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Editorial

Welcome to the first issue of the Journal of Language and Education (JLE) – the comprehensive platform that brings together researchers in such areas of inquiry as Linguistics, Psychology, Communication, Language Teaching and Learning. The JLE is also a fine-drawn forum for scientific debates about the significance and replicability of linguistic and education phenomena, presented in the papers of young researchers as well as those of well-established scientists. We invite all our readers to consider submitting their work in the mentioned areas to the JLE and to propose special issues in topic areas of emerging importance to the field.

The opening article of the third issue "The Importance of Accuracy in the Use of Grammatical Terms and Concepts in the Description of the Distinctive Droperties of Plains Algonquian Languages" by Avelino Corral Esteban explored the interest in linguistic typology and the study of the syntax-semantics-pragmatics interface in a number of languages, especially Native American languages. The author focuses on the distinctive features that Plains Algonquian languages such as Cheyenne / Tsėhésenėstsestȯtse (Montana and Oklahoma, USA), Blackfoot / Siksiká, Kainai, and Pikani, (Montana, USA; Alberta, Canada), Arapaho / Hinóno´eitíít (Wyoming and Oklahoma, USA), and Gros Ventre / White Clay or Atsina / Aaniiih (Montana, USA) display when compared with Indo-European languages such as English, Spanish, French or German. The research suggests that the influential role played by pragmatics in most areas of Algonquian grammar since pragmatic factors pervade much of Algonquian morphosyntax, semantics, and information structure.

In "An Enquiry-Based Approach to Develop Language Skills in Mobile-Supported Classrooms" Svetlana Titova and Olga Samoylenko study the pedagogical impact of both the mobile-testing system PeLe and an enquiry-based approach to language skills development in the context of mobile-assisted language learning. All the findings in this article further our understanding of the use of technology to be effective in engaging students in enquiry-based tasks to cultivate collaboration. The overview revealed a need for further research of the effect of mobile formative assessment and of post-test activities on learner motivation and collaboration skills.

The paper "Applied Discourse Markers in Casual Conversations of Male Students in Dormitory Settings and Their Pedagogical Implications for EFL: An Iranian Case Study" by Farideh Okati and Parviz Ghasedi presents a study done with new perspectives in the context of improving EFL speaking skills. It should be noted that studying natural usage of discourse markers could be of great help to boost learners' oral skills in the EFL context. The results of the current study could help raise teachers', material developers', and curriculum designers' awareness about the importance of DMs in EFL pedagogy.

Tatiana Lastochkina and Natalia Smirnova in "Fostering Economics Students' Listening Skills through Self-Regulated Learning" investigate issues of the comparative study of fostering students' listening skills by scaffolding their self-study learning practices in the English for Special Purposes (ESP) course. The overview of previous research shows that listening is pivotal to learning as well as enhancing students' future employment opportunities. The obtained results

open fascinating opportunities for further research and comparative investigation of ways of modeling to be an important way to address the complex nature of listening skills development. The research reveals that the SRL-based model helps to make listening process more transparent to students and empower them with proper self-study mode instructions in order to foster this type of learning. The article can be of interest to teachers and researchers interested in the use of the model to scaffolding the lower language proficiency levels of students.

In "Displacement and Overall Conflictual Relations (OCR) as Patterns to Instantiate Academic Conflict in Major Applied Linguistics Textbooks" Babak Majidzadeh and Majid Hayati study some peculiar properties of the important functions of the strategies as the ways to put two ideas in opposition to later take side with one at the expense of discarding the other. The research specifically determined that the strategies were among the prominent incentives to construct knowledge in the field. The results of the study indicated that there is a necessity to assist the academic discourse community to know the recurrent lexico-grammatical patterns used to oppose others; contradict and contrast ideas; reject, deny and refute propositions.

Stella Minasyan's paper "Gendered Patterns in Teacher-Student Interaction in EFL Classroom: The Greek Context" studies the role that gender plays in the language classroom in the Greek context. The author's findings reveal that uture studies should continue to explore the influence of teacher gender on interaction and relationship quality. The present study may appeal to the international reader in terms of the perceptions of both male and female teachers regarding their attitudes to their students during EFL classroom discourse.

The paper "University Of Ilorin Final Year Students' Experience In Practice Teaching Exercise" by Musa Siddiq Abdullahi and Musa Salisu analyse a vital aspect of the teacher preparatory program in teacher training institutions. The proposed research examines the use of variety of instructional resources, adopting appropriate teaching methods for the classroom instruction, building of self-confidence and identification of variety of students with learning difficulties.

The article "Gamifying Content and Language Integrated Learning with Serious Videogames" by Ricardo Casañ Pitarch presents new methods and approaches focusing on foreign language teaching as continuously being developed and applied in the classroom at different educational levels. The study seeks to identify a serious videogame to be a suitable tool to provide learners with further teaching support and increase their motivation in a playful context. The results of the research show that the implementation of the Gamification of Content and Language Integrated Learning (G-CLIL) may be activated as an interactive, entertaining, and engaging tool to support students' learning.

Lilia Raitskaya in her review on the volume "Second and Foreign Language Education" by editors Nelleke Van Deusen-Scholl & Stephen May considers this volume to be part of the third edition of the Encyclopedia, describing recent developments in language and education. The reviewer gives an interpretation of the editors' most impressive outline, with authors contributing to the volume from all over the world. L. Raitskaya states that there is a wide scope of topics, including new trends such as the influence of migration, modification processes across the globe, the emergence of multilingualism, its educational implications and consequences, academic approaches to technology, virtual environments, multimodality.

We hope you will enjoy this issue of the JLE, take part in the discussion of the proposed topics and that you will consider submitting your abstracts and sending comments.

Please, join us by submitting your work and suggestions for special issues in the coming months and years.

Editor-in-Chief of Issue 3
Tatiana Baranovskaya

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The Importance of Accuracy in the Use of Grammatical Terms and Concepts in the Description of the Distinctive Properties of Plains Algonquian Languages

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The interest in linguistic typology and the study of the syntax-semantics-pragmatics interface in a number of languages – especially Native American languages – has led to the observation that some languages cannot be accurately described if we use the grammatical terms and concepts commonly applied to the analysis of extensively studied languages, as certain grammatical properties of one language may not be equivalent to those of another and, consequently, require a different treatment. Thus, by adopting a holistic comparative perspective deriving from all areas of grammar, the article aims to reveal the distinctive features that Plains Algonquian languages such as Cheyenne / Tsėhésenėstsestȯtse (Montana and Oklahoma, USA), Blackfoot / Siksiká, Kainai, and Pikani, (Montana, USA; Alberta, Canada), Arapaho / Hinóno´eitíít (Wyoming and Oklahoma, USA), and Gros Ventre / White Clay or Atsina / Aaniiih (Montana, USA) display when compared with Indo-European languages such as English, Spanish, French or German. The subsequent examination of these data will provide examples of terms and concepts that are typically used in traditional grammatical descriptions, but that do not serve to characterize the grammar of these Native American languages accurately. Finally, the article will propose alternative terms and concepts that might describe the distinctive grammatical properties exhibited by these languages more adequately.

Keywords: terms and concepts, grammar, terminological accuracy, Plains Algonquian languages, language universals

Grammatical terminology provides an economic and precise way of referring to grammatical elements within a language and offers the possibility to compare languages in order to prove whether the label for a concept in a language has been applied to what is perceived as the semantic or functional equivalent of the original concept in another language; or, conversely, whether, the semantic or functional value is realized quite differently in the different languages and therefore the use of the term is, in at least one of the languages, inaccurate.

Given that languages are not completely equivalent to each other, it seems plausible to assume that the metalanguage that serves to characterize their grammar will inevitably have to vary cross-linguistically. This study, therefore, aims to elucidate whether a number of grammatical properties of Plains Algonquian languages can be adequately described by adopting the same terms that have been traditionally used for the description of other better-known languages.

This research thus has two different but related aims - one grammatical and the other terminological - as the accurate use of a number of grammatical terms and concepts to describe the grammar of the Plains Algonquian languages is examined based on an analysis of some of the grammatical properties that distinguish these minority languages from the most widely studied languages in the world – English or Spanish, for example. Subsequently, where necessary, an alternative denomination will be proposed for these grammatical features with the aim of characterizing the different syntactic, semantic, lexical, phonological, morphological, and discourse-pragmatic data in Plains Algonquian languages in a more effective way.

The article is organized as follows: section 1

covers the fundamental issue of the universality of grammatical relations such as subject and object, by taking into account the way that semantic roles are neutralized in these languages. Section 2 offers an account of the dichotomy between semantic and syntactic valence by describing how the concept of specificity influences the argument structure, thereby affecting whether an element is considered as an argument or adjunct. Section 3 follows with a detailed analysis of the classification of words into different parts of speech in these Algonquian languages, reflecting two different views concerning the identification of the number of types of category. Section 4 explores both traditional and contemporary analyses of prosodic systems in order to examine the reasons why Plains Algonquian languages are referred to as stress, pitch accent or tone systems. Section 5 examines the appropriateness of the denomination of obviation as a type of case and section 6 provides arguments for the assumption that the information structure in these languages would indeed be better characterized by understanding the traditional distinctions of theme and rheme or topic and focus in a way that takes into account the paramount importance given by the addresser to what the addressee considers most relevant. Finally, the conclusion offers a brief summary of the paper's main findings.

A substantial number of books have been written to describe the grammar of Algonquian languages in general, such as Bloomfield´s (1946) *Algonquian* and Goddard´s (1979) *Comparative Algonquian*. To characterize more particularly the grammar of Plains Algonquian languages, the most comprehensive include Salzmann´s (1963) *Sketch of Arapaho Grammar*, Uhlenbeck´s (1978) *A Concise Blackfoot Grammar*, Leman´s (1980b) *A Reference Grammar of the Cheyenne Language*, Frantz´s (1997) *Blackfoot Grammar*, Cowell et al.´s (2004) *Gros Ventre Student Grammar*, and Cowell & Moss´s (2008) *The Arapaho Language*. Likewise, a large and growing body of literature has investigated different aspects of the morphosyntax, semantics, and phonology of these languages, as illustrated by the articles written by Bliss on Blackfoot, Frantz on Blackfoot and Cheyenne, Goddard on Arapaho, Cheyenne and Gros Ventre, or Leman on Cheyenne, among others.

However, apart from these studies, no work has been found that explore the accuracy in the use of grammatical terminology for the description of the distinctive aspects of the grammar shown by the Plains Algonquian languages in particular. Despite this, I do not claim any originality with my study, as I am aware that, on the one hand, the grammatical phenomena examined in this paper have already been described separately in different studies and, on the other hand, the relationship between the grammatical concepts dealt with in this article and the grammatical terminology that seemingly reflects faithfully their value may already have been addressed by a large number of scholars working within different theoretical frameworks. Consequently, my only aim is to reveal the grammatical distinctiveness of these languages and highlight the importance of finding terms that ensure accuracy in their description.

Materials and Methods

On the one hand, this research could be considered a multilingual *ad hoc* terminological study since it deals with the designation of a limited number of concepts and their labelling in a specific grammatical domain. More specifically, it attempts to analyse the concepts used in the description of some grammatical aspects of the Plains Algonquian languages, identify the terms that could be assigned more properly to these concepts, establish a possible correspondence between the concepts and terms in these languages, and propose new terms if the existing ones in the literature do not reflect faithfully the specific concepts.

On the other hand, as mentioned above, this study is not a pure terminological work since, in addition to being a study of grammatical concepts and their terminological labels, it is also aimed at giving a detailed account of a number of grammatical phenomena. Thus, in order to achieve the grammatical objective of this study, all of the existing literature was explored in order to understand both the core and peripheral grammar of the Plains Algonquian languages and, after comparing their grammatical properties of these languages with those of the most-studied languages such as English, Spanish, French or German, various distinctive language units – each of them of a different nature (e.g., morphological, syntactic, semantic, lexical, phonological and discourse-pragmatic) - were selected and analysed in depth. Given this first part of the study reveals the distinctive properties that Plains Algonquian languages display and that these grammatical features cover all areas of the language, it could be considered to take a holistic methodological perspective.

Following Mielke and Jeff (2008) and Haspelmath (2009), the different grammatical properties of these languages were described and explained by employing a framework-free approach, that is to say, without building upon a specific theoretical framework. This dependence on a model for linguistic description which is probably based on one of the most-widely studied languages in the world could place the description of other minority languages like Arapaho, Blackfoot, Cheyenne, or Gros Ventre into a straight-jacket. In

other words, the study could inevitably commit the error of carrying over concepts that have been applied to the analysis of languages such as English or Spanish grammar to these Native American languages, which is, oddly enough, one of the causes of the inaccuracy of some grammatical terms obviating the fact that they may present different grammatical properties and therefore require a different treatment. Consequently, the methodology followed consisted in selecting and subsequently describing in their own terms the most distinctive grammatical phenomena displayed by these languages, such as the notion of grammatical functions, the argument/adjunct distinction, the number of categories, the type of prosodic system, the notion of grammatical case and the arrangement of sentence constituents. The examples from the Plains Algonquian languages used throughout this paper to illustrate the various grammatical concepts come mainly from the following sources: from published studies, especially Cowell et al. (2004), Cowell & Moss (2008), Frantz (1991), Frantz &and Russell (1995), Leman (1991), and Leman et al. (2006), and native speaker elicitation.

Finally, in an attempt to comply with the terminological aim, I examined the relationship between the different grammatical concepts examined in Arapaho, Blackfoot, Cheyenne and Gros Ventre and the terms that are traditionally used to describe concepts that appear to have a similar semantic value in other better-known languages in order to decide if they could also serve to characterize the grammatical concepts in the Plains Algonquian languages appropriately. More specifically, after reviewing the existing literature on grammatical terminology, I examined different terms that have been traditionally used to label similar concepts in other languages in order to decide which was the term that described more adequately the grammatical properties shown by each of these phenomena in these Native American languages. It is therefore in this final step that I had to make reference to the most influential theoretical frameworks – both formal and functional -since many of the terms (e.g., Privileged Syntactic Argument, argument-adjunct, etc.) suggested in some of these approaches reflected faithfully the grammatical properties exhibited by the Plains Algonquian languages and, consequently, there was no need to coin a new term for them.

This section is divided into a number of sub-sections, which correspond to each of the grammatical properties that distinguish Plains Algonquian languages, such as Arapaho, Blackfoot, Cheyenne and Gros Ventre, from the most widely studied languages in the world. Each of these sub-sections will offer a description of a distinctive grammatical phenomenon displayed by these languages, which will help us to decide what term can be used to designate more accurately the grammatical concept involved in each of the phenomena. Subsequently, in the concluding section of the paper, an alternative denomination will be proposed for these grammatical features that have not been properly defined with the aim of offering a more appropriate characterization of the grammatical properties displayed by these Native American languages.

Results and Discussion

Grammatical Relations

"Grammatical relations", also commonly referred to as "grammatical functions" or "syntactic functions", is a linguistic term traditionally used to refer to the functional relationships between constituents in a clause. Most grammatical theories – whether generative grammar, functional grammar or cognitive grammar – often acknowledge these syntactic relations and rely heavily on them in order to describe a plethora of grammatical phenomena, even considering them to be universal.[1] These grammatical relations are illustrated in traditional grammar by concepts such as "subject", "direct object", and "indirect object"[2]:

(1) a. French:
J(e)´ai donné un livre
1SG:S+have.PRES. 1SG:S give.PART. 1SG:MASC a book
à mon frère.
to my.MASC.SG brother
'I gave my brother a book.'
SG:S+have.PRES. 1SG:S give.PART.1SG:MASC a book
à mon frère.

[1] For a detailed account, see Comrie (1978), Dixon (1979), Palmer (1994), Givón (1995), and Dryer (1997).

