followed a qualitative approach. Semi-structured open questionnaires were designed to give respondents the opportunity to answer freely (Dörnyei, 2003). A potential plus of this method was that respondents could answer at length if they wished. A downside was the inability to probe answers in real time. This was addressed by returning questionnaires to respondents to clarify their answers. Working within a critical framework the sample was small, purposive and sought rich, multi-layered data to highlight the key issues in detail (Wiersma & Jurs, 2005). The sample consisted of two TESOL teachers and two deans. The deans are referred to as Martin and Charles. Both are from Expanding Circle countries and had at least 5 years' experience managing in HE. The two teachers are referred to as Chandni and Trisha. Both had completed post-graduate study and had taught for a minimum of 36 years, at least 10 years of which were in the GCC HE sector.

Collected data were analysed under a priori categories in line with the research framework. Given the sensitive nature of the subject, due care was taken to protect the anonymity of respondents and the research design ensured that the researcher, the respondents or any specific organisation were not compromised in any way. While this limited the pursuit of a critical agenda, ethical considerations took precedence. While recognising that semi-structured interviews would have enhanced the richness and depth of data (Richards, 2003), the method chosen was guided principally on pragmatic grounds as respondents were all living outside the region at the time of the research. All respondents were my former colleagues. The reflexive nature of the relationship could have potentially affected responses (Holliday, 2002); however, in the context of the aims of the study I deemed this relationship to be appropriate. Outside of these challenges and limitations, every effort was made to add rigour and robustness to the research.

Results and Discussion

The synthesised results of this study are grouped according to the theoretical framework; namely, views on discrimination, linguistic imperialism, the native speaker fallacy and the likelihood of changes in perceptions. All quotations are produced as written in questionnaire responses.

Discrimination

All respondents mentioned the Indian Diaspora's important contributions to the Gulf States. All indicated that Indians were hard-working and success-driven. All recognised that there was discrimination against unskilled Indians with Chandni and Charles suggesting that it was also evident at the skilled level, as reported by Salama (2005). For example, Charles referred to a business meeting between himself, his Indian superior and a customs official where the official ignored seniority and conversed only with Charles. Martin expressed the view that despite less discrimination against professionals, their zone of tolerance would make them more sensitive to it. Despite this view, the other respondents all felt that skilled Indians were better treated. Trisha felt this was "because they are able to….quit if not treated decently"; especially as similar or better employment packages are available in India (Booming Indian economy, 2007).

Respondents held similar views once questions focused on TESOL in HE. Respondents all referred to stakeholders' preference for native speaker teachers; with Trisha and Martin suggesting that Indian teachers were acceptable but only if NESTs were not available. Chandni expressed her piqué by citing how she was rejected for a post in preference to a Core country teacher with just three years' experience. She continued that she often felt her professionalism was not respected. Both deans showed their determination to ensure equal conditions for all staff and to recruit based on experience and ability. Charles spoke of how he had to fight to ensure that an Indian recruit received the same salary as Western staff. Martin held particularly strong views on this: "I continued in persevering to pay equal wages for all and hiring based on qualities, in the tough discussions with the board of the university I never gave in". For Indian TESOL teachers, therefore, it appears that discrimination exists. However, there is also evidence that with the right people in decision-making positions, it is possible for this discrimination to be questioned and challenged.

Linguistic Imperialism

Regarding the current status of English in India both teachers alluded to the use of EMI in education and the gradual preference for General American English as opposed to a British standard. In accordance with Kirkpatrick (2006), Chandni was not against EMI in India; on the contrary, she felt "...we definitely have an edge over many other nationalities when it comes to global communication". However, following the views of Widdowson (1994) and others, she was not in favour of Inner Circle dominance: "I personally feel that any language is no one's monopoly…I strongly believe that for a world language we cannot set a standard with [Core varieties]". In line with the beliefs of McKay (2006), she added that a global English variety in the vein of EIL was the way forward for India. When asked to describe their personal English speaking status, Trisha considered herself an "English speaker" which she defined as having the vocabulary and grammar of a native speaker with Indian accent and pronunciation while Chandni described herself as a 'native English speaker' as English was embedded in Indian history. When the deans were asked how they would define English speaking Indians, Charles answered "non-native speakers" while Martin opted for "native speakers" though accepted that this was a view that would probably not be shared by others. This 'confusion' of definitions indicates that Kachru's Circles are maybe not as clear-cut as they seem. So, responses indicate that despite personal views, the dominance of Core English is generally seen as a fait accompli though confused terminology suggests that distinctions between varieties are becoming blurred.

The NEST Vs NNEST Debate

In considering the native speaker fallacy, Martin agreed with the proposition of McKay (2006) that employing a NNEST was a better option "...because they have experienced themselves the hardship/difficulties/ways to be able to speak another language at an acceptable level and as such are 'more' equipped to help others". This view was mirrored by Chandni who believed that NNESTs "...can relate to [students'] situations much better". The blame for the continued domination of Core English was directed at both the Core and the Periphery. Chandi noted how English teaching has been monopolized by Core countries and continued that Core country government agencies were complicit in this. Trisha, following Kumaravadivelu (2006), accused Expanding Circle language policy-makers of complicity, which Martin recognised as well, stating they follow "...blindly the traditional approach based upon decision making of (quite often second ranked) [Core country] educated officials".

The question of accent provoked quite lengthy reactions. All agreed that Indian teachers are often rejected for TESOL posts due to perceptions of accent before even being heard. Charles felt that "It does not feel right. Any non-native English speaker will have some kind of accent. That is only normal. No reason to reject a person". Chandni recognised that it was one of the main reasons for rejection while Martin believed that this negativity towards Periphery accents was fuelled by the widespread access to Inner Circle media sources. When asked how important accent was to teach English in HE, Charles felt that a native speaker was preferable, Martin reiterated his preference for NNESTs while both Chandni and Trisha felt there was no need to differentiate between NESTs and NNESTs at the tertiary level. Trisha opined that "[A native speaker accent] is required [only] during the formative years of the student". In addition to this, Chandni stated that "...the language and communication skills to be taught and learnt [in HE] are necessary for the world at large and need to be more multicultural and multilingual". This concurs with the views of Liu (1999) among others that propose a focus on teaching rather than native speaker status. Despite this Chandni indicated that in her experience "It really is an uphill task to make students aware of the different dialects/usages that are prevalent". Martin felt this was because "In the Gulf nationals/governments/parents thrive on status/native speakers/US-UK is best".

Summing up, the continued preference for NESTs is undeniable in the Gulf although there is recognition that NNESTs may in fact be more suitable to teach local students. However, presumptions about accents complicate the position of Indian TESOL teachers despite research evidence that their accent may actually be more understandable for learners in the region.

Changing Perceptions?

When asked what needed to change to improve the position of Gulf-based Indian TESOL teachers, both Trisha and Chandni called on regional educational institutions to be open-minded about their skills and abilities. Martin echoed these views but also suggested that teachers themselves should be more proactive in pushing for better conditions. When asked when they thought changes were likely to happen, Trisha was unable to predict, Chandni believed in a slow and steady change while Martin cited affirmative action for local recruitment, a media-fuelled preference for Inner Circle English and a thirst for status as major long-term obstacles to changing the status quo. This negativity emphasises the fact that despite all the evidence that promotes the suitability of Indian TESOL teachers, the Inner Circle status quo is so strong that changing perceptions in the short term are unlikely to happen.

Conclusion

Questionnaire responses show that the possibility of securing employment in the more lucrative HE TESOL posts in the Gulf region can be a reality for Indian TESOL teachers. However, recruiters are needed who see the value of employing such teachers and are willing to challenge embedded views on their suitability. The literature and respondent views give ample evidence that if such teachers are allowed to show their worth, there is no reason why they will not succeed. Though in the short-term the likelihood of this is small, only by bringing the debate to the table and problematising the issue, can there be any hope that stakeholders in TESOL education may start to rethink recruitment policy. This study is a small step in raising the issue but hopefully has achieved its aims of sending out three messages. First, Indian TESOL teachers can attain lucrative posts in the Gulf despite the challenges. Second, decision-makers should be aware that pre-judging these teachers may mean missing out on excellent employees. Finally, more regional research is needed in the field of defining effective TESOL teaching in HE, which should aim to move the discussion away from the NEST vs. NNEST debate and onto abilities and skills. In an ideal world, if the borders of Kachru's Circles continue to become less demarcated, maybe the acronyms that accompany the native speaker fallacy will no longer be relevant.

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Challenges to an ESP Teacher

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Abstract: *In recent years, there has been a growing international interest in designing language courses specific to work-related needs. English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is an umbrella term covering a wide range of interests and approaches to student centered learning. In this context, designing course materials to meet the needs of the learners is a big challenge to an ESP teacher. As a matter of fact general language teaching should not be ignored. ESP combines specific field and English language teaching. ESP teachers often face challenge when they relate language instruction to the learner's respective fields. Most students regard English as a non main subject so that English is considered less important and they think that they can pass subject very easily. This attitude of course influences the teacher in teaching ESP at non English Departments. And the condition is even worse where the number of students in ESP class room is even greater than that at the general English class room. And ESP teachers often feel isolated from the professionals in their student's specialization as well as their colleagues in other institutions. Where they actually belong is another issue. The writer wants to share the experiences and the challenges faced as an ESP teacher in Libya and Saudi Arabia.*

Key Words: Challenges**,** student centered, specific goals, designing course, isolated, colleagues

Introduction

The aim of this paper is to shed light on some of the major aspects of ESP and the challenges faced by an ESP teacher. Traditionally, the duty of an English language teacher was to describe the rules of English usage, i.e., the grammar, vocabulary with the help of some works written by different authors at different points of time and enable the students to improve their communication. But today teaching English in the global context is really challenging and for an ESP teacher, it is much more challenging.

What is ESP

ESP derives from the need to use language as a tool in facilitating success in professional life. The learners in general are expected from intermediate and advanced level students. ESP is designed for adult learners and it is suitable for those having some basic knowledge of language system. But in some places where there was no proper screening to get admission into Professional Colleges, teachers can't expect students with good communication skills. Then it would be very difficult to the teacher to frame the syllabus as well as reaching the international standards of ESP. Heterogeneous learner group is a very common issue for any teacher in any class but in the ESP context, designing course and implementing it to that particular group is not an easy task.

Stages in the development of ESP

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) state that the early beginnings of ESP start in the 1960s and witnessed the greatest expansion of research into the nature of particular varieties of English. The expansion of demand for English to suit particular needs and developments in the field of linguistics and educational psychology contributed to the growth of ESP. Its development is reflected in the increasing number of universities offering masters degree in ESP. The development of ESP may be perceived as a never-ending story since new fields of activity and research keep appearing and developing and in a globalized world, knowledge of English is both a must and a personal advantage.

Types of ESP

According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987), ESP is sub-divided into three branches: English for Science and Technology (EST), English for Business and Economics (EBE), and English for Social Studies (ESS). Each of these subject areas is further divided into two branches: English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP).

English for Academic and Occupational Purposes

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) do note that there is not a clear-cut distinction between EAP and EOP on the basis of the considerations that (i) people can work and study simultaneously, and that (ii) the language learnt in a teaching setting for academic purposes can be useful and employed by the learner in the occupational environment when he/she takes up, or returns to, a job. This may explain why EAP and EOP have been categorized under the same type of ESP. The end of both types seems to be similar: employment.