[2] Abbreviations used in this paper: (1) – first person, (2) – second person, (3) – third person or proximate singular agreement, (4) – fourth person or proper obviative agreement, fifth person or further obviative agreement, (11) – first person, (22) – second person, (33) – third person plural agreement, (I) – inanimate singular agreement – (II) – inanimate plural agreement, X – unspecified agent agreement; A – agent semantic role, ABS – absolutive case, ACC – accusative case, ANAPH – anaphoric, ASP – aspect, BEN – beneficiary semantic role, CLM – complementizer, DAT – dative case, DEIC – deictic, DERIV – derivative affix, DIM – diminutive affix, DITR – ditransitive verb, DUB – dubitative mode, D3P – distinct third person, ERG – ergative case, FAI – animate intransitive final stem, FEM – feminine genre, FUT – future, I – initial stem, ITER – iterative mode, GEN – genitive case, IC – initial change, IF – Illocutionary Force, INSTR – instrumental case, IO – indirect object, LOC – locative case, MASC- masculine genre, M – medial stem, MED – mediate mode, MODAL – modal particle, N – noun, NEG – negation, NEUT – neuter genre, NOM – nominative case, NP – noun phrase, OBV – obviative marking, P – patient semantic role, PART – past participle, PAST – past, PP – prepositional phrase, PRES – present, PROX – proximate marking, REDUP – reduplication, S- subject, SG – singular number, STAT – stationary, PL – plural number, TRNS – translocative, V – verb, VAI – animate intransitive verb, VII – intransitive inanimate verb, VTA – transitive animate verb, VTI – transitive inanimate verb.

to my.MASC.SG brother
'I gave my brother a book.'
b. Spanish:
Yo (le)[3] dí a mi hermano un libro.
1SG:S 3SG:IO give.PAST.1SG:S to my brother a book
'I gave my brother a book.'

Despite the fact that each distinct grammatical theory aims to avoid concrete definitions of notions such as "subject" or "object" – most syntactic frameworks treat them as primitive concepts – the important role they have assumed in linguistic theorizing has led to the seeking of useful strategies as a means of distinction between them (Conner, 1968; Comrie, 1989; Biber et al., 1999).

Distinguishing between these grammatical relations appears to be a relatively simple task if we consider them to be equivalent to thematic or semantic roles such as agent or patient. In the four examples given above there is a first person singular subject which performs the action, a direct object NP, represented by 'un libro' and 'un livre' in Spanish and French respectively, which is acted upon by the subject, and an indirect object[4] NP, represented by 'mi hermano' and 'mon frère', benefits from the action receiving the direct object.

However, if we look closer – for example when analyzing sentences including a verb in the passive (e.g., 'My brother was given a book by me.' or 'A book was given to my brother by me.'), an ergative verb (e.g., 'The boat sank.'), or an unaccusative verb (e.g., 'An accident occurred yesterday.'), that is, constructions where the frequent correlation between the grammatical relations of subject and object and the semantic roles of agent and patient is absent[5] – it quickly becomes clear that there is no easy way of identifying the subject and object and that it is even very difficult to find a theoretically satisfying definition for these notions, the result being usually less than clear and, therefore, controversial.

In another common definition of the concept "grammatical relations" the role played by inflectional morphology is emphasized. In languages with morphological case systems, that is nominative-accusative (e.g., German, Latin, etc.) or ergative-absolutive (e.g., Basque, Georgian, etc.), the subject, direct object, and indirect object are identified by their case markers, namely nominative, accusative, and dative in the former (2a), and ergative, absolutive and dative in the latter (2b):

2) a. German:
Ich gab meinem Bruder
.1SG:NOM give.PAST.1SG:S 1SG:DAT.MASC brother.DAT.SG
ein Buch.
a.ACC.NEUT.SG book.ACC.SG
'I gave my brother a book.'
b. Basque:
Nik liburu bat eman nion nire
ni-k liburu bat eman nion ni-re
1SG-ERGbook.ABS a.ABS give.PAST 3SG:DAT 1SG-GEN
anaiari.
anaia-(a)ri
brother-SG:DAT
'I gave my brother a book.'

However, the usefulness of inflectional morphology is often very limited. For instance, it does not help much in languages that lack morphological cases almost entirely – English, Spanish or French, for example. There are also constructions, such as those involving raising-to-object (e.g., 'I want him to leave.') or the presence of oblique or quirky case-marked subjects in Icelandic, where the expected correspondence between nominative and agent and between accusative and patient do not occur.

Another property sometimes considered typical of subjects is agreement. Many languages –English, French, German or Spanish for example – require their verbs to agree with only one argument, which is referred to as the subject. However, there are many other languages, such as Basque, Georgian or Mohawk, which are commonly referred to as polypersonal languages, whose verbs agree with more than one argument in a transitive construction.

Finally, another frequent means used to define syntactic relations is in terms of the syntactic configuration (Marantz, 1981). The subject is defined as the verbal argument that appears outside the canonical finite verb phrase, agreeing with the finite verb in person and number in most languages (e.g., English, Spanish, French, Italian, German, etc.), whereas the object is taken to be the verbal argument that appears inside the verb phrase.[6] This configurational understanding of grammatical relations works relatively efficiently in terms of distinguishing between subject and object.[7] It may run into difficulty in existential constructions (e.g., 'There are a lot of women at the party.'), where the element occupying the preverbal position does not agree with the verb and, consequently, should

[3] Even though not strictly necessary, it is possible to use both indirect object pronouns (e.g., *le*) and indirect object noun phrases (e.g., 'a mi hermano') together in the same sentence in Spanish. In fact, this is very common, especially for reasons of clarity or emphasis.

[4] The prepositional object introduced by à has traditionally been called "complément d'objet indirect" in French grammar.

[5] While grammatical relations and thematic relations (= thematic roles or semantic roles) belong to different levels of grammar, namely syntax and semantics respectively, acknowledging the correspondence between both, for example between subjects and agents and between objects and patients or themes, can be helpful to define the term 'grammatical relation' semantically.

[6] This approach does not appear to work as well for other grammatical relations, such as attributes, prepositional arguments, etc.

[7] I obviate the structural distinction between different kinds of object.

not be considered as the subject, and the element that appears post-verbally does not appear to behave like a prototypical object as it agrees with the verb and should therefore be granted subject status. Furthermore, this approach does not appear to work as well for languages often referred to as non-configurational such as Warlpiri, whose subjects and objects do not appear to be distinguishable in terms of structure position (Hale, 1983).[8]The difficulty in defining grammatical relations in terms of thematic, configurational or morphological criteria can be explained by the fact that notions like "subject" or "object" are relational, so that they can only exist if they appear in a context (e.g., a sentence) where they are related to each other as well as to a particular action or process (Dryer, 1995). Most work in current theoretical syntax overcomes this problem by pursuing an all-encompassing approach that posits prototypical traits (Keenan, 1976; Dixon, 1979; Hopper & Thompson, 1980; Dowty, 1991; Comrie, 1989; Givón, 1995; Malchukov, 2005). The prototypical subject has a cluster of thematic, configurational, and/or morphological traits (agent, pre-verbal position, nominative case), with the same being true of the prototypical object (patient, post-verbal position, accusative case) and other verb arguments.[9] Across languages (e.g., ergative, split-infinitive, direct-inverse, etc.) and constructions within a language (e.g., passive, existential, fronting, etc.), there are many cases where a given subject argument may not be a prototypical subject, but has enough subject-like traits to be granted subject status. Similarly, a given object argument may not be prototypical in one way or another, but if it has enough object-like traits, then it receives the status of object nonetheless.

This consideration of grammatical relations as clusters of traits rather than syntactic elements per se may help to explain the fact that concepts such as subject and direct object have been traditionally considered as innate categories of Universal Grammar (Comrie, 1978; Dixon, 1979). However, evidence from Algonquian languages would appear to suggest that not all languages necessarily have grammatical relations in addition to semantic roles (Schachter, 1976; Foley & van Valin, 1977 and 1984; Dryer, 1997; van Valin & LaPolla, 1997; van Valin, 2005; Kibrik, 2009), which are universal, and that in languages where the existence of a non-semantic relation is empirically motivated, the syntactic function posited need not have the same properties.[10]

Unlike languages like English, where the distinction between two or more semantic roles is neutralized for syntactic purposes – the verb always agrees with an element that is referred to as "subject" regardless of whether it is actor, patient, experiencer, etc. (e.g., 'The teacher has sung.', 'The teacher has fainted.', 'The teacher has cried.', etc.) – Plains Algonquian languages are examples of languages in which this kind of restricted neutralization is not found:

(3) Blackfoot:
Kitsikákomimmo.
kit-waakomimm-o
(2)-love.VTA-1:2
'I love you (sg).'
(4) Blackfoot:
Kitsikákommimoki.
kit-waakomimm-oki
(2)-love.VTA-2:1
'You (sg) love me.'
(5) Cheyenne:
Néméhotȧtse.
né-méhot-ȧtse
(2)-love.VTA-1:2
'I love you (sg).'
(6) Cheyenne:
Néméhoxe.
né-méhot-e
(2)-love.VTA-2:1
'You (sg) love me.'

The syntactic neutralization taking place in Algonquian languages is reflected, by contrast, in the coding of a personal prefix.[11] This prefix in

[8] In formal theory, "subject" and "object" are typically considered syntactic positions that constituents may reach through the application of transformational rules.

[9] For a more comprehensive list of subject properties, see Keenan (1976) and Falk (2006, p. 6).

[10] van Valin (2005, pp. 90-93) provides robust evidence for the assumption that grammatical relations are not universal by analyzing examples involving an unrestricted neutralization in Acehnese.

[11] In Arapaho and Gros Ventre, however, it is not always possible to discern the verbal prefix and therefore the privileged syntactic argument owing to the presence of "initial change" (IC), an inflectional process typical of Algonquian languages whereby the first element of a verbal form, namely the first vowel of a preverb or, in the absence of a preverb, of the verb stem itself, is modified:
E.g.: Arapaho:
a. Biixoo3e3en.
IC+bixoo3-é3en
(2)+love.VTA-1:2
'I love you (sg).'
b. Biixooxín.
IC+bixoo3-ín
(2)+love.VTA-2:1
'You (sg) love me.'
E.g.: Gros Ventre:
a.Nii´áaanibáan´ɔ.
ic+ni'áaanib-áan'ɔ
(2)-love.vta-1:2
'I love you (sg).'
b. Nii´áaanibei´aan´ɔ.
ic+ni'áaanib-ei'aan'ɔ
(2)-love.vta-2:1
'You (sg) love me.'
As is evidenced from these examples, although the initial change originated in, and is characteristic of, the conjunct order, it also occurs in the independent order in Arapaho when there is no prefix before the verb (and it is not a command); otherwise, the verb remains normal.

Algonquian languages does not depend on a specific semantic role but on a person-salience hierarchy whereby the second person is considered the highest-ranking person. The hierarchy 2nd. > 1st. > 3rd. > 4th. > Inanimate is related to the discourse-pragmatic status of the participants involved in the communicative act: local participants (i.e., first and second person) are ranked over third persons (i.e., proper third person or proximate, obviative and inanimate) since the former are considered to have more salience, animacy, and topicality than the latter. Consequently, in these languages, the second person is regarded as the most pragmatically prominent salient person in a situation, which means that whenever a second person participant is involved in a clause, regardless of whether it has the semantic role of agent or patient – or to put it differently, whether the grammatical function is subject or object – the verb will begin with the second person prefix.

As evidenced from Blackfoot (3 and 4) and Cheyenne (5 and 6) the form of the personal prefix (e.g., *kit-* in Blackfoot) remains invariable regardless of the syntactic function or semantic role played by the participants in the clause. The coding of the participants involved in the action is also realized syntactically through a portmanteau suffix marking its person, number, and obviation as well as the direction of the action, i.e., direct vs. inverse, (e.g., *-o* and *-oki* in Blackfoot). Consequently, the formation of the prefix entails a neutralization of semantic roles based on discourse-pragmatic factors and there are, therefore, no grounds for positing the existence of grammatical relations such as subject or object in addition to semantic roles. Perhaps, we could argue that the prefix marks an agent subject in direct constructions and a patient subject in inverse constructions, the object lying unmarked in both constructions. There is no apparent reason – perhaps only the denomination of "direct" and "inverse" – to exclude the other alternative, however, namely the fact that the prefix marks an agent object in the former and a patient object in the latter. Rather, it would seem reasonable to conclude that the existence of this prefix marking the person of the most prominent participant in a particular context appears to provide evidence for the existence of a single grammatical relation (Dryer, 1997, p. 131).

This situation led the Role and Reference Grammar framework (RRG) to introduce the concept of "privileged syntactic argument" (PSA) (van Valin, 1993, pp. 65-72; 2005, pp. 94-106; van Valin & LaPolla, 1997, pp. 274-285), a construction-specific relation that can be defined as a restricted neutralization of semantic roles and pragmatic functions for syntactic purposes" (van Valin, 2000, p. 67). It can be claimed, therefore, that the semantic roles and pragmatic functions in these languages are neutralized for syntactic purposes, namely the need to attach a prefix to the verbal complex, which is determined by the discourse-pragmatic properties of the participants involved according to the person – salience hierarchy. Thus, these languages could be said to have a pragmatically influenced PSA as their only grammatical relation.

A different approach could be adopted if we agree with Falk's (2006) consideration of the concept of "subject". According to him, the term "subject" represents an intersection of two different, though closely related, grammatical functions: 1) GF, the relationally most prominent argument function (the other less prominent one(s) being characterized as OBJ), and 2) PIV (pivot), an element playing a special syntactic role (e.g., connecting clauses, in control constructions, etc.).[12] Thus, if we take into account the fact that the argument cross-referenced by the prefix in the verbal complex of an Algonquian clause has some sort of discourse-level prominence – it is generally the most prominent participant according to the person-salience hierarchy – and that the prefix is a syntactic position occupied by only one of the arguments in a transitive context, then a direct construction would reflect a harmonic or unmarked alignment between GF and PIV (i.e., the GF would correspond to the agent) and an inverse construction would show a non-harmonic or marked association since it would establish a correlation between GF and PIV (i.e., the GF would correspond to the patient).

Argument Structure and Transitivity

[12] I have not been able to find a context involving complex constructions where the prefix could be said to have a role analogous to that of PIV, if we adhere to Falk´s consideration of this grammatical function. To my knowledge, constructions such as clausal coordination, long distance extraction and long distance agreement in Plains Algonquian languages do not seem to be subject to the presence of a pivotal element. An instance of long-distance extraction in Blackfoot is included to support this assumption:

E.g.: Blackfoot: a. Ana Rosie nitáísstaak ninááhksspommowahsi
ani Leo
ana Rosie nit-a-isstaa(t)-ok nin-aahk-sspommo-a-hsi
ani Leo
deic Rosie (1)-asp-want.vta-3:1 (1)-mod-help.vta-1:3-conj deic Leo
'Rosie wants me to help Leo.'
b. Nitáísstaata ana Leo kitááhksinooyissi
nit-a-isstaat-a an-wa Leo kit-aahk-inoo-yissi
(1)-asp-want.vta-1:3 deic-prox Leo (2)-mod-see.vta-3:2-conj
'I want Leo to see you.'
(Bliss, 2008, pp. 5-6)

As we can see in these two sentences, there are no apparent restrictions as to which argument in the embedded clause, (e.g., the more prominent in (a) and the less prominent in (b)) agrees with the matrix verb in a long-distance agreement construction.

Most theories concerning syntax and semantics acknowledge the "argument" vs. "adjunct" distinction as an innate property of Universal Grammar. This distinction serves to explore the two different types of relation that the clausal constituents can have with respect to the predicate. Thus, the term "argument" traditionally refers to a constituent that helps complete the meaning of a predicate, whereas an "adjunct" is generally defined as a part of the clause that provides further details of an event so that its presence is not essential for the grammaticality of the sentence.[13] While the terminology used to refer to these concepts sometimes varies[14], the distinction is generally believed to exist in all languages, as the basic analysis of the syntax and semantics of clauses relies heavily on this differentiation.

According to the valence or valency theory, the area of grammar that explores the nature of predicates and their arguments and adjuncts, predicates have a particular valence, which determines the number and type of argument that can or must appear in a specific context. Thus, predicates can take one, two, or three arguments and a predicate and its arguments form a predicate-argument structure. Regarding the syntactic realization of these semantic categories, it is important to note that, while the discussion of predicates and arguments is mostly associated with lexical verbs and noun phrases, other syntactic categories can also be construed as predicates (e.g., nominal or adjectival predicates) and as arguments (e.g., prepositional or clausal arguments). Finally, adjuncts are normally realized syntactically by means of prepositional and adverbial phrases, noun phrases or clauses. For instance:

(7) German:
Ich trank Milch gestern
1SG:NOM drink.PAST.1SG:S milk.ACC.FEM.SG yesterday
in der Schule.
in the.DAT.FEM.SG school.DAT.FEM.SG
'I drank milk yesterday at school.'

This sentence contains a verbal predicate, in the form of the corresponding term for 'drink', and two arguments, namely a first person singular personal pronoun being the subject argument, and a noun phrase represented by 'milk', which functions as the object argument. Furthermore, each example includes two adjuncts, that is 'yesterday' and 'at school', providing additional information that is not necessary to complete the meaning of the predicate. One key difference between arguments and adjuncts is that the appearance of a given argument is obligatory, so when we attempt to omit them, the result is unacceptable (e.g., '*I drank yesterday at school[15].'). By contrast, adjuncts can be removed from the sentence without affecting its grammaticality (e.g., 'I drank milk.').