Is Teaching ESP different from Teaching General English

Teaching language either ESP or EGP in the global context should be based on a functional aspect and the purpose of which is to develop communicative competence among the learners. ESP is considered one of the major innovations in the field of second language teaching. ESP should not be considered separate from the teaching EGP, as it is part of it and using areas that belong to other fields of ELT.

When asked teaching ESP and EGP are different, Hutchinson and Waters (1987) say, "in theory nothing, in practice a great deal". As a matter of fact ESP combines learner's specific field and English language. That's why ESP concentrates more on context and vocabulary than on grammar and language structures. ESP is an extension to what has been acquired earlier in EGP by the learner with a more restricted focus. It aims at acquainting learners with the kind of language needed in a particular domain, vocation, or occupation. In other words, its main objective is to meet specific needs of the learners. As Eva Donesch, (2012) has rightly observed, "Nowadays, teachers are aware of the importance of needs analysis, and perhaps it is this that has been the greatest influence that the ESP approach has had on the teaching of General English." Many General English teachers today are using ESP approach and are much more aware of the learner's needs.

Teaching ESP in Libya and Saudi Arabia

In Libya teaching ESP is not uniform in all the universities. In some universities the students undergo some bridge courses before getting admission into professional colleges. And there is a lot of focus on technical jargon and in some universities there is not much difference between teaching ESP and EGP. The departments and faculties are free to design their course according to their student's needs. But in general majority students don't prefer to communicate in English. Some students are with excellent communicative skills (almost native like) but their number is very less.

According to Majjid M Al-Humaidi, the situation in the Saudi context is even more complicated as there is not even a separation between ESP and English for General Purposes (EGP) when it comes to syllabuses and methodology, and who is better trained to teach what. Needs assessment, which is a major component of ESP, never exists, and, if does, it is never systematic, but rather based on teachers' intuitions. Moreover, the methodology adopted in teaching never differs.

However in the professional colleges of Libya and Saudi Arabia the students are aware of the importance of English for their studies and careers. But they don't have intermediate level of English language. The study also revealed their need to learn a mixture of general and specific English terminology, language forms and structures, and to develop satisfactory mastery of the four language skills.

Role of an ESP Teacher

In teaching ESP the role of the teacher is diverse and has several orientations. S/he has to perform many tasks at a time. An ESP teacher, apart from teaching should provide materials, design a syllabus, collaborate with subject specialists, conduct research and evaluate the course materials and the students. The teacher's role is also to organize the class, to be aware of class objectives, to have good understanding of the course content as well as flexible and willing to cooperate with learners and have at least some interest in the learner's discipline, so that the teacher can make his/her teaching interesting for the learners.

Dudley Evans and St. John (1998) describe the role of the ESP Teacher as being: 1) Teacher 2) Collaborator 3) Course Designer 4) Researcher and 5) Evaluator. Two more roles should be added to this list. They are the ESP teacher as a learner and a facilitator.

1. Teacher: The first role as teacher is the same as that of the General English teacher. It is the necessity for performing the other four roles by the ESP teacher that makes the difference between these two types of teaching. The teacher needs to understand what students expect and are willing to do as well as what they themselves expect of the students.

2. Practitioner: The ESP teacher is a practitioner**.** The teaching methodology changes when the teaching becomes specific. In order to meet the specific needs of the learners and adopt the methodology and functions of the target discipline, the ESP practitioner has to acquire the knowledge of the particular scientific discipline with which he or she is dealing, and understand the problems faced by the professions connected with that discipline.

3. Collaborator: To achieve these goals, collaboration with field specialists who may well be more familiar with the specialized content of materials than the teacher, may well prove to be helpful.

4. Researcher: An ESP teacher should also be a researcher to fulfill the student's needs. Firstly, the teacher should decide an objective as to what s/he is going to achieve. Research is necessary to design a course, to write teaching materials and to find out the ESP students' particular interests.

5. Evaluator: The ESP practitioner's role as evaluator is related to his or her conducting an ongoing evaluation of the students' progress and the effectiveness of ESP courses. In order for an ESP program to be successful, it would not be sufficient to identify learners' needs, and create syllabuses and adopt methodologies that serve these needs; one very important issue in the context of ESP is program assessment. Assessment involves an evaluation of the learners' ability to communicate effectively.

1. Learner: Fulfilling the functions of a teacher means that the teacher is also actively engaged in learning. Learning about themselves, the changes in their field, the expectations of the community and society and most importantly learning about their students and ways of enabling their students to grow and develop.

2. Facilitator: The role of the teacher has many facets but that of facilitating student learning is very important. The facilitator attempts to provide circumstances that will enable students to engage with the learning opportunities and construct for themselves their understandings and skills. This role will interact with those of teacher as learner, colleague and community partner.

Challenges faced by an ESP Teacher

ESP teachers often face challenge when they relate language instruction to the learner's respective fields. Most students regard English as a non main subject so that English is considered less important and they think that they can pass subject very easily. This attitude of course influences the teacher in teaching ESP at non English Departments. And the condition is even worse where the number of students in ESP class room is even greater than that at the general English class room. And ESP teachers often feel isolated from the professionals in their student's specialization as well as their colleagues in other institutions. It's like an alien territory and where they actually belong is another issue. These challenges may vary from place to place and there are some serious practical difficulties an ESP teacher faces and which are to be solved immediately. They are:

Lack of ESP tradition and guidelines: In the absence of authentic materials and with self direction ESP teachers are struggling to move ahead. The mismatch between reality and expectations, like the level of language competency learners have and lack of quality resources and heavy workload the ESP teachers have.

Lack of Specialist knowledge: ESP is not just limited to language for one specific discipline or occupation, such as English in Medicine, English for Law, Technical English, Business English, and English in Aviation, English in Tourism, English in Hospitality, and English for Engineering etc. The list is very long and how far is it humanly possible for an ESP teacher to get acquaintance with these many fields? Some researchers say that it is not necessary for an ESP teacher to learn all these subjects but unless ESP teachers know what the learner's field of specialization is and what the student's needs are, how can they do justice to the learner?

Lack of Course material: Lack of material in the ESP course is a big problem to an ESP teacher. The more specialized the course the greater the rarity of teaching materials. So one of the most important roles of an ESP teacher is planning the course and providing materials for it. For example, general instructions used for students of medicine today focus on medical terminology in the lessons. These teaching strategies replete with some simple dialogues about visits to the doctor's office and minor illnesses fail to meet the needs of the profession.

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Answers to these challenges can be had by doing the following:

Planning the learning
Following student assessment the teacher is in a better position to plan learning opportunities that will provide a fit with the student's needs and interests and thus optimize student learning opportunities. A part of this process is to determine student learning outcomes. The teacher will determine these outcomes as a result of the interplay between what is contained in the course documentation, the teacher's personal theories about teaching and learning and the teacher's assessment of student needs. Once the learning outcomes have been determined the teacher plans the unit outline and individual lessons.

Implementing the plan
This will include the classroom management and the teaching strategies that will cater for the varied learning styles of the students. It will also include the emotional climate of the classroom and the quality of the interactions between the students and the teacher.

Evaluating the process
As ESP courses are often tailor-made, their evaluation is crucial. It is possible to create one ESP course that would satisfy all ESP students. Therefore evaluation of such a course is a must. At the completion of a classroom session there will be an assessment of the learning that has taken place and this will inform following teaching.

Course Designing in ESP
Designing a course that can best serve learners' interests and needs is a big challenge to an ESP teacher. Adjusting the language to meet the needs of learners in specific context is very important and the choice of suitable methods and techniques is equally important in the ESP context. ESP is centered on the language appropriate to the activities of a given discipline. According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987:19), "ESP is an approach to language teaching in which all decisions as to content and method are based on the learner's reason for learning."

Key factors in designing the course
Many researchers agree that the key factors in designing the ESP course are as follows:

1. What learners want to achieve - what traditionally has been called "ESP needs".
2. The ability to use the technical jargon which is relevant to the student field of specialization.
3. The ability to use the language of everyday informal talk to communicate effectively regardless of occupational context
4. The ability to use a more generalized set of academic skills, such as note making, paraphrasing and conducting research.

The task of ESP developer is to ensure that all the above abilities are integrated in the curriculum, and of course it is very difficult to strike a balance of theses abilities with that of a group of learners. Except in using the technical jargon, the remaining three are common in teaching ESP and teaching EGP. It is very important to start the course-developing process with an analysis of the target group of students. Research in the field of adult education and the acquisition of a new language identifies that students are much more motivated to learn when they find value in the material. The student's level of competence in English language must be taken into consideration.

Conclusion

The content of the paper was determined by a need identified based on the author's professional experience as an ESP teacher in designing and delivering the content for students in Medicine and Dentistry in Libya and with the close watch on what is happening in Saudi in the ESP context. It would not be sufficient to identify learners' needs, and create syllabuses and adopt a methodology that serves these needs. The important issue is an assessment which involves an evaluation of the learner's ability to communicate effectively. Considering the hiatus between the assumptions and the reality about the learner's standards, general English should be incorporated in the ESP curriculum.

The designing of learning projects, the organization of scientific forums to voice the ESP teacher's concerns, and finally the production of a specialized literature, based on intensive research activities are highly recommended. Participation in seminars, conferences and business meetings is highly suggested for an ESP teacher along with doing some research projects in this area. And unless language teachers are trained enough to handle such situations and realize the idiosyncrasies of ESP, fruitful outcomes would never be reached.

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Exploring L1 mediated Lexical searches: Emerging Evidence from Beginner level Collaborative Writing

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Abstract: *The use of L1 in lexical searches while writing in L2 is often investigated from one of the three perspectives: the SLA perspective or the Sociocultural perspective or the writing process perspective but, in doing so the processes through which the L1navigates the access to L2 lexical choices and how it creates opportunities for further learning are left unexplored. This on-going study explores the nature of L1 mediated lexical searches in L2 collaborative writing by beginner level writers. 24 class VIII beginner level writers from a Zillah Parishad High School were paired on the basis of their existing writing capabilities using objective linguistic and semantic parameters and placed in one of the pairing conventions namely, Good in L1 and L2 (PC1); Good in L1 but satisfactory in L2 (PC2), Good in L2 but satisfactory in L1 (PC3) and satisfactory in L1 and L2 (PC4). The qualitative analysis of their collaborative dialogue suggests that dyad draw strategically on their L1 to mitigate the lexical difficulties. The study finds that the use of L1 in collaborative writing created opportunities for strategic learning that include procedural and conditional support. This paper presents the preliminary findings of the processes through which the dyads accessed L2 lexical items.*

Keywords: Beginner level Collaborative writing, L1 in L2 Lexical search episodes, Collaborative dialogue, cognitive apprenticeship.

Introduction: Situating Word Searches in the L2 Writing Research

Research in Second Language Writing has conscientiously found that writing for a bi/multilingual is a bi/multilingual activity where the 'other' languages that the learners possesses in their repertoire are activated and in myriad ways support and contribute to the complex thinking processes involved in 'L2 writing' (Grosjean 1989, Cook 2001; Cummins 2007). Findings report that the use of L1 in L2 writing occurs across proficiency levels (Qi 1998, Wang and Wen 2003), writing abilities (Schoonen et al., 2003; Pennington and So 1993), varying extents of prior writing instruction in L1 and/ or L2 (Kobayashi and Rinnert 2008, 2009), varying periods of 'naturalistic' exposure to L2 in countries where L2 is spoken as the L1 (Sasaki, 2004, 2009) and varying levels of task complexity (Wang 2002; Qi 1998, Murphy et al., 2010). Research speculates that this switch to the L1 is the outcome of a nexus of variables that involve writer-based, task-based and the language capability-based variables.

One of the major purposes for which the L1 is invariably drawn is word searches. A word search is any effort/process to access or retrieve a word or string of words (Sinclair 2004) in order to encapsulate the intended meaning. Woodall (2002) and Murphy and Roca De Larios (2010) find that their advanced level writers mitigated lexical searches in the L1. With beginner level writers, lack of automaticity in lexical access and availability can only exacerbate the difficulties experienced while writing. Our learners come with a major resource: a heuristic, cognitive, semiotic, linguistic and an experiential tool the L1, a tool that is relegated as a hindrance or interference, let alone acknowledged and valued in the pedagogic space. Nevertheless, learners use it "surreptitiously" as a problem solving tool. The next section reviews the use of L1 from three perspectives.

Reviewing word Searches: L1 use in L2 writing processes

In one of the most widely quoted monographs, Roca de Larios et al., (1996) investigated the lexical difficulties that beginner and intermediate EFL learners face. They report 4 major types of problems: accessing the relevant lexical item to represent the intended meaning (P1); access the relevant lexical item for an idea already generated in the L1(P2); access a lexical item that will upgrade an already generated lexical item (P3) and express appropriacy and correctness doubts on lexical options already available (P4). Given the nature of L2 writing as a slow, laborious and complex activity that involves simultaneous deployment and dispersion of resources along multiple dimensions (Robinson 2001), word problems exist at every stage of L2 writing, While planning, access to words is mandatory both as a guiding outline and as text representing the thought (Hayes and Nash, 1996). Transcription involves the conversion of the ideas from symbolic forms to linguistic representation and a relative degree of automaticity in word access and its graphical representation averts cognitive overloading (Berninger 2003) and allows for cognitive deployment of resources to other demands of writing (Robinson, 2001). Investigations of revision behaviour between L1 writing and L2 writing (Whalen and Menard 1995) and L2 revision (Porte 1996, Stevenson, Schoonen and De Goppler 2006) shows that most revisions are done at the word level and that these changes are mediated by a 'dissonance' between the intended meaning and the represented meaning (Hayes 1996) on the lines of word form or semantic value or use (Ferris 2002).

L1 in L2 Collaborative Writing

Studies from this analytical perspective draw on one of the most enigmatic tenets of Sociocultural Theory namely the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD). ZPD is the site where the social and the cognition interact to augment cognitive processes of higher level thinking (Rogoff 2003). The cognitive engagement and the microgenetic interactions that ensue in a joint activity have the potential to mediate learning and transform thought processes. Through this perspective “language is a psychological tool that mediates the appropriation of the higher mental capacities” (Gutierrez, 2000) and the L1 becomes a prime semiotic tool and mediational tool. The use of L1 while engaged in task execution serves two immediate functions: task accomplishment and self regulation for task navigation on the affective and cognitive plane, while at the same time it goes beyond the existing activity to augment and nurture cognitive capabilities (Rogoff 1990, 2003). However, one finds that the empirical focus of analysis of interactions has been theoretically substantiated and examined using two perspectives of learning: One, using tenets of Sociocultural Theory (SCT) where the use of L1 in collaborative interactions is seen as a semiotic tool that mediates cognitive capabilities and is operationalised as the Private Verbal Thinking (PVT). Two, from a Second Language Acquisition (SLA) perspective where using L1 in collaborative interactions is analysed as in terms of specific feature of the syntactic system of the second language being acquired via the use of L1 as Language Related Episodes (LREs). We briefly review both the analytical modalities.

L1 in L2 writing: the SLA Orientation to Word searches

SLA orientation sees the use of L1 as a means to acquire linguistic features of a language. Correspondingly, the focus of empirical investigation is either 'how much L1 is used' or the acquisition of specific L2 linguistic features or both through the analytical unit of Language Related Episode which Swain and Lapkin (1998: 326) "as any part of the dialogue where the students talk about the language they are producing, questioning their language use, or correct themselves or others". In that order, empirical enquiry regarding L1 use and its relationship between proficiency levels, task types and LREs has dominated this analytical orientation. Empirical studies have investigated whether the use of L1 in collaboration initiates LREs (Swain and Lapkin 2000); which task types trigger the most LREs (Swain and Lapkin, 1998); impact of task complexity on the nature of LREs (De Collina and Mayo (2009); Storch and Aldosari 2010) and type of LREs (Abadikhah, 2011).

Storch and Wigglesworth (2007) contend that the nature of the task decides the type of LREs generated. Their investigation of the collaborative dialogue generated by their advanced level post graduates writing on two tasks: an argumentative task and a narrative tasks, has interesting findings. The argumentative task generated 52.4% of total lexical LREs where as the narrative task generated 41.6% of form based LREs indicating that task complexity and word searches could be correlated. This finding was reported by Storch and Aldosari (2010) who report that up to 46% of L1 use is directed towards lexical searches. Text reconstruction task rather than text construction task triggers more LREs and this difference is attributed due to the very nature of the two tasks..

Extensive research in this direction has resulted in a fine-tuned taxonomy of LREs. From this perspective, word searches have been perceived as a major difficulty and so have received considerable attention from the learners. However, the narrow focus of analysis with the nature of talk restricted to just LREs undermines its capability in creating further learning opportunities that aid in augmenting L2 writing capability. In this analytical orientation, the focus has been on how the L1 augments linguistic and metalinguistic features. A word search is seen as a a linguistic component or a spelling focuses or as meaning focus and learning as acquiring that system since the focus is operationalised as LREs.

L1 in L2 Collaborative Writing: the Sociocultural Orientation to Word Searches

This theoretical orientation has engaged with the problem solving Private Speech (PS) in L1 that occurs during a collaborative task as it is seen as an evidence of the higher psychological processes. Addressing a fundamental question of what the source of L2 problem solving speech is, Ushakova argues that learning an L2 is "primarily consisting of incorporating and plugging the newly established structures into the ones already worked out earlier, as well as in employing already existing verbal skills" and that it is "looking into the windows cut out by the first language" (1994: 134).

Research finds that through the use of L1 (English) the third-year-high-school learners established a shared understanding of the task, set task goals and commented on their L2 use (Brooks and Donato, 1994); the learners as capable of supporting their learning processes De Guerrero and Villamil, 2000); learners can simultaneously be experts and novices (Dalute and Dalton, 1988); that the problem solving nature of the talk is bidirectional (Wells 1998) and that the L1 was deployed at the inter-psychological function level to create scaffolds for successful completion of the task, for metalinguistic evaluation of a word and its meaning in

context (Anton and De Camilla, 1998). Anton and De Camillia (1998) contend that the use of L1 "triggers a semantic analysis and a related lexical search, a communicative strategy that leads the learners to jointly access the L2 forms that are available to them and are sufficient for the task" (p. 323) and that "the use of L1 externalises one's inner voice and channelizes one's mental activity and thus realize their levels of potential development" (320).

Centeno-Cortes and Jimenez Jimenez (2004) question if the nature of L1 use in would vary with task difficulty and L2 proficiency levels. The qualitative analysis of the talk showed variations across the proficiency levels and the tasks. The authors conclude that L2 language proficiency along with the nature of the task influences the production of L1 private speech and that cognitive load experienced by the participants is managed by a shift to the L1 and that the L1 acts as the tool for thought. This view positions the use of L1 in interactions as a productive mode of augmenting learning. If learning is the aim of all transactions then interactions initiated in the L1 becomes a "powerful opportunity" for learning (1998: 349-350). We contend that the porosity of social exchanges that are public, also serve private means of arriving at linguistic and/ or affective and/ or regulatory purposes through the use of a "language of thought to appropriate the language of the task".

Across the three sets of reviews the L1 is either seen as a deficiency strategy or as a mediator for acquiring L2 linguistic features or as a problem solving semiotic tool. What is obviously missing is how the use of L1 navigated and mitigated a word search especially by a beginner level writer. This study is an attempt to explore the same. We operationalise this gap in the following question:

How does the L1 navigate and mitigate the L2 lexical searches in beginner level writers?

Method and Procedures

This study is a part of our doctoral research. Therefore the data analysed here forms a part of a larger body of data collected for our doctoral study. In the wider study, 24 participants wrote 3 tasks in L2 as pairs. Their talk was recorded and transcribed. The present study draws on the lexical searches that the participants engaged in while writing.

Design and Participants

24 Class VIII participants from a government-run Zillah Parishad High School participated in the study. These students have had no writing instruction in the classroom space and all the writing that the participants do is either copied from the black board or from the guides.

The participants were paired into four pairing conventions based on their existing writing capabilities in their L1 and L2 as Good in L1 and L2 (PC1); Good in L1 but satisfactory in L2 (PC2), Good in L2 but satisfactory in L1 (PC3) and satisfactory in L1 and L2 (PC4). To do so the writers individually attempted two sets of writing assessment tasks in L1 and L2. The written texts were analysed using prior identified linguistic parameters pertaining to accuracy, fluency and complexity limits pertaining to beginner level writers. Based on the information generated from the text analysis the participants were paired as mentioned above. This pairing was triangulated using semantic parameters, the scores on the school test and teachers' opinions.

Data collection and Analysis Procedures:
The instruments used in this study were three collaborative writing tasks of increasing cognitive complexity. No modelling of the collaboration was done so that any influence of specific focus of talk could be ruled out. Similarly instructions to the writers were given in the L1 and no trial run was done. The participants were given 35 minutes to write each task but many a pair exceeded the time limit. The talk generated while collaborating on the three tasks was recorded and transcribed. In order to avoid laboratory and artificial settings of study, all the 12 pairs were recorded at the same time in the classroom.

For the larger study, we adopted a mixed-method approach to examining the data so that both quantitative and qualitative analysis was possible. Our coding procedures accommodated the cognitive problem solving nature of the collaborative talk and simultaneously allowed for the effect of the social on the nature of problem solving to be perceivable. So the entire text production process was seen as one large episode with smaller and more focused episodes nested in it. Once the coding categories were identified, we adopted the onion-ring model of analysis where the collaborative dialogue was analysed in three inclusive levels of complexity. The first level analysed the broader composing episodes: Cognitive Episodes, Transcription Related Episodes and Socio Affective Episodes. The second level looked for smaller and more focused episodes nested in each of the broader episodes identified in the first level of analysis. The third level is the microgenetic moment-by-moment analysis of each of the smaller episodes in order to explore the variances in the nature of help the L1 provided. All incidents of word searches which include accessing words and word choice interactions were included in this analysis. Each word search was considered to be a single unit regardless of the number of internal steps involved. Those word searches that resulted in a 'solution' were qualitatively analysed. Search attempts abandoned or postponed are not a part of the qualitative analysis of this study. We use data from the third level of analysis to address the research question in this paper.

Analysis and Discussion:
Our objective is to examine the pedagogic support that L1 lends the lexical search if there could be a qualitative difference in how the L1 is used across the PCs for problem solving lexical searches, we identified critical episodes for each PC in order to glean out how the L1was used in mitigating the problem. Based on the sequence of how the L1 was drawn upon to mitigate the word search, we identified 4 patterns.