Since the 1980s, many theories of grammar have been built on the assumption that the syntactic realization of arguments is largely predictable from the meaning of their predicates. Such theories take many facets of the syntactic structure of a sentence to be projections of the lexical properties of its predicate and, in order to ensure this, they incorporate conditions requiring the arguments of the verb to be appropriately represented in the syntactic representation of its clause. Such principles include: the Principles and Parameters framework´s Projection Principle (Chomsky, 1981, p. 29; Chomsky, 1986, p. 84); Lexical-Functional Grammar´s Completeness and Coherence Conditions (Kaplan & Bresnan, 1982, pp. 211-212); and Role and Reference Grammar´s Completeness Constraint (van Valin, 1993, pp. 74-75; 2005, pp. 129-130; van Valin & LaPolla, 1997, pp. 325-326).

The Projection Principle is a stipulation proposed by Chomsky (1981, p. 29; 1986, p. 84) as part of the phrase structure component of the Principles and Parameters framework within the generative-transformational grammar. This principle requires that the subcategorization properties associated with lexical items be satisfied in all syntactic representations, so all the theta roles linked to all lexical heads must be realized by arguments.

The Completeness and Coherence Conditions proposed by Kaplan and Bresnan (1982, pp. 211-212) under the Lexical-Functional Grammar framework ensure that all the arguments of a predicate are present and that there are no additional arguments that the predicate does not require.

The Completeness Constraint is a principle formulated by van Valin and LaPolla (1997, p. 325) under the Role and Reference Grammar framework stating that all the arguments specified in the semantic representation of a sentence must be realized syntactically in the syntactic representation.

Consequently, in accordance with these three principles, apart from the subject, a ditransitive verb like 'give' requires two obligatory arguments, namely a direct object and an indirect object, which must appear in the sentence. The following subcategorization frame for the verb 'give' specifies its properties:

(8) *give* (+V, -N), [__ NP NP] or [__ NP PP_{to}]

It is out of this subcategorization frame that sentences like the following can be generated:

(9) English: a. Mary gave her sister a book.

[13] See Tesnière (1969, p. 128), Kroeger (2004, p. 9ff), among others.

[14] Arguments are also commonly referred to as complements or actants depending on the type of grammar; adjuncts are also sometimes called circumstantial elements or circonstants.

[15] Context plays a major role in the distinction between arguments and adjuncts. This sentence would be grammatically correct if the verb 'drank' were understood in the sense of 'drank alcoholic beverages', which is not the case in this particular context.

b. Mary gave a book to her sister.

Accordingly, in violation of the subcategorization frame of the verb, a sentence without one of the objects would be illformed[16]:

(10) English: * Mary gave a book.

(11) English: * Mary gave (to) her sister.

In lexical argument languages[17], such as English, German, Spanish or French, where full noun phrases are considered to be arguments of a predicate, it is not always easy to determine whether a clausal constituent is an argument or an adjunct simply by observing how a constituent behaves with respect to obligatoriness:

(12) English: My daughter writes (a letter) (to her boyfriend) (every week).

The omission of any of the two objects 'a letter' and 'to her boyfriend' or the adjunct 'every week' does not affect the grammaticality of the sentence. Rather, this strategy leads us to a further distinction between syntactic and semantic arguments.

On the one hand, we have the semantic valence of a predicate, which is a property that implies that we can infer how many arguments are involved in the event or state from the meaning of the predicate. On the other hand, we have the syntactic valence of a verb, which determines how many arguments the verb takes within a specific context. Although, as implied above, in theory semantics is assumed to determine syntactic structure, the number of syntactic arguments a verb can take is determined by the number of semantic arguments that the predicate expressed by the verb takes, it is not always possible simply to equate the number of semantic arguments with the number of syntactic arguments with which a verb appears. For example, although the verb 'write' is a three-place predicate requiring three semantic arguments, namely agent, theme, and recipient, it can also sometimes appear with just two syntactic arguments (e.g., 'My daughter writes (a letter) to her boyfriend.' or 'My daughter writes a letter (to her boyfriend).') or even none of them (e.g., 'My daughter writes (a letter) (to her boyfriend).'). In these examples, the semantic arguments of Theme ('a letter') and Recipient ('to her boyfriend') are left syntactically unexpressed but they are still part of the meaning of 'write', as it is still implicit that, firstly, there is something that a person wrote, and, secondly, there is a person to whom she wrote something. This implies that this predicate should still be considered a three-place argument predicate, although there may not be a syntactic constituent expressing any of the objects within the specific context. Finally, the adjunct in this sentence ('every week') is optional in every interpretation.

This situation is indeed fairly common with regard to many transitive verbs (e.g., 'We ate (lunch) at home.', 'He sent (me) a letter.', 'They sold (us) a lot of books.', etc.): usually, you can, but need not, express some arguments syntactically because they are inferable from the context or because their specification is irrelevant to the context.

Unlike lexical argument languages, in pronominal argument languages such as Arapaho, Blackfoot, Cheyenne and Gros Ventre, it is generally agreed that the true arguments of the predicate are realized syntactically through pronominal clitics (i.e., pronominal arguments), while noun phrases behave like adjuncts:

(13) Cheyenne:
Náhe hetane é-véestomev-óho na-axaa´éhemo tȯhohko
DEIC man (3)-ask.for.DITR-3:4:I my.sister hammer
éšeēva.
yesterday
'That man asked my sister for a hammer yesterday.'

In this example, which includes the ditransitive verb *véestomev* 'ask for', the semantic arguments of Source and Theme are realized syntactically through a portmanteau pronominal clitic on the verb, namely –óho, indicating that a third person / proximate singular participant asks a fourth person/obviative singular participant for an inanimate singular object, and a full noun phrase (*na-axaa´éhemo* 'my sister' and *tȯhohko* 'hammer' respectively). As is obvious, the adjunct (éšeēva 'yesterday') is not cross-referenced on the verb.

The fact that only the pronominal clitics are in argument position in pronominal argument languages can be illustrated by the following example where only pronominal clitics resist omission without affecting the grammaticality of the sentence:

(14) Cheyenne:
Náhe hetane é-véestomev-óho.
DEIC man (3)-ask.for.DITR-3:4:I
'That man asked her for it.'

The expression of nominal arguments is not obligatory in Algonquian languages. As long as the referents are clear, speakers can simply mark participants on the verb with pronominal clitics. Speakers then have a number of choices in relation to the nominal arguments. They can leave them out entirely or mention any or all of them specifically. The choice of whether or not to use an explicit noun phrase is largely governed by pragmatic considerations involving saliency and emphasis.

As in argument marking in lexical argument languages, a noteworthy property of Algonquian languages is the significant role played by the referential factor of specificity. This feature plays a crucial role in their grammar as the specificity of the clause participants governs the alternation between

[16] Standop (2000, p. 223) offers an example including the verb 'give' without one of its objects, namely, 'She gave a doll', which he considers to be acceptable. Context appears once again to be linked to this interpretation.

[17] See Pronominal Argument Hypothesis (Jelinek, 1984).

intransitive, monotransitive and ditransitive stems in such a way that the reference of the participants must be specific for them to be cross-referenced on the verb:

(15) Arapaho:
Hootóonóótowoo wo´óhno.
ic+hotóónoot-owoo wo´óh-no
(1)+buy.VTI-1:II shoe-PL
'I buy the shoes.' (Cowell & Moss, 2008, p. 10)

(16) Arapaho:
Hootóonéénoo wo´óhno.
ic+hootóonéé-noo wo´óh-no
(1)+buy.VAI-1 shoe-PL
'I buy shoes.'

(17) Blackfoot:
Nitáoowatoo´pi amostsi paatákistsi.
nit-á-oowatoo-´pi amo-stsi paaták-yistsi
(1)-ASP-eat.VTI-1:II deic-PL potato-PL
'I am eating these potatoes.' (Frantz, 1991, p. 99)

(18) Blackfoot:
Nitáooyi paatáki.
nit-á-ooyi paataak-yi
(1)-ASP-eat.VAI potato-SG
'I am eating potatoes' (Frantz, 1991, p. 99)

Despite the fact that the verb selects both an actor and a patient, only the actor is indexed on the verb in examples (16) and (18) because of the non-specific referentiality of the patient. It is interesting that speakers can decide whether or not to mark a participant on the verb in the above examples. This decision implies the use of either an intransitive verb or a monotransitive verb, leading to a different form of the verbal stem. For example, while in (15) the participant *wo´óhno* 'shoes' is marked on the verb, in (16) the same participant is not, since the verb in this second case – namely, *hootóonéé* 'buy' – is an intransitive stem. In the first case, the monotransitive verb *hotóónoot* 'buy' includes a pronominal affix, that is *–owoo*, which indicates an action of a first person participant on an inanimate object. The first sentence is close to the English 'I buy the shoes', whereas the second sentence is closer to 'I buy shoes' or even 'I do shoe-shopping'.

In summary, examples of both lexical argument and pronominal argument languages point to the conclusion that a distinction between semantic transitivity and syntactic transitivity is crucial, which has less to do with the number of referents involved in the sentence, and much more to do with the relative saliency of a particular argument. The issue of saliency is central to Algonquian morphosyntax as, although most inflecting languages typically mark agents, patients and other fairly central participants on verb stems, Algonquian speakers are free to shift the valence of the stem and to choose the particular participant who or which will be marked on the stem owing to their pragmatic prominence or saliency, a complex pragmatic category involving the degree of definiteness, newness or contrastiveness of the referent and the general emphatic intention of the speaker. If an object is non-particular/non-specific in reference, it is elided in lexical argument languages and not marked on the verb of which it is the logical object in pronominal argument languages.

As regards the denomination of these objects, which appear to be non-obligatorily required by a predicate in a certain context, namely the absence of specificity, it seems plausible that calling them argument or adjunct is not entirely adequate because, on the one hand, although it is clear that they are semantic arguments of the predicate – the existence of the participants they refer to in the communicative event is implied as they are inherent to the intrinsic meaning of the predicate, which means that they are easily retrieved from the context – their presence is not essential to the interpretation of the sentence. Syntactically speaking (and morphologically speaking too in the case of pronominal argument languages), they are optional elements. Thus, it does not seem to be fair to treat 'a letter' and 'to her boyfriend' in (12), as with 'every week', as adjuncts simply because all these elements can be omitted without rendering the sentence ungrammatical. Neither does it seem adequate to consider *paatáki* 'potatoes' an argument in (18) in the same way as in (17) simply because the presence of a Patient is implied in the meaning of the predicate 'eat'. This appears to imply that the distinction between arguments and adjuncts is not clear-cut and that it may not be entirely correct to classify clausal constituents either as arguments or adjuncts. Perhaps, it would be better to classify arguments in a cline with obligatory arguments at one end, optional arguments, argument-adjuncts (Grimshaw, 1990), semi-core arguments (Arka, 2005) or derived arguments (Needham & Toivonen, 2011) somewhere in the middle, and adjuncts or obliques at the other end.[18]

As mentioned above, the presence of a non-specific argument brings about a change in the syntactic valence of the verb, this being reduced by one. According to Frantz (1991, pp. 40-42), it might be appropriate to add the prefix "para-" to denominate a verb whose syntactic category in terms of transitivity has been modified. Thus, intransitive verbs, which may occur with a non-particular object, could be referred to as 'paratransitive' because they can occur with objects but do not agree with those objects. Likewise, as shown in Dryer (1986), some transitive verbs may occur with two syntactic objects, but the verb will show inflectional agreement with only one of them, which is commonly referred to as the "primary object". Such verbs could then be referred to as "paraditransitive" verbs because, although they are syntactically ditransitive (take two

[18] For a detailed account of the argument - adjunct distinction, see Needham and Toivonen (2011) and, for a finer-grained typology of adjuncts, see Rákosi (2006).

objects), they are inflectionally (mono)transitive, since they show inflectional agreement with only the primary object. The other object, which is usually called the "secondary object", may be either particular or non-particular in reference.

Finally, if we take into consideration the importance of the verbal complex in pronominal-argument (head-marking[19]) languages and bear in mind that the pronominal affixes on the verb are the core arguments of the clause and the independent referential phrases behave like adjuncts, the fact that a verb may not cross-reference all its obligatorily subcategorized arguments seems to question the validity of the assumption that all of the arguments explicitly specified in the semantic representation of a predicate must be realized syntactically within its core. This can be explained by arguing that there is a mismatch between semantic and syntactic transitivity caused by a semantic factor such as specificity, which limits the number of arguments marked in a verbal form, affecting the syntactic transitivity of the verb. On the other hand, this behaviour would confirm the widely held assumption that predicates present analogous semantic properties cross-linguistically, requiring the same number and type of semantic argument in every language. This is unlike the way in which these properties are syntactically represented, which may vary from language to language with the form in which they are realized syntactically different across languages.

The terms "word class" and "part of speech" are traditionally used to refer to a group of words showing similar grammatical properties so that words that are assigned to the same part of speech generally play similar roles within the grammatical structure of sentences and take a similar inflection because they possess similar properties.

The classification of words into different parts of speech can be found from the very beginning of the study of linguistics despite the lack of a definition of this term that provides unequivocal information regarding which grammatical properties should be taken into account in order to proceed with an accurate classification. One of the fundamental problems with the way traditional parts of speech are defined is that they are often an amalgam of semantic, morphological, and syntactic features, and the definitions are not usually reliable enough to be useful.

First, it is generally assumed that, in terms of the meaning or signification that they express: nouns are words denoting any abstract or concrete entity (e.g., person, place, thing, or idea); determiners delimit the reference of a noun in a given context; verbs denote actions or states of being; adjectives qualify nouns giving more information about the person or object signified; adverbs provide information about the manner, place, time, frequency, certainty, or other circumstances of the activity denoted by the verb; adpositions express a number of semantic relations (e.g., time, place, company, etc.); conjunctions connect or link words, phrases, clauses, or sentences, and interjections express feelings and emotions. Sometimes, it is not possible to use a semantic criterion on its own to identify the part of speech to which a word belongs owing to the existence of a great number of exceptions. For instance, 'revolution' and 'happiness' are nouns but denote an action and a state respectively.

Second, in languages with extensive inflection, morphology also helps to identify the part of speech to which a certain word belongs, as different word classes tend to carry distinct inflection in terms of gender, number, case, aspect, tense, mood, degree, etc. However, in other languages such as English, whose words are generally uninflected and the few inflective endings they show are mostly ambiguous, a correspondence between the form of a given word and the particular part of speech to which it belongs cannot be easily established. For example, in English '-ed' may mark a verbal past tense, a participle or a fully adjectival form; '-s' may mark a plural noun or a present-tense verb form; '-ing' may mark a participle, gerund, or pure adjective or noun. Although '-ly' is frequently an adverb marker, some adverbs (e.g., 'tomorrow, fast, very') do not end thus, while a number of words with that ending (e.g., 'friendly, ugly') are not adverbs.

Finally, the distribution of a given syntactic unit helps to determine the category to which it belongs. For example, it is assumed that nouns are normally accompanied by adjectives and determiners, pronouns are substitutes for nouns, verbs usually combine with adverbs, adpositions combine with nouns, and conjunctions connect clauses.

In English, commonly listed parts of speech[20] are noun, verb, adjective, adverb, pronoun, preposition, conjunction, article or determiner, and sometimes particle and numeral. These categories are frequently used to describe many other languages, despite the fact that not all of them may have the same parts of speech. Algonquian languages, for instance, were always traditionally considered to have four major categories of speech: verbs, nouns, pronouns, and

[19] The name Pronominal Argument is now attached to a wide range of polysynthetic "head-marking languages" (Baker, 1996; Nichols, 1986).

[20] Many modern descriptions of grammar include not only lexical categories or word classes, but also phrasal categories, used to classify phrases, in the sense of groups of words that form units with specific grammatical functions. Phrasal categories may include noun phrases, verb phrases and so on. Lexical and phrasal categories together are called syntactic categories.

particles[21] (Metallic, Cyr & Sévigny, 2005, p. xii), most probably due to their morphosyntactic configuration.

In an attempt to delimit the different parts of speech in this group semantically, Algonquian languages could be assumed to possess the same categories as English with the exception of articles, which are absent. However, the morphological and syntactic properties of words in these languages can help us to identify the features some of these categories have in common so that a more accurate classification can be established.