Excerpt 1: L1 Lexical Generation - Translated L2 word generation - Back Translation and Evaluation Sequence:

1. S: … there are (2) .. vankara tinkara ni english lo emiantaroo? (***what do we say twisted/ crooked as In*** English?)
2. R: up and down aaa? (***is it up and down?)***
3. ***S:*** kindha meeda kaadu. Vankaratinkara ***(No it is not up and down. Crooked?***
4. ***R:*** vankaraaaa? (***Is it cross?)***
5. ***S:*** plants are.. grow… crossaaa? (***do we say plants grow cross?)*** Ok. Lets write Plants are growing crossly…(both of them giggle) …**(PC1p11T3L2)**

Lally (2000) and Wang and Wen (2003) suggest that one of the primary purposes for using the mother tongue is to generate idea units or chunk of expressions. These ideas have to be converted into the L2 and depending on a host of factors the transcription can be a fairly automatic process to a laborious one. Across the excerpts a common feature is that the learners mediate the processes in their L1. Excerpt 1 begins with S generating a pre-text. The structure of the idea is already decided but she brings in her L1 to ask what an equivalent for the word 'vankara-tinkara' could be. S generated a term in L1 and the pair began looking for equivalents in L2. R proposes 'up and down' which S rejects. Back-translating into L1 for evaluating its meaning against the intended meaning in the pre-text is a strategy that Murphy et al., (2010) advanced learners exhibit. R now generates another word 'cross' which S now uses in the pre-text to check for suitability, accepts the word and frames the text. Notice that both the girls giggle after they have decided to use the word. It is possible that the girls are aware that the term used may not be completely appropriate but they nevertheless accept it. As Whalen and Menard (1995) report that the aptness of the term in L1 is not often reflected in their translated choices.

This pair has used their L1 strategically after generating the term in L1- accessed the assumed L2 equivalents, back-translated to evaluate appropriateness and then make decisions to either use or discard. Recall that PC1 is considered to be good in both the languages. A term identified in the L1 triggered memory searches in the L2. It should also be noticed that the semantic equivalency is the focus here and the L2 terms that were generated did pertain to that condition. Also notice that a solution was arrived at in 5 turns indicating that the word search was fairly automatic.

Excerpt 2: L1 Word Generation- L1 Synonym Generation corresponding- L2 Synonym Equivalent Generation-Back Translating Evaluation Sequence.

1. P: There are two suns.
2. S: two suns are.. nizam gaa untadaa***? (can there really be two suns?).***
3. P: rayi raa ***(please write***.. two suns .. (5-10)
4. S: udayisthunnadu ***(dawn)***…
5. P; ante? English lo anti? teacher ni adugu..(***What? How do we say in English? Let's ask the teacher)***.
6. S: No. (voddu..udayisthunnaduuu…ante english lo enti)..Sumitra Dawn…***how do we say it in English?*** Sumitra (calls another pair close by for help but continues to work on the problem)…. paiki vasthunnadu aa? (***Can it be coming up?)***
7. P: podhu yekkindhi ani (***It has dawned)***.
8. S: kaani adhi english lo kashtam… sun is coming anochu (***But how will we say that in English? It is difficult. We can say the*** Sun is coming.)
9. P: Sun is climbing….. anochuu…ahaan adi yekkadam. Idi rising raa! (***we can say climbing up. No. that is climbing. It is rising***!) There are…. two suns are
10. S: two suns are…
11. P; s-u-n-s are … rising aa? Come out aa? to come out ani rayi ***(Is it rising or to come out? Write to come out)***.
12. S: : aaa? Come out aa? Voddu..rising (*What? To come out? No!* ***Let's use rising!)***

PC2p23T2L2.

This episode begins after the content has been decided. Through lines 1 to 4, S asks whether there can in reality ever be two suns, to which P chooses not to answer. He implores S to continue to write. S generates the L1 term which in L2 would be 'dawn'. In the next set of interactions S and P suggest they seek help from others but do not do so and continue to work on their own. In lines 6, 7, 8 and 9 P and S come out with alternative synonymous words in L1 and then look for their semantic equivalents in L2. Terms like dawn, coming, climbing, rising and coming out (near equivalents of the L1 terms) were evaluated in terms of difficulty in getting an L2 equivalent and in terms of appropriacy. In line 9, P probably translates 'yekkindhi' a phrase he retrieved from line 8, back translates, evaluates for appropriacy and rejects the word. He generates 'rising' which is accepted by S who begins to transcribe. In line 11, P is not sure of his word and suggests coming but S decides to use 'rising'.

Cognitively this episode can be considered to be complex owing to the fact that alternative synonym generation of lexicals happened in L1 and against each of them an L2 equivalent was explored. Like PC1, back translation was used as an evaluatory tool to check for appropriacy in terms of their intended meaning. This interesting episode shows that a larger repertoire of word knowledge in the L1 can surreptiously and at times overtly aid in semantically equating L2 words and help in making conceptual links (Ushakova 1990; Jarvis and Pavlenkov 2007). Additionally, the learners have strategically used their L1 as a cognitive tool for 'solution focus'. Generating alternative synonyms in L1 and trying to access their respective individual equivalents in L2, juggling with and between languages for lexicals and evaluating the language generated with the meaning appropriacy in focus are indicative of and tap further the cognitive divergence and capabilities of a bi/ multilingual. It appears that availability of a richer L1 word knowledge and correspondingly accessibility can trigger word searches in the long term memory and can link word knowledge in other languages.

Excerpt 3: L1 Generation - L2 Synonym Generation- Semantic Evaluation Sequence

1. B: but manam alla pattukommu ***(we don't hold babies like that)*** our people….
   ethokovadam ni emi antaaru.. amma pillalni emi antaaru? (***What do you say 'hold/carry'? …. Mother child… what do you say that?)***
2. N: catch.. pattuko..catch raa (***Catch ..it is*** catch).
3. B: : arey cricket kaadu raa….pillalu..lift aa? aahan… ethukovadam…(***This is not cricket… children…is it lift? No… 'hold'***) our planet people ethukovadam (***hold/carry)*** their children.
4. N: carry.. moyyadam raa adhi (***it is 'carry').***
5. B: ledu anthey (***No! that's it***). carry children,.. babies.. **PC3p32T2L2**

In line 1 B generates both a content idea unit and a lexical term. He triggers N's thought processes by questioning what 'pattukovadam' would be in English. The term triggers a memory search and the word 'catch' is seen as suitable for the context. However, B locates the word in the context of the game cricket and says that their text is not about cricket. He goes on to transcribe the content unit into a pretext with just that word in L1. Probably the utterance of the entire pre-text generates the word 'carry'. B rejects it initially, remains silent for about 5 seconds, decides to go ahead with the word 'carry' and evaluates it using it in the pre-text.

Notice that there is no obvious back translation but there seems to be conceptual; evaluation in place for rejecting L2 alternative 'catch' which is a term that supposedly exists in the conceptual domain of cricket and not in child-care. Again it can be speculated that the periods of silence (indicated by three or more dots) are periods where there is a lot of sub-vocal thought processing happening which neither the recording instruments nor our methodology could capture. The "No!" as a decisive evaluation of 'carry' and the period of silence after which he decides to use 'carry', are suggestive of an internal evaluatory dialogue which is highly solution focused. L1 is used as a conceptual evaluatory device.

Excerpt 4: Cross Pair Talk- Word to Word Evaluation Sequence.

1. D: K 22 B lo…
2. R: in.. in pettali (***You must use IN***). . in K 22 B in..
3. D; manam rassaamu two suns akada rendu suryudlu vunntaayi ***(we have written that there are two suns here)*** there are two suns are there…
4. R: there are two suns that is all.
5. D: and three moons are there…
6. R: it is are.
7. D: ahan idi idi kalipi oke saari.. rendu suryulu vunnayi ***(no! let us connect these two and write that two suns and three moons are there.)*** Aa?
8. R: three moons… okesarri vasthayi … okesari ante.. one time..here aa? Kavitha okesaari ante ente?(***are present/seen at a time …what does 'at a time' mean? Does it mean they are here at*** one time? Kavitha ***what does ' at a time' mean?***
9. D: vallu ade raasthunnaru ***(I think they are also writing the same point***.)
10. R: krishnaveni…
11. D: okesaari ante enti? (***What does 'at a time mean***?)
12. Krishnaveni: sentence cheppu ***(tell me the sentence first. Sentence).***
13. D: sun moon oke saari kanipisthay ani..(***we can see the sun and the moon at the same time***.)
14. Kavitha: o one time..
15. Krishna: same time..
16. D: correct. Same time… oke time lo ***(at one***) time oke saari vasthayi (..Lets write ***they come at the same time sky)***. ***At the same time at a time***- Come on the same time aa?
17. R:Sun and moon come same time …sky lo vunnay (***in the sk)***. There (vunnaayi) is.. there are …(**PC4p43t2L2)**

With respect to PC4, we found quite a considerable number of searches regarding both content and functional words (especially connectors). The excerpt is an e.g. of what Menard et al (1995) Wang (2003) and Roca De Larios (1996) call the 'translation strategy' where a word to word generation in L1 is accompanied by a word to word translation in L2 as a tactic that keeps the 'writing boat' from sinking. Through Lines 1 to 7 the pair is involved in thematic content generation as Pre-texts in L1, translating it, connecting two pieces of pre-texts and explaining the connection to the other partner. It is this need to connect that leads to another content unit and initiates the lexical search in Line 8. R who generates the L1

word triggers L2 word searches. Excerpt 2 shows the L1 word first triggering synonymous words in L1for which L2 equivalents are generated. Excerpt 3 shows the opposite of what we had observed in excerpt 2. The L1 word triggers synonymous L2 words which are then cross checked for appropriacy. However, excerpt 4 shows the word to word translation. Recall that this PC consist of dyads whose L1 and L2 writing is considered to be satisfactory. It appears that the inclusion of a word in the text has to go through an assessment of whether the word can be a part the text. Therefore all the PCs used back-translation for an assessment of the word's appropriacy at three levels: the semantic, the conceptual and the text level.

The study shows how learners spontaneously and intuitively banked on their resources for their text creation processes. Through L1 and the use of L1 the dyads arrived at a common understanding of the problem at hand. The existing language capability mediated the application of other psychological tools in their problem solving. Several pedagogical implications arise from this problem solving behaviour. Allowing the learners to bank on the resources they already possess for their learning rather than imposing means and strategies from outside could be the first step.. As teachers the need to raise awareness of these resources that the learners already posses by deliberately nurturing them through classroom based collaborative activities. The need to value, tap, nurture and sharpen the L1 'tool kit' demands immediate attention.

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[i] Text construction expects a text to be created around a topic but a text reconstruction tasks is more a grammatically inclined task since deliberate inclusion of errors along a specific linguistic focus is done and the learners are expected to rectify them.

[ii] Translating is as much a complex task as generating and transcribing. Trying to give as near as possible meanings for the terms that the learners generated with ease in their L1 turned out to be a tough task for the researcher. We sought help from 2 other plurilinguals and made changes accordingly.

[iii] Menard et al. (1995) talk of the simultaneous generation and translation as a strategy low proficient students/ writers adopt as against translation as a strategy for higher proficiency writers. They argue that the difference lies in the focus on functionality, intentionality and solution-seeking effort of the intended message.

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The Notion of *Second Languages*: Responding to Today's Linguistic Ecologies

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Abstract: *This paper presents the results of an ongoing reflection for the past two years around the debates on English and languages within an academic team in charge of a new MA program in Colombia. In this paper, the author argues that the traditional binary opposition between second and foreign language, while useful in the past, may no longer be responding to the new language ecologies that technology and social mobility, among others, are proposing. The paper will first describe the current landscape, problematizing the idea of foreign language as a matter that transcends linguistic or geographic distinctions and that, when carefully analyzed, has turned into a source for unequal language practices. Then, the discussion will turn into how the notion of* second languages *(in plural) espoused by the MA program has become an alternative that opens new spaces to address issues of learning and equity, while being mindful of the new social contexts that have emerged for languages today. Some implications for education and research will bookend the discussion.*

Keywords: Second languages, learning, teaching, education, English, world languages

Introduction

English Language Teaching has recently found itself pondering how to respond to new and more complex demands (Graddol, 1997) as triggered by education itself, technology, and new views of languages. Ideas such as the postmethod (Kumaravadivelu, 2003, 2008), communicative tasks (Nunan, 2004; Vallejo Gómez & Martínez Marín, 2011), new links between language teaching and technology (Mora, 2011a; Mora, Martínez, Alzate-Pérez, Gómez-Yepes, & Zapata-Monsalve, 2012), ideas about diversity (Blommaert, 2012) and cosmopolitanism (Bennett, 1993; Bennett & Bennett, 2004; Golovatina, 2006; Golovátina-Mora, 2012a; Golovátina-Mora & Mora, 2011; Mora & Golovátina-Mora, 2011a, b) are an affirmation that the way we learn and teach English is changing. In addition, emerging concepts such as World Englishes (Canagarajah, 2003; Rajagopalan, 2004; 2010) and English as a *Lingua Franca* (Seidlhofer, 2005; Llurda, 2012) are inviting us to rethink the traditional models and find ways to address all these new realities. Therefore, we must find better ways to prepare our teachers from conceptual and practical standpoints.

As a language, English has the potential to be a tool for cooperation and comprehension, yet we must also be wary of how it can marginalize people (Luke, 2004; Pennycook, 2001). It ultimately depends on how we define it and frame it to respond to the new linguistic landscapes and configurations we find today. One key concern for researchers and educators is to promote definitions that transcend hegemonic (Gramsci, 1971) and unequal (Bourdieu, 1991) practices. In this regard, there is the growing question about the relevance and validity of the division between "second" and "foreign" languages (Bhatt, 2010; Nayar, 1997; Mora, 2011b). In recent years, scholars have questioned how this dichotomy addresses societal evolution of the uses of English (Graddol, 1997; Nayar, 1997). These concerns continue arising and the question of whether we should continue talking about "EFL" is louder than ever (Graddol, 2006; Mora, 2012c, d, e). This is especially relevant when technology has provided new forms of mobility (Blommaert & Rampton, 2011), turning language into a resource (Jørgensen, Karrebæk, Madsen, & Møller, 2011) rather than a monolithic entity.

This paper is the result of a process of academic reflexivity (Bourdieu & Wacquant, 1992; Mora, 2011c, 2012a) within a new MA program at Universidad Pontificia Bolivariana in Colombia. In this MA in "Learning and Teaching Processes in Second Languages" (Mora, 2013), my colleagues and I have taken a stand to stop defining English in terms of second/foreign and think about *second languages* (Saville-Troike, 2006; Skutnabb-Kangas& McCarty, 2008). In our recent academic discussions about this notion (Mora, 2012c, d, e), we have argued that the notion of second languages becomes a necessary step to rethink today's language ecologies and in the search of more equitable frameworks for language learning and teaching today. To discuss our argument, I will first introduce a brief overview of the traditional binary and why it has become increasingly problematic. Then, I will discuss the program's notion of *second languages*, how we are framing it, and some potential implications for language research. While brief, the ideas in this paper are nothing but an invitation to join the conversation, as the matters of language equity are a uniting factor for language researchers and advocates in every corner of our planet.

Reviewing and Problematizing a Traditional Binary

It may not come as a surprise to most if we think about the framework to describe languages that permeated our learning process, especially those who became language teachers. We learned that there was a traditional distinction about languages different from one's mother tongue. We discussed the idea of "second" languages, meaning languages learned in countries where the language had an "official" status and people used it outside of schools and in their everyday lives. On the other hand, there was this notion called "foreign" languages, or those learned where said languages were "not official" and were mostly the domain of schools (Saville-Troike, 2006; VanPatten & Benati, 2010). In this binary, oftentimes mutually exclusive, one's competence in the language was always measured against that of "native speakers" (Cook, 1999; Mahboob, 2005; Medgyes, 1992, 2001; Moussu & Llurda, 2008). Thus, the closer one leaned toward that native ideal, the better and more qualified speaker one would be.

Needless to say, the existence of the binary and the figure of the native speaker as the only source of validation had some implications. For instance, the binary gave credence to the belief that unless one "lived" abroad, one would never learn the target language properly and that any other efforts would never yield optimal results. This also implied that schools would have to make any efforts to bring "real" and "authentic" language to the classroom, understanding these notions as incorporating materials created *for* and *by* native speakers of a language. Finally, this push for authenticity endorsed the figure of the native speaker as the legitimate language authority, an image that media and language schools themselves helped perpetuate (Mora & Muñoz Luna, 2012).

The Problem with the Binary

While the second/foreign language binary remains popular (in many cases, it is dogma), it does not mean there has not been any scrutiny around it. In fact, different scholars (Bhatt, 2010; Graddol, 1997, 2006; Mora, 2011a; Nayar, 1997) have raised questions about the limitations of the idea of "foreign" language and how it is not responding to today's language ecologies. I will discuss some of these points in this section.

The first problem that my colleagues and I have found regarding foreign language is the use of geography as a source of distinction (Mora, 2012d, e). The notion of second and foreign languages stems from *where* you are, assuming that where you are automatically validates the social uses and contexts of language. However, as recent studies on diversity and language have argued (e.g. Blommaert & Rampton, 2011), technology mediation has changed the landscape of how people interact with each other and has expanded the possibilities for communication (Mora, 2012c). The new configurations for language use that are arising from technology are undeniable (Thorne & Black, 2008) and having frameworks that disregard these realities would only cause more inequalities.

A second problem in the FL framework is the link between number of users and proficiency. If one only relied on statistics such as number of native speakers and speakers beyond the B2 level from the Common European Framework (Council of Europe, 2001), then it may hold true that there are only a handful of places where a language like English is a second language. However, language is fluid (Otsuji & Pennycook, 2010) and language users are becoming more creative about how to use to convey meaning in social settings (Jørgensen, et al., 2011). Today's realities show us that for some people, proficiency is not going to get in the way of their desire to use a language as a resource to expand the possibilities to express their thoughts and dreams, as Jørgensen and colleagues (2011) have argued in their discussions of language as a resource.

Then, there is a more literal matter in the idea of "foreign": Its actual meaning. While preparing some presentations about this issue (Mora, 2012d, e), I decided to look up the different meanings of "foreign" found in the dictionary. The definition of foreign showed me the following words: "alien", "not connected or pertinent" (Merriam-Webster), "strange or unfamiliar" (dictionary.com), "not germane; irrelevant" (thefreedictionary.com), "borrowed, distant, estranged, external, inaccessible, remote, strange, unexplored, unfamiliar" (thesaurus.com). All these ideas seem to relate to the same notion: that something "foreign" is something that does not belong to me. In the middle of this discussion with one of my undergraduate classes in 2012, one of my students started wondering how, if a language is something I use to communicate with others, a language cannot belong to us.

Some of these questions are not necessarily our creation. In recent years, a growing school of thought has risen to question the second/foreign binary and whether is it worth sustaining it (Graddol, 2006). Ideas such as World Englishes (Bruthiaux, 2010; Canagarajah, 2006; Rajagopalan, 2004), English as a *lingua franca* (Seidlhofer, 2005; Llurda, 2012), and regional varieties of English (Higgins, 2009; Jordan, 2011) are now raising questions about what the kind of standards we are using today and how valid they are in light of the expansion of English in today's world. Questions about some features of language acquisition that transcend location and are simply germane to learning at large (Ospina Lopera & Montoya Marín, 2012; VanPatten & Benati, 2010) have also triggered questions about what really constitutes a foreign language. There is also the influx of technology (Black, 2009; Labbo & Place, 2010) and how online media are providng more ways to access information and language learning resources that offer other possibilities to practice languages. We have also witnessed the emergence of ideas such as *additional language* (Thorne & Black, 2008) and *new language* (*nueva lengua*, Sanz, 2006) that are permeating other languages such as Spanish and Portuguese as ideas that reflect the new social interactions that languages are triggering today.

Finally, there is a large matter of language equity (Skutnabb-Kangas, 2000) that we must address: The notions of second and foreign language, while binary, are *not* mutually exclusive and one can, in fact, find second language learning frameworks in otherwise called "foreign language" countries. The problem with this distinction is that is, more often than not, socially stratified (Finn, 2009). As some of my colleagues and I have observed, there are schools in Colombia (and I am certain this would happen in many other countries) whose students have access to state-of-the-art learning facilities, with access to computers for every student, extended hours for English instructions (sometimes taking up between ¼ and ½ of the academic schedule), including content-based instruction in science, math, and other subjects, the presence of native speaker teachers, immersion programs on a yearly basis, and other benefits. At the same time, there are schools that may have the English curriculum in place, yet lack the teachers to teach it. When you have schools with such copious resources, one cannot talk about "foreign" language anymore and what is happening instead is that second language instruction becomes a commodity that only a wealthy few can afford. A situation like this, from a human rights perspective (Mora, 2004) is by all means unacceptable and therefore we need other frameworks to reframe language learning and teaching.

The Notion of *Second Languages*: Pluralization toward Plurality

Our reflections and discussions in the MA program have led us to the point where we have chosen to talk about *second languages*, as a plural term. Our understanding of second languages begins from the notion of any languages learned *in addition* to one's mother tongue (Skutnabb-Kangas & McCarty, 2008). Whether one learns these languages at the same time or after the L1 is not a deciding factor, as some learning processes are related and transferable regardless of sequence (VanPatten & Benati, 2010). Equally important is the idea that the idea of second languages is not sequential (Saville-Troike, 2006). The pluralization of *languages* means that in a real-life context, any one language could be the second at a specific moment. The idea of second languages is then an approximation to concepts such as additional or new languages, as it acknowledges the diversity in language learning and that speakers may adopt other languages for a myriad or reasons, while advocating that adopting a second language in one specific scenario should never come to the detriment of other languages users already possess, even their mother tongue.

The notion of second languages becomes then a moment to recognize and even celebrate the diversity of contexts for language use (Carrió Pastor, 2010) and the emergence of new physical (Otsuji & Pennycook, 2010) and virtual (Black, 2009) spaces to learn and use languages. It also highlights the dynamic character of languages (Jørgensen, et al., 2011), and how new communities of practice (Lave, 1991; Lave & Wenger, 1991) have arisen because of affinities in interests and hobbies (Black, 2009), where second languages become a source of unity. Talking about second languages also helps us understand that language learning today, whether English (Graddol, 2006) or otherwise, operates at a different pace, one that users themselves may actually dictate, thus providing further relevance to those local varieties of languages (Higgins, 2009; Jordan, 2011) and inviting us not to disqualify them as "inferior" blends of the so-called "standard" forms. Our work toward defining second languages also takes into consideration the constant appearance of new forms of text creation (Cope & Kalantzis,, 2009; Kress, 2003, 2010), including all the new forms of authorship and language use that Web 2.0, ICTs, and the digital world keep offering (Black, 2009; Mora, 2012c).