Given their polysynthetic nature, the verb can be seen as the heart of the Algonquian languages. Many sentences consist only of a verb and many things that are expressed in English using separate words such as pronouns, adverbs, etc., occur within the verb in the form of affixes and clitics. Thus, the structure of the verb is extremely complex, as is illustrated in the following template showing the verbal structure of Cheyenne in the Independent Order:

It is generally assumed that the overall pattern of a verbal complex in any Algonquian language comprises a verb stem surrounded by inflectional suffixes. More specifically, in Plains Algonquian languages, the verbal complex may contain the following elements in the Independent Order. Leaving aside the clitics[22] expressing evidentiality and illocutionary force, which can occur either at the left or the rightmost position[23], the first position of the template is occupied by a verbal prefix signalling the most pragmatically salient participant. Secondly, in addition to this prefix, a number of particles commonly referred to as "preverbs" always come after the prefixes just listed and immediately precede the verb. There are two kinds of preverbal particles, grammatical and lexical preverbs, depending on the information they convey.

Grammatical preverbs express the distinction realis vs. irrealis, past or future tense, event quantification, negation, direction, and different types of aspect and modal specifications:

(19) Arapaho:

Heenéhnii3ooné3en	3ebííhi´hínee hií3e´.
ic+eti-neh-nii3óón-e3en	3ebiihi´hinee hii3e´

(1)+FUT-TRANSL-accompany.vta-1:2 to.there that over.there

'I will accompany you toward there.' (Cowell & Moss, 2008, p. 93)

(20) Cheyenne:

Tse-nė-sáa´-évȧ-ho´	e-anȯheohtsé-he.
é+hte-nė-sáa´-évȧ-ho´	e-anȯheohtsé-he

(3)+FUT-ANAPH-NEG-back-arrive-down.i-go.FAI.3-NEG

'He won´t come back down.' (Leman, 1980b, p. 179)

Lexical preverbs, by contrast, commonly indicate location, time and manner, and often correspond to the functions of English adverbs, auxiliary verbs and prepositions in meaning:

(21) Blackfoot:

Áíssáaka`po`takiwa.

Ø-á-ssáak-á´po´taki-wa

(3)-ASP-try-work.VAI-3

'He´s trying to work.' (Frantz, 1991, p. 89)

(22) Gros Ventre:

´Íích´inonhóótowkúucaaach.

´íí-ch´i-non-hóótowkúucaaa-ch

ASP-NEG-fast-swallow.VAI-IF.2

'Don´t swallow so fast!' (Cowell et al., 2004, p. 25)

As evidenced from these examples, the categories of clitics and preverbs can have multiple members simultaneously and, although they follow a relatively fixed order with respect to each other, this order may vary depending on the language in question.

Next, we have the most important element in the verbal complex, namely the predicate, which can be of a nominal or verbal nature in Plains Algonquian languages. Verbs are fully inflected words denoting states or actions and can occur in one of three possible orders: namely independent, conjunct or dependent and imperative, carrying inflectional morphemes providing grammatical information about the verbal mode, the direct/inverse distinction, the person, number, animacy, and obviation of the participants and the syntactic relations that hold between them.

As will be discussed in detail in the following section, which deals with multi-verb constructions, predicates in Cheyenne can either be simple or complex, depending on the number of identifiable morphemes of which they comprise:

(23) Arapaho:

Nési	noh	híbetebihów	ceebíseení3i.
ne-si(h)	noh	i-betebihew-o	IC+ce´ísee-ni3i

[21] Although indeclinable particles have always been treated in traditional Algonquian linguistics as a single class (e.g., Bloomfield, 1946), it is also common to classify them further into different well-justified subtypes, on the basis either of taking their semantic properties into account (e.g., adverbial, adjectival, modal, adpositional, and conjunctional particles), considering their morphological properties (e.g., bound and unbound or free particles) or paying attention to distributional or positional factors (e.g., prenominal, preverbal, postverbal, etc.).

[22] In subordinate clauses, by contrast, the proclitic also indicates the verb mood (indicative, subjunctive, participle, etc.)

[23] Arapaho and Gros Ventre present evidentiality and illocutionary force at the left margin and Blackfoot and Cheyenne at the right:

E.g.: Arapaho: Kookónoo´neetcé3ei´oo?
koo-konohxuu-ne-eti-ce3ei´oo
if-anyway-(1)-fut-set.off.vai
'Should I go away anyway?' (Cowell & Moss, 2008, p. 237)

E.g.: Blackfoot: Kitsikákomimmokihpa?
kit-waakomimm-ooki-hpa
(2)-love.vta-2:1-if
'Do you love me?' (Frantz, 1991, p.132)

E.g.: Cheyenne: Néháeanahe?
né-háeana-he?
(2)-hungry.vai-if
'Are you hungry?' (Leman et al., 2006, p. 42)

E.g.: Gros Ventre:´Oo´ahcííniibyáááph?
´oo-´a-h-cíí-niibyáá-ph
if-(2)-past-neg-sing.vai-22
'Did you folks sing?' (Cowell, 2004, p. 21)

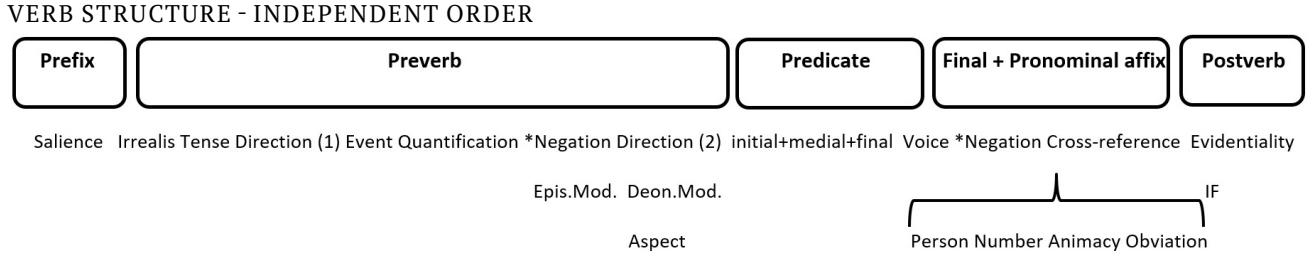

Figure 1. Cheyenne verb structure in the independent order.

my-uncle and his-wife.obv (33)+walk.VAI-44
'My uncle and his wife are walking by.' (Cowell, 2008, p. 60)

(24) Blackfoot:
Anni otánoaawayi áóoyo´siyináyi.
ann-yi w-itán-oaawa-yi Ø-á-ooyo´si-yini-áyi
DEIC-OBV their-daughter-OBV (3)-ASP-cook.VAI-4-D3P[24]
'Their daughter cooks.' (Frantz, 1991, p. 65)

Examples (23) and (24) show instances of simple verbs, namely the intransitive animate verb *ce´ísee* 'walk' and *ooyo´si* 'cook', since they consist of a single stem, which cannot therefore be broken down into identifiable lexical elements. By contrast, the following examples illustrate examples of complex predicates:

(25) Cheyenne:
a. Étoóomáše´še.
é-to-óom-áše´še
(3)-cool.i-liquid.M-drink.FAI.3
'He is drinking a cool liquid.' (Fisher et al., 2006, p. 230)

(26) Gros Ventre:
Nihto´3onook´i.
IC+nih-to´-o3-on-ook´i
(3)+PAST-strike-by.foot-VTA-3:4
'He kicked him.' (Cowell et al., 2004, p. 55)

Both predicates, namely *toóom*áše´še 'drink a cool liquid' in (25) and *to´o3* 'strike by foot' in (26), are considered complex because they contain more than one lexical element: while the former consists of the adjectival morpheme *to* denoting the quality 'cool', a nominal morpheme óom meaning 'liquid', and the verbal morpheme áše´še expressing the concept of 'drink', the latter comprises a verbal morpheme *to´* conveying the idea of 'strike' and an adverbial morpheme *o3* specifying that the action was carried out by using a specific part of the body, in this case the foot. These morphemes cannot constitute a word stem by themselves, so they should be considered to be stem-forming elements. For instance, áše´še 'drink' and *o3* 'by foot' should be considered shortened versions of verbal or nominal stems, rather than full stems.

A verbal stem may, therefore, vary its form because of the presence of other morphemes within the verbal complex, so that there might be a predicate consisting of up to three different stem-forming elements. According to traditional Algonquianist literature (Bloomfield, 1946; Goddard, 1979; 1996; Wolfart, 1973; among others), these verbal morphemes, which constitute a complex predicate, are initial, medial and final, in accordance with their relative position within the verbal complex, which can be said to have a tripartite stem structure (i.e., initial + medial + final).

Finally, following the verbal stem, Cheyenne also uses a myriad of suffixes covering the grammatical information of the obligatory participants of the event in terms of person, number, animacy, salience, direct or inverse direction and syntactic function. These suffixes serve to create the four classes of verb stems in terms of their transitivity and the animacy of their arguments.

(27) Gros Ventre:
Nihto´3onook´i.
ic+nih-to´-o3-on-ook´i
(3)+PAST-strike-by.foot-VTA-3:4
'He kicked him.' (Cowell et al., 2004, p. 55)

Nouns or substantives are inflected words denoting animate and inanimate referents that may accompany the verbal complex as separate forms in Algonquian sentences.

(28) Arapaho:
Neisónoo nihnoohówoot néíh´e hiníiteh´éího.
ne-isonoo(n) IC-nih-noohow-oot ne-ih´e(h) ini-iteh´eih-o
my-father (3)-PAST-see.vta-3:4 my-son his-friend-OBV
'My father saw my son´s friend.' (Cowell & Moss, 2008, p. 64)

(29) Blackfoot:
Otsáápioyisi ksikksináttsiwáyi.
ot-iáápioyis-yi Ø-ksikksinattsi-wa-áyi
his-house-SG (3)-be.white.VAI-I-D3P
'His house is white.' (Frantz, 1991, p. 48)

These languages can present a number of uninflected words, traditionally referred to as particles, which can stand on their own in a sentence:

(30) Arapaho: Noh
neé´eesnestóóbeen.
noh nee´eesi-nestoow-een
and thus-warn.VTA-11:2

[24] -áyi- is referred to by Frantz (1991, p. 48) as the "distinct third person" pronoun, which serves to mark non-correferentiality between two third person participants in the same context, even though one of them may not be present in the same sentence (Frantz, 1991, p. 48)

‘And that is how we are warning you.’ (Cowell & Alonzo, p. 438):

(31) Blackfoot:
Apinákosi áakaokska´so´pa.
apinákosi yáak-a-okska´si-o´pa
tomorrow FUT-ASP-run.VAI-12
‘Tomorrow we will be running.’ (Frantz, 1991, p. 33)

(32) Cheyenne:
Hóhkȧse ná-me´-hóse-tó´nėšéve.
MODAL[25] (1)-should-again-do.something.vai.1
‘What else could I do?’ (Leman et al. 2006, p. 82)

(33) Gros Ventre:
´Íí-báátéθ-´o ´ikíhiinnóoo´ ´íi´ííih bis´.
ic+´íí-báátéθ-´o ´ikíhiinnóoo´ ´íi´ííih bis´
(3)-asp-carve.vti-3:I spoon instr wood
‘He is carving a spoon out of wood.’ (Cowell et al., 2004, p. 15)

As we can see from these examples, these separate particles include parts of speech such as prepositions, adverbs, conjunctions or elements with modal content. However, this seems to be an exception as, unlike languages such as English or French, Algonquian languages do not appear to have separate forms to express person, qualities, quantity, instrument, direction, different aspectual and modal distinctions, verb tenses, etc. Rather, these languages also present a great number of uninflected particles that are usually affixed to nouns and verbs and cover a wide range of different parts of speech in other languages, such as quantifiers (34), adverbs (35), modals (36), numerals (27), conjunctions (38), and adpositions (39):

(34) Arapaho:
Bííshéi´nowúnee.
ic+beisíí´hi-he´in-owunee
(2)+all-know.VTI-22:I
‘You all know it.’ (Cowell & Moss, 2008, p. 207)

(35) Blackfoot:
Nitsikkínaiksiinoka.
nit-ikkina-Iksiin-o:kwa
(1)-gently-touch.VTA-3:1
‘She touched me gently.’ (Frantz, 1991, p. 92)

(36) Cheyenne:
Éme´évȧhóo´ȯhtseo´o.
é-me´-évȧ-hóo´ȯhtse-o´o
(3)-should-back-go.home.VAI-33
‘They should come back home.’ (Leman et al., 2006, p. 99)

(37) Gros Ventre:
´Ahneh´inich.
´ah-neh´i-nich
CLM-be.three.VAI-44 (DUB)
‘There were three of them, I guess.’ (Cowell et al., 2004, p. 58)

(38) Arapaho:
[…] tohuunoohobéíno´ béénenéí´i.
toh-íí-noohow-eino´ IC+bene-nei´i
because-PAST-see.VTA-3:12 (12)+drink.VAI-12 (ITER[26])
‘[…] because they see us drinking.’ (Cowell & Moss, 2008, p. 91)

(39) Blackfoot:
Amoma miistsísa áakitohkitopiiyináyi.
amo-ma miistsíS-wa yáak-it-ohkit-opii-yini-áyi
DEIC-STAT[27] tree-OBV FUT-there-upon-sit.VAI-4-D3P
‘He will sit on this tree.’ (Frantz, 1991, p. 66)

Two lexical categories pose a challenge in terms of classification: adjectives, and pronouns. Firstly, adjectives share properties with verbs and particles:

(40) Arapaho:
Niih´oehit nihi´koohuut
ic+nih-hi3éíhi-t nihi´kóóhu-uton-i
(3)+very-be.good.VAI-3 run.VAI-PART-N
‘He is very good at running.’ (Cowell & Moss, 2008, p. 111)

(41) Arapaho:
Nihcénenóú´u nii´éíhiisóóno´ nohúúxone´
ic+nih-cenen-o´u nii´eihii-soon-o´ nohuuxon-e´
(1)+PAST-take.down.VTA-1:33 eagle-young.PL nest-LOC
‘I took some eaglets down from their nest.’ (Cowell & Moss, 2008, p. 152)

(42) Arapaho:
Niikóoko3éínoo3ítoonéínoo.
nii-koon-ko3ein-oo3itoon-einoo
asp-redup-old-tell.story.vta-3:1
‘He tells me old stories [on a regular basis].’ (Cowell & Moss, 2008, p. 202)

While in example (40) *hi3éíhi* ‘good’ functions as a non-verbal predicate, in examples (41) and (42) *soon* ‘young’ and *ko3ein* ‘old’ occur in the form of bound particles attached to the noun *nii´eihii* ‘eagle’ and the verb *oo3itoon* ‘tell stories to’ respectively.

Secondly, pronouns pose a serious problem in terms of categorization. Although Algonquian languages have a wide range of bound particles that function like most kinds of pronouns (e.g., personal, possessive, reflexive, reciprocal, etc.), there are a number of pronominal elements that appear to have different properties from those of verbs, nouns, and particles, reminding us of the existence of independent pronouns in Proto-Algonquian:

(43) Cheyenne:
Nénéehove nétavóomȧtse tsé-to’se-véstoémȯtse .
né-néehove né-ta-vóom-ȧtse tsé-to’se-véstoem-ȯtse
(2)-stand.be.VAI (2)-away-see.VTA-2:1 CLM-FUT-sit.with.VTA-2:3
nâ-htona
my-daughter
‘You are the one (whom) I select (lit. see) to marry my daughter.’ (Leman, 1985, p. 21)

(44) Cheyenne:
Na’ėstse vo´ėstane éhvéehoo’o .
na’ėstse vo´ėstane é-h-vée-hoo’o
one someone (3)-PAST-camp.VAI (MED[26])
‘A person was camping.’ (Leman, 1985, p. 21)

On the one hand, the fact that the emphatic pronominal element *nénéehove* ‘you’ in (43) can stand

[25] hóhkȧse is a particle conveying an epistemic sense of resignation.

[26] The mediate mode is commonly used in the narration of legends and folktales.

on its own within the sentence may be due to the fact that it is an instance of a complex word that may be built like a copular construction. On the other hand, the indefinite element *vo´ėstane* 'someone' could be considered as a noun, rather than an indefinite pronoun, since it can be accompanied by a numeral, as we can see from (44).