The Notion of *Second Languages*: Implications

Thinking about second languages as a way to break the traditional paradigm of second/foreign language is an invitation to rethink beliefs and practices, inside and outside the classrooms, and to rethink what it means to learn and teach languages today. We believe that a notion like this requires revisiting what we understand as "authentic" or "real" language. It can no longer be something that is the property of native speakers. Authentic language should be any form of language that one can use outside of class (Bedoya González, 2012), regardless of one's standing as "native" or "non-native" speaker. Language, then, is real if one uses it to share and discuss things that matter to one's life and communities. It is not geography, but social settings which should make language real. This also means that we need to rethink what immersion means. As Mora and colleagues argued,

> Immersion, in our view, can also be about using the target language to discover features about our own culture and communities. This would be, then, the first step before sharing our findings about ourselves with others around the world (Mora, Martínez, Zapata-Monsalve, Alzate-Pérez, & Gómez-Yepes, 2012, p. 2097)

This definition of second language is also an invitation for teachers to take risks. Teachers need to play with language and technology in class (Mora, et al., 2012a, b) and claim ownership of the language because they can use to communicate with their students. That also means that teachers and language researchers must learn more about how people are using English and other languages outside of school (Hull & Schultz, 2001) and how those languages help rethink those contexts. It also implies that we have to ask deeper questions about what it means to learn languages today; especially when those are languages you might later teach. That latter question needs to be an essential part of professional development programs.

Our notion of second languages is also an invitation toward advocacy. While, as Mora and Muñoz Luna (2012) argued, this is not about "protectionism for protectionism's sake" (p.0418), it is important to call for equitable frameworks where teachers are valued for what is truly important. It is not fair that teachers' accents are more important than their content and pedagogical knowledge (Cook, 1999; Mora & Muñoz Luna, 2012), and as a community we have to become more active in how policy and curriculum are fostering or hindering these visions of teachers.

Finally, in this view of second languages and in the pluralizing of *languages*, there is also an invitation to revisit how we talk about <bilingualism> (Golovátina-Mora, 2012a, b; Mora, 2012b). We are worried that bilingualism has become the ultimate goal, when it should actually be the beginning of a much larger journey in language learning (Mora & Golovátina-Mora, 2011a). We believe that in this second languages framework, we need to think about how to move toward multilingualism (Pattanayak, 2000), all within the promotion of more humane language practices (Caney, 2001) and a more genuine appreciation for local languages (McCarty, 2009).

Coda: The Challenges Ahead

I have presented in this paper both a manifesto and a blueprint. Talking about *second languages* at a conceptual level will not suffice. We need to look very carefully at the realities of our schools and work toward more equitable practices while raising strong questions about our rationales and agendas to use English. Our team has proposed the idea of second languages as a way to start maximizing the best resource available in schools: the people who teach and learn there.

We cannot disregard the reality that English, for instance, can be a tool for either social awareness (Freire, 1979) or inequality (Pennycook, 2001). As teachers and teacher educators, we need to ask ourselves what kind of language speakers we want to prepare, keeping in mind that high competence should never happen at the expense of dehumanizing language users. This framework and the reflections of this paper are nothing but an invitation to work together to meet the new challenges that today's language ecologies are facing. As the author of these lines, I can only hope that readers will find the same inspiration that my colleagues and I have found as we prepare, through our academic endeavors, to meet these challenges and start envisioning solutions toward more equitable language practices.

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Extensive Reading and Vocabulary Development: A Learner Centered Approach

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Abstract: *This paper aims to highlight the importance of extensive reading as a means to improve proficiency in second language learning. It has been observed that learners have lost an interest in reading and they rarely read. They were observed to read less in their leisure time. One of the reasons could be the way reading is approached in the language class. The reading skill is often taught by close study of short passages (intensive reading) followed by analysis of language. The selection of the reading material is mostly at the hands of the teachers and most of the time it is graded according to the level that the teacher presume is adequate or necessary for the learners. So a change in approach is felt. It is believed that if the responsibility of selecting material is handed over to students, it can lead to effective learning, in terms of acquisition of the reading skill as well as an enhancement of vocabulary. In order to find out the effectiveness of implementing extensive reading as a tool for vocabulary development, an experiment was conducted with undergraduate technical students. Results indicated that students gained confidence in using the target language, actively participated in the tasks designed and developed their analytical skills. With the help of this method, students were exposed to new words and practiced them with their peers while also involving themselves in the tasks. This led to an improved self-esteem. In an age of ever-changing technologies it is felt that teachers renew their efforts to teach traditional reading and analytical skills with the help of new and modern methodology.*

Keywords: Extensive reading, vocabulary, newspapers, learner-centred approach, context, guessing, dictionary, strategy.

Introduction:

Good communication skills are a requisite in all kinds of situations whether at home or at the workplace. In India students come from varied academic backgrounds with varying knowledge of the English language. They often find it difficult to express themselves even in basic communication situations. To take the example of the undergraduate Engineering students pursuing their 4 year degree course from Mumbai University, these students are supposed to undergo training in order to improve their four basic skills that is, reading, writing, speaking and listening as part of their requirement in the subject Communication Skills. It is expected that students, after the completion of this course, would be able to communicate effectively, become better readers, inculcate the habit of listening, develop confidence in conversation, and produce clarity of ideas. However, it has been observed that students lack the impetus to learn how to communicate effectively in English. One of the reasons could be the dominance of the first language in day to day conversation. The need for communicating in English is not felt and as such it is considered to be a language only for the elite class or those who have opted to learn this language as part of their mainstream course. This has resulted in lowering the confidence level of the students to communicate in the required target language. Another factor which is predominantly evident in most educational institutions is that teachers tend to impart information through the first language as they want to reach out to a wider group of students. Students become habituated to such kind of instruction and they make little or no effort to comprehend the subject in English. The evaluation procedure also does not seem to highlight the need to be proficient in English and students overcome their communication difficulty with rote learning and memorization.

With the advent of technology and globalization, the demand for communicating in English is sensed everywhere. The fundamental requirement in all job-related advertisements is 'should have excellent communication skills', regardless of the level of the vacancy. It is almost a truism that English as a second language has now become English as a first language.

In the present scenario it becomes a necessity for all language teachers to develop a teaching methodology that will be able to fulfill the requirements for employment as well as to enable students to communicate with ease. The researcher in this paper has designed a teaching methodology for the skill of reading as it is believed that the development of this skill will enable the students directly or indirectly to acquire the skill of speaking, writing, listening and also lead to vocabulary expansion. Moreover, the need for the development of reading skill seemed to be paramount as students view reading as a naturally acquired skill. Therefore, in the view of this researcher, reading need not be taught in the class.

Another reason for the need to enrich reading skills is because college students are observed to read less in their leisure time than their earlier generations. Thus they also read less proficiently. Modern means of instruction can definitely enhance education. The Internet for example can increase access to information. But the new media cannot replace the thoughtful reading of scholarly texts and their use unavoidably decreases the customary focus on reading. To compensate for this shift educators should make corrective adjustments. Such adjustments do not imply avoiding the Internet as a resource and educational tool. They simply require instructors to renew their efforts to teach traditional reading and analytical skills in our age of ever-changing technologies. Further it has been observed that students learning to read in English do not like reading and they rarely read. Keeping all these factors in mind, the aim is to introduce the idea of reading not from the perspective of solving a given task but to read for pleasure.

The following research questions are addressed in this paper:

1. Can extensive reading help in vocabulary development?
2. What is the impact of allowing learners to select their own reading material?
3. Is it possible to develop vocabulary by using guessing as a strategy?
4. To what extent vocabulary development is possible when students are exposed to different contexts in which the word is used.
5. Does extensive reading and vocabulary development lead to the development of analytical skills?

Reading- a receptive skill

Reading is a receptive skill. The ability to read effectively is critical to the success of a student in any subject area. Reading skills are specific abilities which enable a reader to read the written form as meaningful language, to read anything written with independence, comprehension and fluency and to mentally interact with the message. One of the reasons for the downgrading of this skill could be partly due to the way reading is approached in the language class. The reading skill is most often taught by close study of short passages (intensive reading) followed by analysis of language. The value of this intensive reading procedure, with its focus on the teaching of discrete reading skills has been questioned by theorists such as Eskey (1986), Krashen (1988), who claim that teaching students reading strategies does not necessarily make them better

readers. Besides, getting a comprehension question right does not necessarily mean that the student has acquired the particular skill. In addition, intensive reading requires the teachers to make most of the decisions about the teaching content and materials. And in a majority of cases, teaching is based on some sort of published or pre-determined material.

An alternative approach to reading would require the teacher to hand over the rein of the class to the learners. This approach makes learner-input central to the learning process. It is the learners themselves who become the major teaching resource. It shows how, by tapping into the knowledge and experience of the learners, the quality of the teaching process is enhanced, since it becomes both more relevant and more deeply felt.

The need for a learner-centred approach

The undergraduate Engineering students in Mumbai pursuing their four year degree course from Mumbai University are generally dissatisfied with the repeated use of the same course books. This has culminated in lack of interest towards the subject Communication Skills. They complain that the course materials prescribed in the syllabus do not meet the real needs and interests. So a change in approach is suggested.

Another reason for the change in approach is felt when students are observed to have potential in them, which usually happens to go unnoticed, and thus wasted.

Therefore, a learner-centered approach to reading is thought to be the most effective method of developing reading skills, where the learners themselves are the producers of the material. The idea behind this approach is that the materials chosen by the learners themselves are more likely to be suitable in terms of interest and level, whatever the group's size and composition. The learner-centered curriculum is basically curriculum that gives the learner the opportunity to be involved in the decision-making process regarding the content of the curriculum and how it is taught.

David Nunan (1988) is of the opinion that it is impossible to teach learners everything they need to know in class. What little class time there is must therefore be used as effectively as possible to teach those aspects of the language which the learners themselves deem to be most urgently required, thus increasing surrender value and consequent student motivation.

Many theorists are of the opinion that people become good readers through reading, and that learning how to read should mean a focus of attention on the meaning rather than the language of the text. Eskey (1986) says *'Reading.....must be developed, and can only be developed, by means of extensive and continual practice.'* So exposure to a wide range of materials will develop interest in reading and also create a desire for reading. This method of developing the habit of reading is known as extensive reading.

Extensive reading

Extensive reading is an approach to language learning, including foreign language learning, by the means of a large amount of reading. The idea behind extensive reading is that a lot of reading of interesting material will improve language skills. Learners focus on the language rather than the text. In addition to developing language skills, reading extensively can help in vocabulary gain, can help in increasing knowledge of previously learnt vocabulary, can enhance skills in speaking and can lead to improvement in writing. The

primary aim of extensive reading, according to Day and Bamford, is "*to get students reading in the second language and liking it".*(1988)

Krashen in his book written in 1982 argues that extensive reading will lead to language acquisition provided certain preconditions are met. These include adequate exposure to the language, interesting material, and a relaxed, tension-free learning environment.