Perhaps, the most important challenge is provided by demonstrative pronouns, since, although they vary regarding gender (animacy), they represent two different degrees of distance (i.e., proximal and distal), and indicate two different types of reference (i.e., endophoric and exophoric). They do not inflect for obviation, cannot function as non-verbal predicates and usually cliticize to a following noun, which makes them lie halfway between nouns and particles:

(45) Cheyenne:
Námanėstóotāhonȯtse hé´tóhe mo´kėhanȯtse.
ná-manėstóotāh-onȯotse hé´tóhe mo´kėhanȯtse.
(1)-make.for.ben.vta-1:3:II deic moccasin.pl
´I made these moccasins for him.´ (Corral Esteban, 2014, p. 402)

(46) Cheyenne:
Hena´háanéhe hapó´eveta tséohkėhešehósėstomónéto
Hena´háanéhe hapó´eveta tsé-ohkė-heše-hósésta-omónéto
deic likewise clm-usually-thus-tell.vta-x29:1
'That is likewise what was told to me…' (Leman, 1985, p. 37)

This may perhaps be accounted for by arguing that it is the reflection of the grammaticalization process whereby Proto-Algonquian independent pronouns have developed, firstly, into free particles and, finally, into bound particles or clitics. Furthermore, it could also account for the reason why pronouns have traditionally been cited as one of the four categories of Algonquian, as well as verbs, nouns, and particles.

This highlights the fact that parts of speech turn out to be, at best, fuzzy categories across languages, not identical or even present in every language, especially if we base their definition on morphological form or syntactic function. While there are universal tendencies, these do not seem to be absolute universal properties as the form/meaning connections differ across languages. Consequently, this variation in the number of categories and their identifying properties implies that separate analysis is required for each individual language.

Regarding the attempt at categorizing adjectives and pronouns in Plains Algonquian languages and bearing in mind their behaviour with respect to the criteria of morphological patterning and syntactic distribution, it is reasonable to classify adjectives as instances of bound particles, which can function as bound since they are attached to both nouns and verbs, in the latter case accompanying a sometimes covertly expressed copula. Likewise, it may be assumed that pronouns should be treated as particles, although of two different kinds: firstly, those that can form verbal forms with the help of a usually covert copula should be regarded as bound particles, and, secondly, those, such as demonstratives, which accept some kind of morphological inflection but cannot function as non-verbal predicates, should be treated as free particles.

In summary, it is possible to observe a distinction between words in terms of their capacity to admit inflection. Thus, if we take into account this morphological criterion, two parts of speech can be obtained: firstly, declinable elements, to which a great range of inflectional morphemes can be attached, and, secondly, indeclinable elements, which will be referred to as particles and can be additionally divided into bound and free particles depending on whether they can stand on their own or not in a sentence. Depending on the type of grammatical information carried by this inflection, these declinable elements are classified in two different groups, namely verbs and nouns.

Furthermore, this attempt at categorization can be corroborated if we take into account the definition of the concept 'word'. After the introduction of the concept of 'Minimal Free Forms' by Bloomfield in 1926, words can be thought of as the smallest meaningful unit of speech that can stand by themselves, so they are traditionally defined as the smallest element that may be uttered in isolation with semantic or pragmatic content. Thus, the task of defining what constitutes a word involves determining where one word ends and another word begins, that is to say identifying word boundaries. In Plains Algonquian languages only verbs, nouns and particles can occur on their own within a sentence.

Consequently, the long list of word classes in English can be drastically simplified to only three in Plains Algonquian languages, as these languages make a tripartite distinction between nouns, verbs and particles, which can be both free and bound. The two universally valid categories, the verb and the noun, are also the two major categories, confirming the widely held assumption that all languages have at least nouns and verbs as word classes and that beyond these there are significant variations within different languages.

A different conclusion can, however, be reached if we take a different approach related to the complex relationship between syntax and morphology. The basic distinction behind these two terms lies in the fact that, while syntax deals with the phrase and sentence formation of words, morphology is related to word formation from morphemes. Although, at first glance, it would seem that what constitutes a sentence is clear, finding an exact definition for it becomes a much more complex task.

The sentence as a linguistic concept has been defined in many different ways, none of which is

[27] The symbol "X" is commonly used in Algonquian grammatical description to represent an unspecified agent.

completely adequate. A traditional definition states that a sentence is a sequence of words delimited by orthography and pronunciation. A semantic definition says that a sentence is a group of words expressing a complete thought. A discourse-pragmatic definition includes a group of words expressing a topic (old information) and some comment (new information) about that topic., A more grammatical definition of the sentence states that, in terms of syntactic categories, a sentence contains a subject and a predicate.

In polysynthetic languages, such as the Plains Algonquian languages, a single word is usually delimited by a pause and can serve as a complete sentence much more frequently:

(47) Arapaho:
Heihoowníí3eyoohúútoné3.
IC-ihoowu-nii3i-eyoohuuton-e3e
(2)-NEG-INSTR-feel.VTA-1
'I am not preoccupied with you.' (Cowell & Moss, 2008, p. 181)
(48) Blackfoot:
Nimáátakohkottahkayihpa.
nit-máát-yaak-ohkott-waahkayi-hpa
(1)-NEG-FUT-able-go.home.VAI-IF
'I can´t go home.' (Frantz, 1991, p. 89)
(49) Cheyenne: Náohkėsáa'oné'seómepėhévetsėhésėsto'anéhe.
ná-ohkė-sáa-'oné'seóme-pėhéve-tsėhésė-sto'ané-he
(1)-regularly-NEG-truly-well-Cheyenne-pronounce.VAI-NEG
'I truly don´t pronounce Cheyenne very well.' (Fisher et al., 2006, p. 179)
(50) Gros Ventre:
´Oo´eeiciibahcciib´a´?
´oo-´eei-ciibahc-ciibé-´a
IF-(2)-ever-sweat.VAI-2
'Did you ever take a sweat?´ (Cowell et al., 2004, p. 19)

Indeed, many sentences consist only of a verbal complex in both conversation and narrative, since nothing else is needed to make a sentence in these languages. Most of the syntactic information of the sentence is contained in the verbal complex, which could be considered to form a whole sentence since it includes a great number of morphemes expressing a myriad of both lexical and grammatical meanings (see Figure 1), with morphology rather than syntax expressing the distinction between subject and predicate. Thus, when it comes to accounting for word order, it may perhaps be more appropriate to consider word-syntax (i.e., taking a verb form as a sentence) rather than sentence-syntax. In this view, all morphemes would be taken as words, which would then be classified on the basis of their semantic content in different categories or parts of speech and, consequently, words like *nii3i* 'with' (47), *ohkott* 'able' (48), *tsėhésė* 'Cheyenne' (49), or ´eei 'ever' (50) could be considered an adposition, a modal verb, a noun, and an adverb respectively.

All this shows that there is no absolute division between syntax and morphology (and even phonology). The difficulty of completely separating morphology and syntax (and even phonology) is especially evident when comparing analytic languages like Chinese with polysynthetic languages like Eskimo: what in one language is a part of syntax will be a part of morphology in another. Given this range of complexity in terms of word formation, it stands to reason that the definition of 'word' cannot be uniform across languages. Hence, it is harder to maintain a uniform boundary between morphology and syntax and, thus, a uniform definition of syntax is also problematical.

This is indeed the most desirable analysis regarding the implications for the theory of Universal Grammar, since a similar number of categories could be established for all languages if we take into account the semantic content they express. In this view, a similar number of categories can be obtained by applying both morphosyntactic and semantic criteria, thus avoiding the mismatch resulting from the previous analysis. This assumption would therefore confirm the view that grammatical phenomena present similar semantic properties cross-linguistically.

Stress, Pitch, and Tone

Plains Algonquian languages, including Arapaho, Blackfoot, Cheyenne and Gros Ventre, demonstrate significant phonological differences when compared to other Algonquian languages (Goddard, 1994, 1996, and 2001; Campbell, 1997; Mithun, 1999). This section will show that these languages represent a challenge in terms of analyzing their prosodic systems and, thus, finding an accurate term to describe the pattern they exhibit. The problem lies in the characterization of the major exponent of prominence in these languages, which has variously been referred to in the literature as stress, pitch or tone. Although languages like Arapaho (Goddard, 1974 and 2001; Pentland, 2006; Salzmann, 1963 and 1983; Cowell & Moss, 2008), Blackfoot (Frantz, 1997; Frantz and Russell, 1995; Kaneko, 1999; van Der Mark, 2001 and 2003), Cheyenne (Frantz, 1972a and 1972b; Leman, 1980a and 1981), and Gros Ventre (Goddard, 1974; Taylor, 1994; Pentland, 2006) are commonly referred to as pitch-accent languages, more recent studies have defied this analysis by claiming that: Arapaho could have a stress system (Fountain, 2016) or a tone system (Mithun, 1999); Blackfoot could have a stress system (Frantz, 1971; Taylor, 1969[28]; Uhlenbeck, 1978) or a tone system (Stacy, 2004); and Cheyenne could have a stress system (Frantz, 1952a;

[28] Taylor (1969) states that Blackfoot is a stress language, where pitch and stress happen to fall at the same place in the word. His analysis, therefore, proposes a split system where both stress and pitch are found within the same word depending on a given context.

Leman & Rhodes, 1978) or could be developing a tone system (Leman, 1981; Milliken, 1983; Mithun, 1999).

Prominence is a linguistic term used in phonetics and phonology to refer to the relative intonational emphasis placed on a certain syllable in a word or a certain word in a phrase, clause or sentence. It is typically signaled by properties such as increased loudness, longer articulation of a vowel, different articulation of a vowel, and changes in pitch depending on the language, which lead to particular types of accent[29]: namely a stress accent in the case of loudness, a quantitative accent in the case of length, a qualitative accent in the case of differences in articulation, or a pitch accent and tone in the case of pitch (van der Hulst, 2010, pp. 13-48).

Along with extensive vowel devoicing, the presence of pitch variation is the most salient prosodic aspect of the phonological systems of the Plains Algonquian languages, so this seems to be sufficient to exclude the possibility that these languages have a stress system at the same time as making it clear that there should be no objection to referring to these languages either as pitch-accent languages or tone languages. The problem is, however, that there is a great deal of controversy concerning the demarcation between the terms stress, pitch and tone, especially regarding the definition of the term "pitch accent" (Hyman, 2006 and 2009; Salmons, 1992).

Firstly, Hyman (2009) formulates two necessary properties of stress, namely culminativity (i.e., that only one syllable can be stressed or accented) and obligatoriness (i.e., that, additionally, each word must be stressed at least once). Secondly, pitch is a perceptual property of sounds involving judgment as to whether a sound is high or low in the sense associated with musical melodies and, while all languages use pitch features for intonational purposes[30], in pitch accent languages they are a property of words. Finally, tonal languages use variations in pitch or tone to distinguish units (phonemes, syllables, words). Although there is still considerable debate concerning the difference between a system with pitch accent and one with tone, the basic premise appears to be, as Hyman (1975, p. 231) has suggested, that while a tonal language has a tone on every syllable, a pitch accent language has only one tone per word, making it similar to stress in languages like English.

However, tonal systems also appear to show restrictions, mostly resulting from tonal spreading or assimilation (Hyman, 2007), from using a limited set of tonal melodies which are properties of morphemes rather than of syllables (Leben, 1971; Goldsmith, 1976b; Halle & Vergnaud, 1982), from the avoidance of sequences of identical tones, or indeed from relations between tone distribution and stress. Thus, most researchers tend to assume that there is no reason to limit the term tonal language to cases in which the distribution of tones is entirely unrestricted.[31]

In an attempt to mark the distinction between pitch accent with respect to stress and tone, Bybee et al.'s (1998, p. 277) definition of the term states that pitch accent languages have pitch as the primary indication of accent and show constraints in terms of the pitch patterns of words (e.g., the number of pitch contrasts (high vs. low) in the number of tonic syllables or morae in a word, etc.). Consequently, they may have a more complex accentual system than stress-accented languages – in some cases they may even have more than a binary distinction – but are less complex than fully tonal languages, which assign a separate tone to each syllable or mora.

The consideration of pitch accent as a type of accentual or tonal system is, to say the least, unclear, as illustrated by Hyman (2001, 2006, 2009), who treats stress systems and tone systems as prototypes. According to Hyman (2009, p. 219), "pitch accent" is a label for a large class of hybrid systems that mix stress and tonal properties in various ways, or systems that are clearly tonal, although they display various restrictions in terms of the distribution of tones.

In summary, while prosodic systems are typically divided into three types, namely tone, stress and pitch accent in contemporary analysis, there is a grave inconsistency throughout linguistic literature with respect to the terminology used to describe them: more particularly when analyzing pitch accent systems, which provide the majority of inconsistencies with respect to the nomenclature ensuing from this abundant terminological confusion. What is striking is that, despite the lack of clarity as to whether pitch-accent languages present distinctive properties allowing them to be differentiated from both stress accent and tone systems, a great number of languages worldwide continue to be commonly referred to as pitch-accent languages. In an attempt to eliminate this inconsistency and taking Stacy's (2004) study on Blackfoot as a model, I will analyze the prosodic systems in Plains Algonquian languages in terms of

[29] The term "accent" has been traditionally used in many different ways and applied to a wide range of phonological phenomena. Throughout this section I will use the term "accent" to refer to the type of prominence observed in every system (e.g., stress accent or pitch accent).

[30] Intonation(al) languages use variations of pitch to describe intonation, such as methods of conveying surprise, changing a statement into a question, or expressing information flow (i.e., topic–focus distinction).

[31] Tonal languages can be ranked on a scale of tonal density (Gussenhoven, 2004), which indicates how many word positions (syntagmatic dimension: the number of positions displaying by tonal restrictions) have how much tonal contrast (paradigmatic dimension: the number of contrastive options per position). Such a scale indicates the relative functional load of tone properties.

the properties characterizing stress accent and tone systems, which do appear to be very clearly delimited.

Nature of Prominence

According to van der Hulst & Smith (1988, p. 4), if the acoustic features of prominence correlate with pitch alone, the system is tonal, whereas if acoustic features include pitch, duration, intensity and so forth, it is a stress accent system.

The examination of the properties shown by accent in Plains Algonquian languages provides strong evidence that accent is realized acoustically by pitch rather than by intensity or duration.

Distribution: Culminativity, Adjacency, and Obligatoriness

Culminativity is claimed to be a principle characteristic of stress systems (Hyman, 1977; Beckman, 1984; van der Hulst & Smith, 1988; van der Hulst, 1999; among others), where it plays a central role, ensuring that there is one, and only one, prominence within the accentual unit, which can range from a word to a phrase, as well as of pitch accent systems (Beckman, 1986; van der Hulst & Smith, 1988; van der Hulst, 1999, among others), but never of tonal systems, which show a free distribution of accent, as multiple adjacent tones are acceptable:

(51) Arapaho:
nenítee
'person'
(52) Blackfoot:
nínaa
'man'
(53) Cheyenne:
éškeme
'grandmother'
(54) Gros Ventre:
´áas´i
'husband'

Despite evidence presented above supporting the claim of culminativity, this most important characteristic of stress accent and pitch accent systems is very frequently contravened. Although the formation of compounds (nominal or verbal complexes) is the most likely environment in which to find multiple pitch accents, simplex (not compound) words also provide a number of examples including more than one pitch per accentual unit:

(55) Arapaho:
wóoxé
'knife'
(56) Blackfoot:
máttsiiíítaa
'bat'
(57) Cheyenne:
kȧsóhéso
'boy'
(58) Gros Ventre:
nííhaanéhi
'own'

These examples contain multiple pitch accents for instance, and consultations with native speakers would suggest they are not complex. Thus, in conclusion, many words in Plains Algonquian languages appear to have more than one prominent peak, which makes these languages look tonal, at least when seen from a restricted perspective.

Further to this property, a second example of culminativity violation is concerned with the placement of adjacent pitch accent within the domain:

(59) Arapaho:
hoséíno´
'meat'
(60) Blackfoot:
áíksini
'pig'
(61) Cheyenne:
háóéná
'pray'
(62) Gros Ventre:
´otóóúh
'will'

Instances of adjacent prominence peaks seem to be found in a wide range of contexts, indicating that there is apparently no strategy to avoid them within the word and therefore illustrating the fact that culminativity is often flouted in these languages.[32]Finally, it is also of note that Plains Algonquian languages have words with apparently no pitch accent at all, which means a

[32] It is possible to find examples in Plains Algonquian languages that appear to indicate that they do not usually tolerate adjacent pitch-accented syllables in compound words:

E.g.: Arapaho: héébetóóku
eebét-óóku
big-rabbit
'kangaroo' (Cowell & Moss, 2008, p. 29)

E.g.: Blackfoot: káta´yáak
kátá´-áák
neg-fut (Stacy, 2004, p. 130)

E.g.: Cheyenne: hetanénahkohe
hetané-náhkohe
male-bear
'male bear'

E.g.: Gros Ventre: ákisiibáa
´akisí-báa
small-nose
'small nose'

These examples could show that these languages are, to a certain extent at least, metrical in nature, since the accents can be redistributed by word-level accent rules or strategies (accent shift or accent displacement) in order to avoid adjacent syllables. However, these are instances of local dissimilation rather than pitch accent deletion rules, as more tones are present throughout the rest of the word.

violation of obligatoriness in stress accent and pitch accent theory:

(63) Arapaho:
betooot
'dance'
(64) Blackfoot:
isttsipatakkayayi
'run'
(65) Cheyenne:
hetane
'person'
(66) Gros Ventre:
biit´oh´o
'moccasin'

Function of Prominence

Following Trubetzkoy's (1939)´s typology of functions of phonic substance, I will analyze Plains Algonquian languages in terms of their behaviour with respect to the distinctive or descriptive, contrastive or culminative, and delimitative or demarcative functions that are commonly attributed to pitch. Firstly, the distinctive function lies in the ability of pitch accent to distinguish lexical units, making it paradigmatic by nature, which is typical of tonal languages, but not of stress-accent systems.[33] This means that more minimal pairs should be found in tonal systems than in any other type of system, because the primary function of tone is to differentiate items (syllables, for instance), as opposed to organizing a word or phrase hierarchically, which is typical of stress and pitch accent. Secondly, the contrastive function serves to differentiate between items, so it is related to the analysis of the distinctive properties that some phonological elements show with respect to others within the same lexical unit. Finally, the delimitative function – a special kind of contrastive function – would involve marking the boundary between lexical units. As we can see, the contrastive and delimitative functions are syntagmatic and are ultimately derived from the culminative function, since each unit is intended to carry one pitch accent and no more, and thus an expected property of non-tonal languages.

As an instance of distinctive function, tone languages use contrasting pitch in much the same way that vowels contrast. In other words, when all other phonemic information is identical, changing the pitch in a word or syllable changes the core meaning of that word. It is possible to find words in Plains Algonquian languages that can be distinguished based on pitch alone:

(67) Arapaho:
a. hou3íne
'hang'
b. hóu3íne
'float'
(68) Blackfoot:
a. ápssi
'arrow'
b. apssí
'white buffalo berry'
(69) Cheyenne:
a. he´e
'liver'
b. hē´e
'woman'
(70) Gros Ventre:
a. níísííih
'against, towards'
b. niisííih
'alone'

While tonal contrasts are distinctive in these languages, minimal pairs such as those listed above are rare, maybe due to their polysynthetic nature. Thus, although a few cases of minimal pairs can be found, this function is unsatisfactorily represented in the data, so it is not unreasonable to conclude that Plains Algonquian languages do not do justice to the distinctive function, at least not to the same extent as in other tonal languages, such as Chinese, where the existence of minimal pairs is extremely common.

Example (51-54) illustrates the contrastive function in Plains Algonquian languages, since it shows a word containing only one pitch accent. However, as we can see from examples (55-58), (59-62), and (63-66), this function is not very relevant in these languages as they show instances of multiple occurrence, adjacency, and the absence of prominence peaks, all of them violations of the properties of culminativity and obligatoriness, which are typically associated with stress-accent languages and, by extension, pitch-accent systems too.

A further property that is traditionally attributed to stress-accent and pitch accent languages is the presence of alignment or edge-effects, which enable the pitch accent to signal the boundary between lexical units, thereby illustrating the delimitative or demarcative function. According to Hymen (1977a, p. 41), the closer to the edge the pitch accent falls, the more the pitch accent fulfills this function. The following examples confirm the presence of edge-effects in these languages, showing both left alignment (a) and right alignment (b):

(71) Arapaho:
a. bétee
'(be) holy'
b. niicíí

[33] According to Beckman (1984), stress can also distinguish between lexical units, but the contrast among more prominent and less prominent portions of a phrase is a far more important function of stress.

‘river’
(72) Blackfoot:
a. áápotskina
‘cow’
b. mohsokó
‘road’
(73) Cheyenne:
a. éškeme
‘grandmother’
b. hoo´kohó
‘rain’
(74) Gros Ventre:
a. níhooyoo
‘(be) yellow’
b. kookóh
‘just’

Examples (71-74) indicate that edge-effects are obeyed, supporting the assumption that Plains Algonquian languages make use of the delimitative function. However, data throughout this research demonstrate that edge-effects in these languages are not strong enough to suggest a clear evidence of a right- or left-headed tendency, implying that, although the delimitative function is sometimes respected, it is not a rule in these languages. Besides the fact that it is very common for a word in Plains Algonquian languages to have more than one prominent peak (55-58), words apparently show no restrictions as to where the pitch accent can fall:

(75) Arapaho:
tecénoo
‘door’
(76) Blackfoot:
paapó´sin
‘lightning’
(77) Cheyenne:
mo´éhno´ha
‘horse’
(78) Gros Ventre:
titékin
‘roll’

These examples illustrate the absence of restrictions regarding the position upon which the pitch accent can fall, so it would seem that any accent-bearing unit can be accented in these languages. In conclusion, the inconsistent nature of alignment provides evidence more consistent with a tonal, than a stress-accentual, proposal for Plains Algonquian languages.

In summary, on the one hand, minimal pairs may occur in Plains Algonquian languages although such pairs are so rare that this is not enough to claim that the distinctive function is engaged, as would be expected of tonal languages. On the other hand, the fact that words containing multiple pitch accents are very common in these languages would seem to show – along with the assumption that edge-effects are not active most of the time – that the contrastive and delimitative functions are not fully obeyed either, as would be the case in stress-accent systems. Thus, the examination of the function that prominence has in these languages does not provide conclusive results as to whether they show properties consistent with a stress-accent or a tonal analysis. Perhaps it could even be argued that, if prominence in these languages is not needed to distinguish between lexical items, then the use of pitch as a contrastive device would also appear to be superfluous, thus giving prominence an organizational function – possibly supported by the widespread violations of culminativity and a slightly higher tendency for pitch to be left-aligned – that would point to a syntagmatic relationship between tone and stress. Stress would, then, result from the imposition of a form of metrical structure, leading us to consider Plains Algonquian pitch patterns as hybrid systems showing properties of both stress-accent and tonal languages.

Metrical Structure

Following Lahiri (2001, p. 1347), metricality – that is, the ability of stress systems to organize stress patterns hierarchically – is a second fundamental property of stress systems. Working in tandem with culminativity, this property creates one prominence per accentual unit by relegating any stress besides the primary one to a secondary position so that different levels of prosody are parsed hierarchically. Thus, once feet are built, stress assignment occurs, falling on the head of certain feet. Seen in this light, both pitch accent and, especially, stress function metrically, where syllable weight and culminativity dominate and minimal prominence is present at word level, with maximal prominence occurring at phrasal level. By contrast, pure tonal systems lack metrical properties so that the position of the accent is generally unaffected by syllable weight. Tone is, thus, a lexically specified feature, meaning that it is unpredictable, that is to say, there is no way of predicting the placement of pitch.

As aforementioned, Plains Algonquian languages have pitch as the major acoustic correlate of prominence, making them, in this respect, similar to tone languages, rather than stress accent languages. Pitch accent is a morpheme-level phenomenon, as it is part of the underlying form of the morpheme. However, despite being lexically specified for every morpheme, pitch accent is also affected by syllable structure, since, when these morphemes are combined in phonological words, predictable, word-level pitch accent rules cause the redistribution of the pitch accents within the word:

(79) Arapaho:
heebe3iiséi

heebe3iíhii-hísei
immense-woman
'big woman'
(80) Blackfoot:
ómahkomitaa
ómahk-imitáá
big-dog
'big dog'
(81) Cheyenne:
hesta´séve´ho´e
hésta´se-vé´ho´e
snow-whiteman
'Santa Claus'
(82) Gros Ventre:
´akisiníícááh
´akisí-niicaah
little-river
'Milk River'

There are numerous examples where the accent of a phonological word does not seem to be a fixed lexical property of the stem itself. Rather, it may change depending on the affixes with which it combines.

Thus, it would seem that, although there is no clear evidence that words in these languages are able to build feet, pitch accent processes appear to interact with syllable structure and surface phonology quite significantly, so they could be said to have a mixed pitch pattern system as they exhibit properties of both stress-accent and tone systems in terms of metrical structure.

Syllable Weight

Unlike Cheyenne, where the Proto-Algonquian distinction between long and short vowels gave rise to a distinction between high and low pitch, in Blackfoot, Arapaho and Gros Ventre vowels can occur in two contrastive lengths, that is, either short or long.[34] These languages show many instances of words that reflect a correspondence between prominence assignment and the presence of a long vowel:

(83) Arapaho:
híísi
'day'
(84) Blackfoot:
míín
'berry'
(85) Gros Ventre:
cííw´u
'canoe'

However, there are a lot of examples that show a clear lack of quantity-sensitivity, as prominence can also fall on a short vowel:

(86) Arapaho:
bénes
'arm'
(87) Blackfoot:
makóyi
'wolf'
(88) Gros Ventre:
báh
'friend'

Consequently, the data presented in this section cannot substantiate the claim that syllable weight is an integral element in the assignment of pitch in Blackfoot, Arapaho and Gros Ventre, because although heavy syllables appear to attract prominence, it can also fall on both short and long vowels, proving that syllable weight – a feature of stress assignment – appears to interact rather inconsistently with pitch in these languages.

Prototypical Realization of Prominence

It is generally assumed that in tonal systems the tone-bearing unit is prototypically the syllabic segment (e.g., mora or vowel), whereas in stress systems the stress-bearing unit is the syllable. Pitch-accent languages tend to give more prominence to the phonological phrase, rather than the word, as the accent-bearing unit.

The morphemes in Plains Algonquian languages all seem to have an underlying pitch accent marked by a high tone, although this may become affected by surface prosody rules functioning at word level.

Reciprocal Influence of Prominence on Phonology

While the effect of prominence on phonology in tonal languages can be considered self-contained (i.e., tones affect tones but not consonants or vowels), in stress languages the effect is non-contained as consonants and vowels can be affected by stress (i.e., consonants can be strengthened or weakened under stresslessness, stressed vowels can be lengthened/diphthongized, and unstressed vowels can become peripheral). Regarding Plains Algonquian languages, it seems that prominence does not affect the quality

[34] The difference in length may even be phonemically distinctive:
E.g.: Arapaho: a. hócoo 'steak'
b. hóócoo 'devil'
(Cowell & Moss, 2008, p. 14)
E.g.: Blackfoot: a. ootsistsíini 'strawberry '
b. ootsistsíni 'palate'
(Denzer-King, 2009, p. 18)
E.g.: Gros Ventre: a. 'isih 'tick'
b. 'iisih 'day'
(Cowell, 2004, p. 71)

of consonants and vowels, which implies that, in this respect, they can behave like tonal systems.

Likewise, while in stress systems stress is affected by syllable weight, in tonal languages tone may be affected by factors like the type of consonant, voice quality, glottal stop, etc., with an important role to play in tone genesis and evolution. As regards the presence of this influence in Plains Algonquian languages, it seems that some tonal processes – local dissimilation, glottalization and accent spread, for instance – appear to play an important role in the formation of tone.[35]

A summary of the results obtained through the analysis of the phonetic properties of the prosodic systems in Plains Algonquian languages is included in Table 1. In keeping with Hyman's (2001, 2006 and 2009) proposal concerning prototypes, and van der Hulst & Smith's (1988) and Yip's (2002) concept of continuum, I understand that there are only two categories – stress and tone – which exist on a continuum where there are pure tone systems [+tone] at one end and pure stress systems [+stress] on the other. There may also be other languages whose prosodic systems fall anywhere along these axes, depending on how prototypical the prosodic features of that language are, which places pitch accent systems somewhere between the two ends.

The evidence given in this table shows a higher number of correlations with tonal phonology, which, together with the fact that several obvious tonal processes such as glottalization, accent spread and tone dissimilation can be observed in these Native American languages, may indicate that they fit more readily into the category of tone languages than stress-accent languages.

Although phonetic investigations confirm that in Plains Algonquian languages pitch is the key correlate of prominence and that, consequently, the prosodic systems of these languages are typically identified as pitch accent systems, they consistently contravene characteristic pitch accent principles, including gross violations of obligatoriness (at least one prominence per word), culminativity (at most one prominence per word) – maybe the strongest arguments pointing to a tonal system –, and the lack of clear and consistent edge-effects.

In conclusion, the behaviour shown by the prosodic system of Plains Algonquian languages with respect to the phonetic criteria under examination would point to their being considered as hybrid systems, which share properties with both stress accent and tonal systems. Although in Hyman's theory the middle region is typically understood to be where pitch accent systems fall, the use of the label "pitch accent" for these prosodic systems cannot be regarded as entirely accurate owing to the lack of standards against which to measure what actually constitutes pitch accent. In fact, it might even be inappropriate to attempt to do so given the enormous variety found in each pitch accent system[36], which makes phonetic analyses of this kind of system both inconsistent and problematic. It might be better to use a denomination such as "transitional" to identify this type of hybrid system since it makes it clear that the prosodic system in question shares the properties of both stress and tone systems, thus avoiding the temptation to view it as a subset of either stress or tone systems[37], and allowing us to classify it more freely as more stress-like or tone-like depending on the phonetic analysis of its prosodic features. This could be of significant benefit since we do not then need an accurate definition of a term with distinctive properties, with the language in question being referred to as a pitch accent language having a system that differs from both a stress accent and a tonal system.

In conclusion, if we take into account the fact that the key correlate of prominence in the Proto-Algonquian[38] prosodic system was stress at the same

[35] Besides the persistent violation of culminativity and obligatoriness, other strong arguments can be cited in support of the view that Plains Algonquian languages represent transitional systems from stress-accent to tone. These arguments are illustrated by instances of tonal processes such as glottalization and accent spread, two processes typically found in tonal languages:

E.g.: Arapaho: néé´eesííni
néé´eesi-íni
thus-deriv
'It is thus.' (Cowell & Moss, 2008, p. 29)

E.g.: Blackfoot: ómaxkapì:si´
ómahkapi´sii
'timber wolves' (Stacy, 2004, p. 119)

The correspondence between glottalization and tonogenesis, along with the presence of accent spread, lend growing support to the hypothesis that Plains Algonquian languages would be better viewed as tone-like languages.

[36] On the one hand, Yip (2002, p. 260) states that pitch-accent languages, "occupy transitional ground between "pure" tone and "pure" stress languages, and that pitch-accent is simply "a convenient descriptive term for a particular type of language in which tone is used in a rather limited way, with one (or perhaps two) tone melodies". On the other hand, Hyman (2009, p. 219) claims that no language should be analyzed with pitch-accent, as languages in the middle of the continuum present indeterminate properties and, consequently, are not a coherent class. Finally, Clark (1988, pp. 51-53) suggests that under the traditional definition of pitch-accent, two types of systems can be interpreted: 1) a restricted tone language which has just one lexical melody or 2) a metrical language in which accent is realized as a high tone.

[37] Basically, the culminative nature of pitch accent, claimed to be a core characteristic of stress and pitch accent systems but never of tonal systems, prompted its subclassification under stress systems (cf. Prague School linguistics, including Jakobson, 1931; Trubetzkoy, 1939; among others), while the use of pitch by pitch accent systems prompted its subclassification under tone systems (Gandour, 1978; Beckman, 1986; van der Hulst & Smith, 1988; Yip, 2002, etc.).