Extensive Reading and Vocabulary Development

There is a need to improve vocabulary in second language learners, but very little attention has been paid to this aspect of learning. What we find in most course books is a sparing reference to the improvement of vocabulary. Often it is incorporated in the teaching of reading skill. Vocabulary improvement is crucial in achieving success in life. This has been proven by many theorists. In the 1920s, Johnson O'Connor found that successful people in all walks of life have powerful vocabularies. He also discovered that vocabulary growth is not tied to any special trait, and anyone, regardless of their present vocabulary, can enrich it.
The thinking process occurs with the help of words. The limits of our learning are, therefore, related to the limits of our vocabulary. Students who do well academically are usually found to have better vocabularies than their academically less successful peers. The challenge is to find a method of teaching and learning vocabulary that is effective and efficient.

Psychologists, linguists, and language teachers have been interested in vocabulary learning strategies for a long time (Levenston, 1979). Numerous studies have been conducted comparing the retention effects of different vocabulary presentation strategies (Carter, 1987; Carter & McCarthy, 1988; McCarthy, 1990; Nation, 1990), research (Arnaud & Bejoint, 1992; Gass, 1987; Meara, 1989; Nation & Carter, 1989), and practical tips (Gairns & Redman, 1986; McCarthy & O'Dell, 1994).

The present study aims to use extensive reading in the framework of context strategy as a means to develop and increase vocabulary. It is argued that a second language learner will acquire vocabulary in the same way as a child who adopts strategies to understand words and use them in contexts surrounding him/her. It is therefore believed that second language learners should also be exposed to similar situations. This can be made possible only if learners are given the freedom and the responsibility of learning. Theorists Williams and Burden (1997) in their social constructivist model outline four aspects of the teaching-learning process, which is, teachers, learners, tasks and contexts. Another theorist, Cohen (2001), focuses on learners and discusses the intersection of learning style preferences, learner strategies, and language tasks. The context strategy model outlined here embraces the same concept but goes a step forward in trying to prove that developing reading skills and vocabulary is easier and faster when learners are provided the opportunity to learn from peers. This way they are empowered to learn and the environment becomes relaxed and fun-filled.

Newspaper as a tool of learning

The researcher feels that an adequate exposure to the language is possible when teachers use newspapers in the classrooms. The use of newspaper as a tool is not a new concept. It has been used by many theorists such as Paul Seedhouse (1994) Kenji Kitao (1986) Victoria Muehleisen (1997) Ian Brown (1999) and proved to be beneficial and useful in the process of learning. Newspapers can be used in the classroom in order to give

independence to the learners in selecting material. If suited to the students' level of English, newspaper articles can be interesting to read and may trigger some in-class discussion, as well as increase students' cultural awareness. It can also lead to learners getting exposed to the real world issues and practices. By this we are allowing the students to become familiar with authentic materials.

Of course, using the computer and the internet in language classroom is faster and more in accordance with modern times. The problem with most institutions in India is that classrooms are overcrowded with students. As such it becomes highly impractical for the language teachers to use the computer and the internet. The cost of having internet access is a challenge in most institutions. Again it has been observed that in order to provide students the use of computer would mean that the institution would be required to create a facility of at least one computer per two students which will be expensive. Large-sized classrooms themselves become a barrier in most cases. Newspapers to some extent can meet the requirement of the study and so it felt like a practical decision to use newspapers in the classrooms in order to shift the focus from intensive reading to extensive reading.

There is obviously a lot of advantage in extensive reading especially when we talk of implementing the learner-centered approach in the class. But a classroom totally dedicated to extensive reading is not possible in the present teaching context. This is because the time available for the completion of the syllabus for the Engineering students is very less. Moreover students were found to have inadequate exposure in the target language. This is reflected in the way they approach any text. Most of the time students are comfortable in assimilating information in their mother tongue. This prevents them from thinking in the target language. So, learners are observed to get bogged down at the level of vocabulary comprehension. Therefore, the use of authentic material such as magazines, newspapers is indeed difficult to use for the purpose of developing reading comprehension without the aid of a dictionary.

In order to overcome all the above constraints the reading activity was timed and students were allowed to underline the words that they felt were the most troublesome in terms of understanding the text, and a balance was maintained in terms of guessing strategies and dictionary use. The researcher thus used 2 hours of the allotted tutorial class for this purpose. Introducing newspapers and allowing learners to select their own material is thought to be a better way of developing reading skills as well as imbibing the habit of reading.

Research Design

The study aims to check the effectiveness of introducing extensive reading in the curriculum of undergraduate technical students as a means of developing vocabulary. It is believed that encouraging students to select their own reading material can function positively in developing their vocabulary as well as their analytical skills.

In order to find answers to the above questions, it is necessary to look qualitatively at the acquisition of words and its use in performing tasks that are used in student data. Qualitative data is concerned with aspects of solving tasks using guessing as well as the dictionary as strategies, specific to a particular group. In this case, it implies the feedback received from the students through interviews and questionnaires as well as through classroom observation.

Subjects
Out of the total population of undergraduate Engineering students in different disciplines, students of Computer and Information Technology were selected as the sample, because the experimenter was the teacher to them. It was felt that these students would represent the wider population of undergraduate Engineering students.

Students of Pillai's Institute of Information Technology of second year comprised the sample. Two matched groups were needed for the study, namely, the Experimental and the Control. The Experimental Group of 25 students was randomly drawn from second year Computer Engineering, and the Control Group of 25 students was randomly drawn from second year Information Technology.
A test was conducted to measure the level of comparability of the two groups. The test indicated that both the groups were at the same level (t=0.23) indicating that the groups could be considered to be matched.

Experimenter
The present researcher, who was the regular teacher of these students, conducted the experiment.

Materials and Procedures
An Entry Stage test (the same as the test of comparability) was conducted at the beginning of the course for both the Experimental and Control Groups. A similar, though not entirely identical, Exit Stage test was conducted at the end of the course for both the groups.

Based on the test, the Experimental Group students were made to explain the background information they used in guessing the meaning of unfamiliar words at the Entry Stage. This helped the experimenter divide the students into groups based on their cognitive levels. Accordingly the experimenter designed tasks that required the students to tap their prior information about a particular word and use the same in the process of performing the task. The course lasted for three months, with one training session of two hours per week. Since the time required for the completion of the task during the allotted time of 2 hours was insufficient, the researcher encouraged the students to complete the tasks after college hours.

The task was designed by the experimenter. The experimenter alone assessed the tests and conducted the students' interviews immediately after the tests. On the basis of their response additional tasks would be assigned to each group.

The experimenter also used the digital media to expose the students to different contexts in which a particular word is used with the Experimental Group, to the extent the facility was provided by the Institution. Students of the Control Group were treated as in a regular class, which meant that they were assigned tasks that did not focus on their interests and needs.

Results
The results were based on the analysis of the interviews and the questionnaires answered by the students. Some information about students' performance could also be gathered from classroom observation.

Qualitative Analysis

After analyzing the recording of the statements of the Experimental Group it was found that students were at ease and comfortable performing the tasks with peers. Learning was observed to be joyful and fun for the students as they were encouraged to select their own reading material from newspapers in the class. So the question as to the impact of handing the responsibility to the learners to select their reading material is answered.

Another significant factor worth mentioning is that students learned and acquired information about words and their use more effectively in groups or with peers rather than doing things individually or with the guidance of the teacher. The positive impact of encouraging students to bring newspapers in the class and inculcate the habit of reading was felt when they expressed their interest, responsibility and curiosity in performing the tasks. This answers the second question of the effectiveness of extensive reading.

To answer the question of using guessing as a strategy in vocabulary development, the experimenter used the technique of exposing the students to multiple use of the particular word in different contexts and then gave the opportunity to use the dictionary to verify their understanding of the word. In this way it was possible for the experimenter to develop their analytical skills that was evident in their performance of the tasks.

The use of newspapers in the class as a part of the extensive reading programme did help students develop an interest in overcoming their reading difficulties and enhancing their vocabulary. But it is felt that grouping the students on the basis of their cognitive levels could sometimes create problem in the acquisition of a skill. In the sense poor leaners were observed to use the dictionary more often than the good learners. As such their retention and use of the word was limited. Students therefore, should be encouraged to mingle with the good learners in order to acquire different strategies. To the extent it is possible the teacher should change the group members thereby encouraging flexible grouping.

Extensive reading thus

1. Develops an interest in reading
2. Helps in thinking in the target language
3. Helps in vocabulary enrichment
4. Develops reading strategies
5. Develops analytical skills
6. Promotes critical thinking
7. Helps in the development of independent learning strategies
8. Helps in the development of cooperative learning strategies
9. Helps students take responsibility for their own work
10. Helps in improving the writing skills in students especially the skill of summarization
11. Forces students to infer unknown words from the context
12. Provides motivation for discussion and also gives ideas for doing research for class presentation
13. Bridges the gap between the classroom and the real world. It helps in building good reading habits that will last a lifetime
14. Gives everyone something to read- news, sports, weather, editorials, and comics

15. Makes learning fun
16. Provides good exposure to write concisely and clearly
17. Enhances cultural awareness

Moreover all this is accomplished keeping in mind the learner-centered classroom. In contrast, intensive reading learners were definitely exposed to different reading strategies, but lacked the motivation /impetus to go for further reading.

Conclusion

To conclude, the ability to read effectively is critical to the success of a student in any subject area. Engaging students in active reading practices can help them become more involved in their reading, thus aiding comprehension and retention. The objective of an extensive reading programme is to encourage reading fluency. So students should not be stopped frequently because they do not understand a passage. However, the material should not be too easy as this may demotivate the students, who feel they are getting nothing out of it. Often students are put off while reading when it is tied to class assignments. In an extensive reading programme, the students are reading principally for the content of the texts. Teachers can ask students about their general reading informally, and encourage occasional mini-presentations, but these should not seem like obligations to students.

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Alignment and Implementation: Process Writing Approach in Bhutan

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Abstract: *A 2006 curriculum change mandated the Process Writing Approach (PWA) in Bhutan. It was anticipated that PWA would address the poor standard of Bhutanese student writing and help teachers to teach writing in English more effectively. Cultural and classroom factors have made previous introductions of new teaching practices in Bhutan problematical. Since PWA was originally developed to teach writing to native speakers of English, it is significantly different from contemporary local approaches to writing instruction. This paper reports on research into the implementation of PWA in Bhutan, discusses the results of test analysis of the 2006 English curriculum documents and evaluates the alignment between stated intentions, suggested activities and assessment practices. The results of semi structured interviews with a small number of stakeholders integral to the implementation will also be discussed.*

Keywords: Cross-cultural curriculum, curriculum alignment, Process Writing Approach, ESL teachers' challenges, imported approaches and methodologies

Introduction

Transplanting teaching methodologies from one context to another can be problematical (Carney, 2008; Kirgoz, 2007). Non-native English speakers commonly experience difficulties in implementing unfamiliar classroom practices when there is inadequate support for teachers to make such cultural and professional adjustments, particularly those borrowed from a western approach to English language teaching (Dushku, 1998; Wedell, 2003). Mal-adjustment to local contexts can consequently result in a gap between the intended official curriculum and the curriculum enacted in classrooms. The way that teachers enact an innovation will depend on how they react to new concepts, new approaches to presenting content and also to new ways of interacting with students (Vandenberghe, 2002). The degree to which the documents mandating the change are aligned will influence their reaction.