[38] As in English, German, Spanish or French, Proto-Algonquian had a stress system, whereby stress was predictable, since long vowels and every second vowel received a stress. A stress accent system persists in Algonquian languages like Plains Cree, Menominee, Montagnais or Ojibwe but this does not seem to be the case in the

Table 1
Summary of the phonetic properties of the prosodic systems in Plains Algonquian languages

Criterion / Language	Arapaho	Blackfoot	Cheyenne	Gros Ventre
Correlate of prominence	Pitch: [+tone]	Pitch: [+tone]	Pitch: [+tone]	Pitch: [+tone]
Distribution	• Violation of culminativity: [+tone] • Adjacency: [+tone] • Violation of obligatoriness: [+tone]	• Violation of culminativity: [+tone] • Adjacency: [+tone] • Violation of obligatoriness: [+tone]	• Violation of culminativity: [+tone] • Adjacency: [+tone] • Violation of obligatoriness: [+tone]	• Violation of culminativity: [+tone] • Adjacency: [+tone] • Violation of obligatoriness: [+tone]
Function	• - distinctive: [+stress] • - contrastive: [+tone] • - delimitative: [+tone]	• - distinctive: [+stress] • - contrastive: [+tone] • - delimitative: [+tone]	• - distinctive: [+stress] • - contrastive: [+tone] • - delimitative: [+tone]	• - distinctive: [+stress] • - contrastive: [+tone] • - delimitative: [+tone]
Metrical structure	Probably [mixed]	Probably [mixed]	Probably [mixed]	Probably [mixed]
Presence of toneless words	Yes [+tonal]	Yes [+tonal]	Yes [+tonal]	Yes [+tonal]
Syllable weight	No [+tonal]	No [+tonal]	Yes [+stress]	No [+tonal]
Realization of prominence	Morpheme = TBU [+tonal]	Morpheme = TBU [+tonal]	Morpheme = TBU [+tonal]	Morpheme = TBU [+tonal]
Effect of prominence on phonology	Improbable [+tonal]	Improbable [+tonal]	Improbable [+tonal]	Improbable [+tonal]
Effect of phonology on prominence	Yes [+tonal]	Yes [+tonal]	Probable [+tonal]	Probable [+tonal]

time as the findings obtained in this analysis, it could be argued that the analysis of the prosodic system of Plains Algonquian languages reflects a transition from a stress accent system in Proto Algonquian to a tonal system and that, as the present state of the evolution lies midway between the two, the system could be more appropriately referred to as transitional. Furthermore, if we reappraise Plains Algonquian languages from the point of view of their emerging tonal systems, seeing them as languages in transition towards becoming tone languages, we would also possess a much more cohesive description of the languages' prominence system since they are geographically located in the vicinity of a number of other languages (e.g., Crow (Siouan), Tsúùt´ina (Athabaskan), etc.) that have unexpectedly developed tone.

Morphology and Syntax

Case is a grammatical category whose value reflects the grammatical function performed by a noun or pronoun in a phrase, clause, or sentence. For instance, the eight historical Indo-European cases are traditionally defined as follows[39]: the nominative case indicates the agent of an action, the accusative case the patient, the dative case the recipient or beneficiary, the genitive case possession, the ablative case movement from something or cause, the vocative case the addressee, the locative case the location, and the instrumental case the object used in performing an action.

The fact that a morphological case can be marked on heads or dependents leads to the distinction between head-marking and dependent-marking languages (Nichols, 1986). Dependent-marking languages have grammatical markers showing agreement and case government between the constituents on dependents, rather than on heads.

Some languages, such as modern-day English, Spanish and French, have largely lost their morphological case systems, only retaining some case distinctions in personal pronouns (e.g., "I/me" in English, "Yo/me/(a) mí" in Spanish, or "il/le/lui" in French) or interrogative/relative pronouns (e.g., "who/whom" in English), but not in nouns. By contrast, other languages like German[40] still have extensive morphological case systems, with pronouns, adjectives, determiners, and sometimes nouns all inflecting to indicate their case. German has four different morphological cases: nominative, accusative, dative, and genitive:

(89) German:

Mein Bruder ist sehr gut.

Plains Algonquian group, which appears to have developed pitch accent or even tonal systems.

[39]The correspondences are just rough descriptions since the precise case distinctions may vary from language to language and are often quite complex.

[40]German is predominantly dependent-marking as cases are mostly marked on pronouns, articles and adjectives, and less so on nouns.

1SG:NOM brother.NOM.SG be.PRES.3SG:S very good
'My brother is very good.'
(90) German:
Maria liebt meinen Bruder.
Maria.NOM.SG love.PRES.3SG:S 1SG:ACC.MASC brother.ACC.SG
'Maria loves my brother.'
(91) German: Maria gab meinem Maria.NOM.SG give. PAST.3SG:S 1SG:DAT.MASC Bruder ein Buch.
brother.DAT.SG a.ACC.NEUT book.ACC.SG
'Maria gave my brother a book.'
(92) German:
Maria mag meines
Maria.NOM.SG like.PRES.3SG:S 1SG:GEN.MASC
Bruders Haus.
brother.GEN house.ACC.NEUT
'Maria likes my brother´s house.'

Conversely, in head-marking languages such as Hungarian, case marking occurs predominantly on the noun, the head of the noun phrase:

(93) Hungarian:
Az én fiútestvérem nagyon jó.
the my brother .nom.sg very good
'My brother is very good.'
(94) Hungarian: Mária szereti az én fiútestvéremet.
Maria.nom.sg love.pres.3g:s the my brother.acc.sg
'Maria loves my brother.'
(95) Hungarian: Mária odaadott egy könyvet az én Maria.nom. sg give.past.3sg:s a book.acc.sg the my
testvéremnek.
brother.dat.sg
'Maria gave my brother a book.'
(96) Hungarian: Márianák tetszik az én fiútestvérem
Maria.dat.sg like.pres.3sg:s the my brother.gen háza.
'Maria likes my brother´s house.'

Algonquian languages are also examples of head-marking languages with all inflection for grammatical relations being realized on the verb and avoiding oblique nominals by means of the formation of applicative constructions. The portmanteau affixes on the Algonquian verb enable us to distinguish the person, number, obviation and grammatical function or semantic role of the different arguments. The latter property is provided by the direct/inverse system, which is widely understood to involve different grammar for transitive predications according to the relative positions of their agent and their patient on the person hierarchy 2nd. > 1st. > 3rd. > 4th. > Inanimate, which is, in turn, a combination of person, animacy, and topicality properties specific to a given participant. The direct construction is therefore used when the most agent-like of the transitive clause outranks the most patient-like in the person hierarchy, and the inverse is used when the argument possessing more patient-like qualities outranks the one with more agent-like properties, as shown in section 1 by examples (3 and 4).

On the one hand, direction (direct/inverse) marking has been generally considered as functionally equivalent to the distinguishing function of case marking since it enables subjects and objects, which are not otherwise overtly distinguished in Algonquian by case marking on nouns or different pronominal affixes, to be identified. On the other hand, owing to the fact that the existence of direct–inverse morphosyntax is usually accompanied by the proximate–obviative distinction, it is not unusual to find references to the obviative marking in Algonquian languages as "obviative case" marking. However, this does not seem to be an appropriate denomination. Firstly, the obviative third person is a grammatical-person marking that distinguishes a non-salient (obviative) third-person referent[41] from a more salient (proximate) third-person referent in a given discourse context. This distinction works as follows: in cases where a sentence or discourse context has more than one third person referent, the most salient or topical entity is marked as proximate and any other, less prominent, participants are marked as obviative. The obviative referent is always the marked form – its status is marked with a special marking on the noun and reflected in the verbal inflection –, with the proximate usually remaining unmarked:

(97) Arapaho:
Hinén nonoohówoot hiséin.
hinén ic+noohób+oot hísei-in
man (3)+see.vta-3:4 woman.obv
'The man saw the woman.'
(98) Blackfoot:
akííwa ikákomimmiiwa imitááyi.
aakíí-wa Ø+waakomimm+yiiwa imitáá-yi
woman-prox (3)+love.vta-3:4 dog-obv
'The woman loves the dog.'
(99) Cheyenne:
Vé'ho'e na'èstse ésevono éná´hóho.
Vé'ho'e na'èstse ésevono é-ná´h-óho
white.man one female.buffalo.obv (3)-kill.vta-3:4
'The white man killed a buffalo.'
(100) Gros Ventre:
´Ɔnóh´ihiih tiikyó´ɔniitéhiibɔɔk´i ´íθeihɔn´.
´ ɔnóh´ihiih ic+tikyó´ɔnííih-niitéhiib-ɔɔk´i ´íθeih-ɔn´
boy (3)+always-help.vta-3:4 girl.obv
'The boy always helps the girl.'

For example, in this sentence, there are two third-person referents but one of them is proximate so the other has to be obviative. This choice is not random, but depends on which one the speaker considers more central to the story. Additionally, the verbal inflection in every sentence indicates a proximate subject acting on an obviative object. Consequently, this type of grammatical marking is related to the pragmatic

[41] The obviative is sometimes referred to as the fourth person.

properties of the referents, rather than their syntactic function, so it should not be referred to as a case.

Secondly, this assumption is supported by the fact that a shift in the proximate/obviative status does not alter the grammatical relationship between the participants and the predicate:

(101) Arapaho:
Hinéin nonoohobéit hísei.
Hinén-in ic+noohób+éít hísei
man.obv (3)+see.vta-4:3 woman
'The man saw the woman.'
(102) Blackfoot:
Aakíiyi otsikákomimoka imitááwa.
aakíí-yi Ø+waakomimm-oka imitáá-wa
woman.obv (3)+love.vta-4:3 dog-prox
'The woman loves the dog.'
(103) Cheyenne:
Vé'hó'e na'èstse ésevone éná´haa´e.
vé'hó'e na'èstse ésevone é-ná´h-aa´e
white.man.obv one female.buffalo (3)-kill.vta-4:3
'The white man killed a buffalo.'
(104) Gros Ventre:
´Ɔnóh´ihiihɔn´ tiikyó´ɔniitéhiibeik´i ' íθeih.
´ɔnóh´ihiih-ɔn´ ic+tikyó´ɔnííih-niitéhiib-eik´i 'íθeih
boy.obv (3)+always-help.vta-4:3 girl
'The boy always helps the girl.'

In this other example, the participants have swapped the discourse-pragmatic status of the participants, but the proximate referent continues to be pragmatically more salient than the obviated referent and the verbal inflection in every sentence indicates an obviative subject acting on a proximate object. Thus, a comparison between the two former examples illustrates that a shift from proximate to obviative in a specific participant does not lead to a change in its syntactic function. Although both referents have swapped their status regarding the proximate/obviative distinction, they continue to function syntactically as the agent and patient - or, to be more accurate, (unaffected) theme or beneficiary, depending on the example - of the sentence respectively.

Unlike Algonquian languages, in languages such as English, German, Spanish, and French the main way of avoiding coreferentiality between multiple third-person referents is through gender distinction and the lack of a reflexive pronoun, as illustrated by the contrast between "she hurt herself", where the presence of the reflexive pronoun ensures coreferentiality between the two third person participants, and "she hurt her/him", where it is clear that there are two third persons because of the absence of the reflexive pronoun or because they are of different genders.

In summary, the concept of case as a system for the grammatical marking of arguments to define the type of relationship they bear to their predicates, should be distinguished from the obviation system or the proximate/obviative distinction, another type of grammatical marking, which is concerned with the differentiation of multiple third person participants in the same context in accordance with their pragmatic status. Although the correlation between the case, semantic role, and pragmatic status of participants seems clear since a noun marked with the nominative case usually performs the role of agent, which is generally associated with proximate status, and a noun marked with the accusative case usually has the semantic role of patient, which normally receives obviative marking, case is a morphological notion, which is associated with the syntactic properties of constituents, rather than a semantic or pragmatic notion. Thus, just as we should distinguish case from semantic role assignment (for example in a sentence like "He fell down" where the nominative case is not aligned with the semantic role of agent), it should not subsume obviation marking, which is closely related to the discourse-pragmatic status of every participant within a particular context.

Information Structure

The term 'Information Structure" has been traditionally defined as a grammatical phenomenon related to the way that information is distributed syntactically within a sentence and revolves round two concepts: what the addressee already knows and what s/he is expected to know as a result of the communication of a particular message by the addresser. The basic notions in information structure are known as theme and rheme (Ammann, 1928), topic and comment (Hockett, 1958), presupposition and focus (Chomsky, 1971), background and focus (Chafe, 1976), old/given and new (Halliday, 1967), and topic and focus (Sgall, Hajičová and Benešová, 1973). The concepts "theme" and "rheme" have undergone an evolution in their definition from their conception by Ammann, who used them to refer basically to the distinction between subject and predicate, until their approximation to the concepts "topic" and "comment" by the newer Prague School, namely as the entity that identified by a speaker and the information that is given about that entity. The dichotomy presupposition-focus provides the informational partition of the sentence with a semantic interpretation whereby the focus is the element containing the intonation center and the presupposition is the part of the remainder of the sentence. Background represents the information that the addressee presumably already knows and focus indicates that part of an utterance contributes new, non-derivable, or contrastive information. Givenness indicates that the denotation of an expression is present in the immediate context of the utterance while newness adds unknown information about that

expression. Topic is what the sentence is about and focus is what is predicated about that topic.

In an attempt at simplification, which intends to relate all these concepts one to another, the information structure of a clause is very commonly considered to comprise only two types of discourse-pragmatic status: the topic or theme of a sentence, which indicates what the sentence is about (i.e., pragmatic presupposition), and focus, comment, or rheme, which represents what is said about the topic (i.e., pragmatic assertion). Although the boundary between these two terms depends on the grammatical approach taken in the analysis and different types of topic and focus are also usually distinguished, both terms correspond very roughly to the notions of given and new information respectively, as anaphorically recoverable information and textually and situationally non-derivable information are by definition old and new, respectively. Although different languages realize topic and focus in different ways and do so most commonly through a particular word order and the use of a special intonation, the tendency to place topicalized constituents at the beginning of a sentence (topic fronting) and highlight focalized elements by prosodic and syntactic means is widespread.

Unlike languages such as English or French, which have a rigid word order, there are languages like Nunggubuyu (Gunwinyguan: northern Australia), and perhaps to a certain extent Russian, Polish, Czech, German, Dutch, Chinese, and Japanese whose case systems allow the order of arguments to be altered without changing the arguments' grammatical relations.

Word order in Algonquian languages is also apparently extremely flexible as it allows all kinds of possible combinations as to the position of the major constituents, that is, subject, verb and object (SOV, VSO, VOS, OSV or OVS), so that the syntactic functions cannot be deduced from their position in the clause, as illustrated by the following examples of monotransitive constructions in Cheyenne:

(105) Cheyenne:
a. Ného´éého évéstȧhémóho hetanóho. -> SVO
ného´éého é-véstȧhém-ó-ho hetanóho
my.father (4)-help.vta-4:5-sg.a+5.p man.obv
'My father helped the man.' (by Redfox & Leman in Leman, 1980a, p. 19)
b. Tse´tohe kȧse´éého sétȯhkeho éxhestanóhoone. -> SOV
tse´tohe kȧse´éého sétȯhkeho é-x-hestan-óhoon-e
deic young.woman rope (3)-past-take-with.hand.vti-3:I
'This young lady took the rope.' (by Petter & Leman, in Leman, 1980a, p. 63)
c. Móme´évėhéheškéhévóhta nemaʾkaatóhkonéhanótse
mó-me´-évė-hé-heškéhévóht-a ne-maʾkaatóhkonéhanótse
clm-surely-about-asp-dirty.vti-3:I (dub) our-buckets
tséʾtóhe. -> VOS
deic
'This one would surely dirty our buckets.' (by Howlingcrane & Leman, in Leman, 1980a, p. 38)
d. Éstanėšėševátamósesto(ho) hátšeške háhkotaho.->VSO
é-h-ta-nėšėševátamósest-o(-ho) hátšeške háhkotaho
(3)-past-have.pity.on.vta-3:4-sg.a+4.p ant grasshopper.obv
'The ant had pity on the grasshopper.' (by Flyingout & Leman, in Leman, 1980a, p. 28)
e. Momėheome éhnėhnaʾhaevó nótȧxévéʾhóʾe. -> OVS
momėheome é-h-nėh-naʾh-ae-vó nótȧxé-véʾhóʾe.
whole.families (3)-past-?-kill.vta-4:33-4.a+33.p warrior.whiteman.obv
'The soldiers killed whole families.' (by Strangeowl & Leman , in Leman,1987, p. 37)
f. Kȧhamaxė néhe heʾe étamȯheananȯtse. -> OSV
kȧhamaxė néhe heʾe é-ta-mȯheana-nȯ-(o)tse
sticks deic woman (3) gather.vti-3:II+II.p-II.p
´That woman gathered up the sticks.´ (Leman, 1991, p. 3)

The fact that the change in the linear ordering of the sentence constituents does not entail a significant change in the meaning of the whole sentence by itself can also be illustrated in ditransitive constructions like those in Blackfoot, below:

(106) Blackfoot:
a. Nitohkotawa ni´sa ponokaomitai.
nit-ohkot-awa ni´s-wa ponokáómitaa-yi
(1)-give.vta-1:3 older.brother-prox horse-obv
'I gave my brother a horse.'
b. Ni´sa nitohkotawa ponokaomitai.
ni´s-wa nit-ohkot-awa ponokáómitaa-yi
older.brother- prox (1)-give.vta-1:3 horse-obv
'My brother I gave a horse.'
c. Ponokaomitai nitohkotawa ni´sa.
ponokáómitaa-yi nit-ohkot-awa ni´s-wa
horse-obv (1)-give.vta-1:3 older.brother-prox
'A horse I gave my brother.'