Biggs (2003) defines constructive alignment as keeping 'what is to be taught, how it will be taught and assessed' in line (p.18). Such alignment can yield up to four times greater results in student achievement (Cohen, 1987). Alignment of the stated objectives and the activities for teaching Process writing Approach within mandated curriculum documents will be critical to successful implementation of PWA in Bhutan.

Bhutan

In 2003, Bhutan was identified as one of the countries with the highest number of secondary repeaters and school dropouts in South East Asia (UNESCO, 2003). A local study conducted by Educational Research and Development in the same year also confirmed that the standard of Bhutanese students' writing fell far below official expectations (Center for Educational Research and Development, 2002). Classroom observations revealed that Bhutanese secondary school teachers emphasized answering questions from texts that they had explained to their students. There appeared to be very little direct teaching of writing and limited opportunity to their students to practice writing. The 2006 English curriculum proposed the five-stage Process Writing Approach in response to this situation (Curriculum and Professional Support Division, 2006.)

Process Writing Approach, six years on

There has been little work on Bhutanese English teachers' perceptions of PWA as a curriculum innovation and of how they implement it in their classrooms. Has PWA actually been implemented in Bhutan? If so, what has affected its implementation? Which problems and factors have influenced how teachers experienced the supposed danger? Investigating factors affecting curriculum implementation at the classroom level may help to bridge the gap between intended and implemented curriculum by formulating strategies to tackle the problems appropriately.

Observation of student \writing portfolios soon after PWA was implemented in the schools (Buggie et al., 2009) revealed that students had written only a few drafts related to a single topic, after which there was no further evidence of teaching the writing process. This suggests that single attempts at teaching Process Writing in line with the English curriculum did occur but that the innovation was not sustained, perhaps due to significant differences from contemporary approaches to teaching writing in Bhutan (Dequi, 2005; Matsuda, 2003).

The part of a wider study reported in this paper seeks answers to the following questions:

- How strongly aligned is the 2006 Bhutan English curriculum, in terms of the Process Writing Approach?
- How was the implementation perceived by a small representative sample of school principals who were responsible for that implementation?

Research Methods

This qualitative study began with analysis of locally authoritative documents to examine the links between the curriculum intentions and the stated activities in the official Guide. Subsequent face to face semi-structured interviews were conducted with Bhutanese secondary school principals to uncover salient PWA implantation issues. The principals were recruited at a government-sponsored, national, annual teacher conference in Bhutan.

Result and Discussion

Document Analysis

The text analysis of the English curriculum documents (Curriculum and Professional Support Division, 2006) indicate that there is a general misalignment between the writing intentions mentioned in the introduction and the foreword of the writing section of the Teachers' Guide and the substance of other sections of the panned curriculum at several points.

The foreword (pp. 132-133) and introduction (135-140) of the writing section of the Teachers' Guide emphasize writing as a process of planning, drafting, revising, editing, and publishing to discover what a student wants to communicate, presenting writing as a skill to be taught and practiced using the Process Writing Approach. However, the specific objectives and set activities for writing (pp. 141-182) mainly focus on teaching grammar and other writing skills and there is very little emphasis on PWA.

In the introduction to writing (p.137) it is suggested that evaluation of students' writing focus both on the process and product, proposing evaluation to 'focus on how well [students] learned their roles when teachers teach writers' workshop'. A sample rubric for writing, suggested as giving credit to both process and product, was provided as Appendix G, which however deals with memoir writing. Moreover, the assessment package (pp. 233-240) suggests allocation of only 15% for continuous assessment in which 'process of work' is mentioned as one of five other components. The actual writing process therefore has minimal emphasis in the overall assessment of student work. Importantly, the final writing product is the basis for student promotion to the next class level.

The Reading and Literature section of the Teachers' Guide (pp. xix-130) displays 17 writing activities to follow reading texts. Only 6 of the 17 writing activities (pp. 15, 66, 77, 86, 103, 114) are identified with PWA. A closer observation of the activities reveal only brief mention of PWA and no detailed instructions regarding how to carry out PWA in the classroom.

PWA teaching intentions have not been closely aligned with the set activities in the planned curriculum. Although PWA is briefly mentioned in the Reading and Literature section, there is no detailed information provided on implementation, allowing teachers to interpret and implement it in their own way. Further, PWA intentions have little impact on assessment, presenting a strong disincentive for teachers to implement the approach.

Semi structured interviews

This documentary analysis was followed by in-depth semi structured interviews with eight principals who were expected to oversee implementation of the new curriculum in their Lower Secondary Schools in 2006 and 2007. Care was taken to ensure each of Bhutan's four administrative zones was represented and principals were drawn from both urban and rural schools. Their preparation for the mandated change varied. Three of the eight received 6-10 days of orientation to the new curriculum, another three principals also participated in a 45-day writers' workshop. One only participated in the writers' workshop and the final principal did not receive any form of training.

Eleven major themes emerged from open coding of the interview transcripts. It is noteworthy that most of the principals were positive about the change (six of the eight). However, the node for 'challenges' in implementing PWA was the most prevalent with 82 references from all 8 sources. Principal views of Process Writing also emerged in every interview. This is unsurprising, given the misalignment of the documents expressing the new curriculum. Each of the principals also discussed teachers' backgrounds, how they managed the change, training, evaluation and the teachers' guide. There was less frequent discussion of suggested improvements, the role of other documents and existing teacher beliefs. Subsequent discussion in this paper will focus on their views of the challenges they faced in implementing the 2006 English curriculum. Re-examination by breaking the 'challenges' node into smaller nodes displayed several sub-themes, which are discussed below.

The training process

Opinions of PWA training were divided with most principals expressing negative feelings while the three principals who received both the orientation to the new curriculum and the Writers' Workshop expressed positive feelings.

The common negative views on the orientation course were that it was extremely brief, it only provided some basic ideas on using the Teachers' Guide, lacked focus through trying to broadly cover as many topics as possible within the limited time and was inadequately facilitated. The principal who only participated in the writers' workshop suggested that the course was not related to teaching PWA:

> No, I didn't go for training but I attended the writers' workshop. It was for class nine and ten. We were basically selecting texts for essays. So actually I didn't get training in writing process in the new curriculum. It was just that I went for text collection [Principal 1, p.1].

These principals also noted that not all English teachers had the opportunity to attend the workshops and orientations. Only a few teachers from each school attended the workshops. These teachers were then expected to return to their schools and pass on information gained from these workshops to the other teachers through the School Based In-service Program. However, these sessions only last one or two hours and the participating principals mentioned that this is very short for passing on all the required information.

> And the Ministry takes it for granted that "Oh these teachers are trained." I think that is not fair. I think each individual to … I think curriculum to be successful, all the English teachers should be trained. Then only we can carry out the new English curriculum effectively. If things are taken for granted people are doing things in their own ways. So I think that's the problem. We are not trained in process writing not even in our training colleges so we just carry on what we feel is right. We try to design our own activities and make the children do. That's all [Principal 1, p.7].

However, the principals who received both the orientation to the new curriculum and a writers' workshop made more positive comments.

> I really got experiences and it really did help me because I knew how to use it [PWA & the Guide]. For instance I knew how to go about writing and writing process … because I already have the idea about the organogram, organization, structure of the English curriculum, how it is structured, the standard and the activities and the assessments and all these. So I was confident while teaching [Principal 3, p.1].

Use of Guide

Half of the principals used the Teachers' Guide for teaching Process Writing, while the other half said they did not use it. The principals who only attended the orientation to the new curriculum used the Guide. These principals referred to the Guide for assistance when they were uncertain about PWA. However, if participants had no prior training on PWA they found understanding and using the Guide for teaching PWA difficult.

> I have to read through the Guide many times but as I did not attend the workshops, at times it was difficult for me even to understand the Guide to use the Guide. So I might not have used the Guide as desired by the writer, I might not have used it that way. I am still doubtful [Principal 8, p.2].

They also identified other factors such as mismatches of the Guides' expectation and students' level that made the Teachers' Guide difficult to follow.

On the other hand, the principals who attended the writers' workshop did not use the teachers' Guide for PWA. Instead they all used handouts from the workshop because they found the handouts easier to understand. As stated by one of the principals:

> I did not use the Guide as I already have enough materials on this writing. Basically they talk about the same thing but I do not go to the Guide because I have my own materials which are very simplified and easy to implement [Principal 6, p.4].

Time constraint and syllabus coverage

The eight principals generally agreed that the Process Writing Approach occupied too much of class time as teachers responsible for large numbers of students are required to provide feedback on multiple drafts. They indicated significant difficulty in finishing the set syllabus for English, when class time is devoted to process writing. Students' assessment at the end of the year will be based on the syllabus, which makes completing the syllabus more important than PWA.

School location and family background

Most of the participants claimed that school location and student family background play significant roles in implementing the PWA. Most of the students from schools located in the rural areas come from families with low literacy rates, which affect students' English levels.

> My school, the catchment area, is the workshop area and we have children coming from faraway places. Their parents are apple orchard caretakers and they don't have any exposure [reading and writing]. So I don't expect much from them. What I do is I just let them do free writing. So from there I can see the progress in them. I don't refer the Guide because the guide expects a lot the Teacher curriculum Guide. So I don't go according to it but I have my own style to implement the writing process [Principal 1, p.1].

Conducting peer conferences

Conducting peer conferences was the most dominant sub node under the node for 'challenges'. Seven out of eight participants emphasized difficulty in conducting peer conference in Bhutanese classrooms because of students' culture, particularly in rural schools.

> At this stage peer conference is not effective mainly because first of all they are not very comfortable with English. And secondly they are shy and not able to do and when it is friends with friends they are not able to give critical comments because they are not trained from the of

> time they were in schools. So peer conferencing is not effective, it is possible to have peer conference but it is not effective. They (children) have same level of understanding same level of knowledge about English about grammatical errors because they are peers and as they are almost same level of understanding, peer conferencing is not very effective [Principal 3, p.7].

Conclusion

The misalignment between the intentions and importance given to the PWA in the Foreword and Introduction and set activities appears to have resulted in teachers choosing to pay more attention to syllabus coverage than to Process Writing. This should be seen as a rational response to external constraints, rather than evidence of teacher recalcitrance. A failure to cover the syllabus results in student failure of final assessment in which the greater weight is placed on writing produced to answer questions from the syllabus. Failure at final examinations means lace of promotion to the next class. So, teachers gradually stopped teaching the PWA. This clearly suggests that, if the intention to implement innovation is genuine, curriculum planners need to work towards consistency of objectives, activities and assessment.

The semi-structured interviews suggested that a single workshop orienting teachers to this innovation had not been sufficient to change teachers' instructional beliefs and classroom behavior. Although most of the principals interviewed were keen to implement the approach, longer and more appropriate training appeared to generate more understanding and confidence.

These preliminary findings indicate that misaligned curriculum plans make teacher implementation unlikely, or even contrary to the interests of the students in their classes. They also suggest that planned innovations fail to anticipate cross cultural mismatches between foreign methodology and existing local context may face intractable implementation difficulties as both teachers and students fail to accommodate the cultural shift.

The results of the interviews with this small but representative sample of Bhutanese principals suggest that cultural tensions regarding mutual support and criticism; confidence and humility; hierarchy and collegiality; and teaching working conditions and practices might all provide useful points of focus in subsequent classroom observations.

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