Although referential phrases are not normally explicitly expressed in natural discourse, there are situations where two (or even three) third person participants are involved in the same discourse tract. In these cases one of the third person arguments is normally marked as proximate, which is pragmatically more salient or prominent[42], and all others are marked as obviative, which are less salient. The choice of which third person participant is proximate and which is obviative is open to the speaker. However, there is a general tendency for humans to have priority over animals and inanimate participants to be marked as proximate.

Although it is generally accepted (Hawkinson & Hyman, 1974) that agents are inherently more prominent or salient than patients, it is of note that the concepts proximate and obviative do not correspond

[42]The concept of prominence or salience appears to subsume a combination of the discourse-pragmatic factors such as specificity, topicality, emphasis, etc.

to the semantic roles of agent and patient either:

(107) Gros Ventre:
a. ´Inén´i nii'áaanibɔɔk´i ´íθaa'n´ɔ.
´inén´i ic+ni'áaanib-ɔɔk´i ´íθaa'-n´ɔ
man (3)-love.vta-3:4 woman-obv
'The man loves the woman.'
b. ´Íθaa' nii'áaanibeik´i ´inén´in´ɔ.
´íθaa' ic+ni'áaanib-eik´i ´inén´i-n´ɔ
woman (3)-love.vta-4:3 man-obv
'The man loves the woman.'

As we can see from the examples given above, the semantic role of agent can be realized by both a proximate referent such as ´inén´i 'man' (107a) and an obviative referent like ´inén´in´ɔ 'man' (107b). Similarly, the semantic role of patient can be played by both a proximate argument like ´íθ*aa'* 'woman' (107b) and an obviative argument such as ´íθ*aa'n´*ɔ 'woman' (107a). This dual behaviour of both proximate and obviative arguments is reflected in the direct/inversion opposition: the direct construction (3:4) is used if the agent is more topical or ontologically salient (=proximate) than the patient (=obviative), and the inverse if the patient is more topical or ontologically salient (=proximate) than the agent (=obviative).

Likewise, although it is also generally assumed (Osgood & Bock, 1977) that more prominent or more salient items appear earlier in a sentence – and indeed there is a noticeable trend in Plains Algonquian languages in which proximate referents usually precede obviative –, we can see that both proximate and obviative arguments can also occur in a pre- or postverbal position within a sentence:

(108) Arapaho:
a. Hísei nonooohówoot hinénin.
isei(n) ic+noohób-oot inenin
woman (3)-see.vta-3:4 man.obv
'The woman sees the man.' (Cowell & Moss, 2008: 350)
b. Hinénin nonooohówoot hísei.
inenin ic+noohób-oot isei(n)
man.obv (3)-see.vta-3:4 woman
'The woman sees the man.' (Cowell & Moss, 2008, p. 351)

Furthermore, although it seems a more reliable correlation owing to the fact that they mark discourse prominence and, therefore, have a closer relationship to the information structure than to the syntax or semantics, proximate and obviative statuses do not correspond to the notions of topic and focus or vice versa. On the one hand, proximate referents may be either topical (109) or focal (110):

(109) Blackfoot:
Myániwa ana ínoyiiwa ani aakííkoani
myani-wa an-(w)a Ø-ino-yiiwa an-(y)i aakiikoan-(y)i
Mary-prox deic-prox (3)-see.vta-3:4 deic-obv girl-obv
'Mary, she saw that girl' (Bliss, 2005, p. 67)
(110) Blackfoot:
Ama nínaawa annohk ááwayakiiwahk ani
am-(w)a ninaa-wa annohk Ø-aawayaki-(yi)iwahk an-(y)i
deic-prox man- prox who (3)-hit.vta-3:4 deic-obv
'It was this man who hit him' (Bliss, 2005, p. 68)

In (109), the proximate referent *myániwa* 'Mary' is topicalized and in (110), the proximate referent *ama ninaawa* 'this man' is contrastively focused, which proves that proximate forms can be used to refer to both topical and focal constituents.

On the other hand, obviative arguments may also be topical (111) or focal (112):

(111) Cheyenne:
Hénáá´énėse é-amó´enánoho
hénáá´énėse é-am-ó´en-án-oho
something .obv (3)-along-take.vti-by.hand-3:4
'Something, he was rolling along it.' (Leman, 1980, p. 29)
(112) Cheyenne:
éhma´xenėsó´enomėhoo´ o. mó-nėsé-hanevóhe
é-h-ma´xe- nėsó´enome-hoo´o mó-nėsé-hanevóhe
(3)-past-really-snore.vai-3(med) clm-be.vai-4 (dub)
né=hetane
néhe=hetane
deic=man
'He was really snoring. Here, that was him, that man.' (Leman, 1987, p. 270)

In (111), the obviative indefinite pronoun hénáá´énėse, which denotes something whose identity is unknown to the speaker, is topicalized and in (112), the verbal form *mó-nėsé-hanevóhe* includes the typical verbal prefix of the dubitative[43] mode *mó-*, a copular verb *nėsé*, which is commonly used to emphasize a specific participant, and the pronominal affix *-hanevóhe*, which refers to a focalized obviative argument.

Consequently, although languages with an apparently flexible word order are usually called free word order languages, this term is misleading since the choice of word order is normally governed by certain pragmatic factors. For this reason, the concept 'discourse configurationality' (Hale, 1983; Jelinek, 1984; Kiss, 1995) was developed to describe languages where constituent order is primarily determined by the discourse-pragmatic status of participants, so that languages that attach more importance to the encoding of discourse-pragmatic functions than semantic roles or syntactic functions are commonly referred to as discourse-configurational languages.

In some of these languages, such as Chinese and Japanese, word order largely reflects a topic-focus (or theme–rheme) canonical word order so they are sometimes referred to as topic-prominent languages. By contrast, in other languages like Ojibwe (Tomlin & Rhodes, 1992, Valentine, 2001; Morse, 2012), and

[43] The dubitative mode is commonly used to express doubt, uncertainty, or speculation because the information to be transmitted is known to have occurred but has not actually been witnessed.

possibly Menominee (Johnson, Macauley, Rosen & Wang, 2015; Shields, 2004) and Meskwaki (Dahlstrom, 2003), word order represents the reversed structure, namely focus-topic, so they could be called focus- or comment-prominent languages. Finally, there are languages like Czech that, despite showing a preference for topic over focus, permit both orders, which are then distinguished by intonation.

Plains Algonquian languages also seem to lack a clear dominant structure, that is to say, word order does not appear to mark a definite topic-focus or focus-topic structure consistently. At least in narrative, which is the best documented form of Algonquian discourse, the vast majority of sentences consists simply of a verb, with the various other nominal participants marked on the verb but not explicitly mentioned in the sentence (there are also typically peripheral elements, such as particles, adverbials, and the like). When the sentence contains an NP, this usually occupies the post-verbal position, which seems to be the unmarked syntactic position. The fact that an NP may occur pre-verbally indicates greater pragmatic saliency for that participant, which generally takes place when the situation involves topic continuation or a contrastive element:

(113) Arapaho:
line 80: “Hiiko,” heehehk, “toh´uusiitenein heisonoonin,” hee3oohok
iiko ee-hehk toh-iisiiten-ein eisonoonin ee3-oohok
no say.vai-3 because-catch.vta-3:2 our.father ay.vta-3:4(subj)
‘”No,” he said, “because our father caught [and tamed] you,” he said to him.
line 81: Nohci´ “heetih´iinikotiino´”
noh=ci´ eetih-iinikotii-no´
and=again let.it.be-play.vai-12
‘And once again [the first boy said], “Let´s play.”
line 82: “hiiko, heisonoonin toh´uusiitenein,” hee3oohok.
iiko eisonoonin toh-iisiiten-ein ee3oohok
no our.father because-catch.vta-3:2 say.vai-3:4(subj[44])
‘No, because our father caught [and tamed] you,” he said to him [again]’
(Cowell & Moss, 2008, p. 407, lines 80-82)

In this dialogue the topical element *heisonoonin* ‘our father’, which is introduced in line 80, reappears again in line 82, this time occupying a preverbal position at the front of the sentence.

(114) Arapaho:
line 25: ´oh hú´un honóuuneenóú´u
´oh i´in ic+ouuneenoo-´i
but deic [bones] (I)+difficult.vii-ii
‘But those bones are difficult [to lift].’
line 26: Wohéí néhe´=ísei yee bíito´ówu´ ne´i khoo noh´óéno´
wohei nehe´=isei(n) yee biito´owu-´ ne´i khoo noho´en-o´
well deic woman yes earth-sg then well lift.vti-3
‘Well, this woman well [she put] earth [on her hands] and then she lifted [the bones]’ (Cowell & Moss, 1998, p. 402, lines 25-26)

As we can see from this other excerpt, a focalized element such as *néhe´=ísei* ‘this woman’ occurs in clause-initial position.

A familiar or given topic and a contrastive topic or focus represent only two possible statuses for a clause-initial constituent in these languages, but other options such as instances of topic shift and resumptive topics can also be associated with the leftmost position in a sentence, as we can see from the following discourse in Cheyenne:

(115) Cheyenne:
line 1: Tá´tóhe hetane hestóhkȯxe étaévaameno´eohtse
tá´tóhe hetane he-stóhkȯxe é-ta-éva-ame-no´e-ohtse
deic man his-axe (3)-away-back-along-with-go.vai.3
‘That man carried his axe.’
line 2: Étaévaameno´eohtse hestóhkȯxe
é-ta-éva-ame-no´e-ohtse he-stóhkȯxe
(3)-away-back-along-with-go.vai.3 his-axe
‘He carried his axe.’
line 3: Éévaaseno´eohtse hestóhkȯxe
é-éva-ase-no´e-ohtse he-stóhkȯxe
(3)-back-off-with-go.vai.3 his-axe
‘He carries off his axe.’
line 4: Tsé´tóhe kȧsovááhe héne hóhkȯxéso éameno´ehne
tsé´tóhe kȧsovááhe héne hóhkȯxé-so é-ame-no´e-hne
(3)-back-off-with-go .vai.3 deic axe-dim (3)-along-with-walk.vai.3
‘This young man carried his hatchet.’
line 5: Hóhkȯxe éno´ehne
hóhkȯxe é-no´e-hne
axe (3)-with-walk.vai.3
‘He is carrying his axe.’ (Leman, 1991, pp. 69-70)

In line 1 it is possible to observe a topic shift: whereas in the former discourse tract the story is about a dog, now the participant *tá´tóhe hetane* “that man” becomes the main topic. Additionally, we can find the first mention of another participant, namely *hestóhkȯxe* “axe”. In line 2 a new verb, the Cheyenne equivalent to “carry”, is introduced in the context, and in line 3 the verb, slightly modified this time, occurs again in clause-initial position. Line 4 shows a new topic shift whereby a new participant, namely *tsé´tóhe kȧsovááhe* “this young man”, appears at the front of the sentence. Particularly striking is that this line introduces a further participant – *héne hóhkȯxéso* ‘his hatchet’ – but occurs in second position, probably due to the fact that it is not considered to be as relevant as the former. Finally, in line 5 there seems to be a resumptive topic because the clause-initial constituent *hóhkȯxe* ‘(his) axe’ has already been mentioned above.

Taking all this evidence into account, it would seem reasonable that, in order to detect the dominant word order pattern in Plains Algonquian languages,

[44] Besides being obligatory in irrealis sentences, the subjunctive mode also has an evidential use in the narration of traditional stories.

we should find out what kind of pragmatic factors are in play. Predicate focus, which contains a topical constituent and an assertion made about that topic, is generally considered to be the unmarked type of focus structure in most languages. However, the evidence provided by these Algonquian languages appears to suggest a tendency to place any information that the addresser considers relevant to the addressee preverbally. We might therefore consider the concept of "newsworthiness" the determinant pragmatic factor in the syntactic structure of information packaging in these languages. According to Mithun (1987), the term "newsworthiness" relates to the pragmatic salience or prominence given by a speaker to a specific constituent in a discourse span because s/he considers this information (whether old or new) important from the hearer´s perspective. Thus, although this concept can also be affected by the notions of presupposition and assertion, it should preferably be linked to the concept of relevance: the speaker or writer´s choice of information that seems newsworthy is closely related to empathy, that is the capacity to recognize the feelings, emotions, beliefs, and opinions experienced by the addressee.[45] This would also suggest that if we desire to continue using the terms topic or theme and focus or comment or rheme to refer to the two major discourse-pragmatic statuses participants can have in a communicative event in these languages, it might be reasonable to suppose that the concepts of focus and topic must underlie the distinction between newsworthy and non-newsworthy information, a criterion that could be regarded as a mixture of the attributes of aboutness, informativeness, update, discourse-newness, and hearer-newness – to borrow Mycock & Lowe's (2014) terms – rather than purely related to the notions of assertion or presupposition.

In conclusion, syntax in Algonquian languages such as Cheyenne, Blackfoot, Arapaho and Gros Ventre appears to be largely a question of pragmatics, since word order in these languages has a discourse function: that is to say, their word order is oriented towards the encoding of the discourse-pragmatic status of the participants involved in the context, so they are appropriately referred to as discourse-configurational. Furthermore, although it is true that the clause constituents in these languages are ordered according to their discourse-pragmatic properties, these are more related to newsworthiness than to the distinction between givenness (i.e., what is known vs. what is new) and aboutness (i.e., what an utterance is about vs. what is said about it).

Conclusion

The main aim of this article is to describe the distinctive grammatical properties shown by Plains Algonquian languages. However, the important thing about these distinctive properties is not only that they show us how different these languages are from other more familiar languages, but also that they cannot be accounted for appropriately if we do not resist the temptation to use terms adopted from these more familiar languages to refer to concepts that are perceived as functional equivalents in Native American languages when in fact, despite being to a greater or lesser extent related, the value of these concepts is significantly different in these minority languages. This can be illustrated by several examples covering all areas of grammar such as: 1) the use of the terms "subject" and "object" to refer to grammatical or syntactic relations when there are no grounds for assuming that they exist at all in these languages; 2) the problem that arises when we have to choose between the labels "argument" and "adjunct" to refer to semantic arguments not cross-referenced by pronominal affixes on a particular verbal complex; 3) the difficult task of identifying the number of categories or, more precisely, the decision regarding which is the most suitable criterion on which we should build in order to identify the number of categories in Plains Algonquian languages; 4) the issue regarding the interpretation of the prosodic systems exhibited by these languages in their current state of development as either stress-accent, pitch-accent or tonal; 5) the consideration of the proximate vs. obviative system as a further type of case or not; and 6) the examination of the information structure in these languages through a different interpretation of the concepts "topic" and "focus", which are not only associated with the traditional notions of givenness or aboutness but also to others such as relevance or salience based on empathy for the addressee.

Consequently, in an attempt to suggest how potential problematic areas of grammatical description in Plains Algonquian languages could be tackled more adequately, I propose the use of the following terms[46]:

1. "Privileged Syntactic Argument" instead of "subject"; an equivalent for the grammatical function of "object" would be completely unnecessary.

[45] An important correlate of the importance attributed to the addressee in these languages is reflected in the person – salience hierarchy 2nd. > 1st. > 3rd. > 4th. > Inanimate, which determines the distinction between the core arguments of a predicate on the basis of their semantic role. The only exception seems to be Blackfoot, whose hierarchy appears to rank the first person over the second.

[46] I do not claim any originality with these proposals, as I am aware that all of them may already have been used to describe the grammar of Algonquian languages. My only aim is to highlight the grammatical distinctiveness of these languages and the importance of finding terms that ensure accuracy in their description.

2. "Argument-Adjunct", "semi-core argument", or "derived argument" for semantic arguments not cross-referenced by pronominal affixes.
3. The identification of just three categories, namely verb, noun, and particle, if we tackle the study of categories in these languages from the perspective of sentence-syntax, or a higher number of categories (e.g., verb, noun, adjective, adverb, connector, adposition, demonstrative, particle), if we take word-syntax into account, thereby treating morphemes as words.
4. The consideration of Plains Algonquian languages as "transitional languages" rather than "pitch-accent languages" or "tonal languages" in terms of the properties exhibited by their current prosodic systems.
5. "Proximate/obviative system" or "obviation system" instead of "obviative case".
6. The assumption that Plains Algonquian languages should be considered newsworthy-first languages in the sense that they are languages in which the syntax is organized to emphasize newsworthy information – non-newsworthy information structure of the sentence. Another option would be to consider them to be focus-prominent languages if we understand the concepts of "topic" and "focus" from a broader perspective, that is by equating focus with newsworthy information chosen by the addresser to communicate firstly to the addressee because s/he thinks it will be of great relevance, and topic with non-newsworthy information, that is information that the addresser considers less relevant to the addressee.

Finally, we should also note the influential role played by pragmatics in most areas of Algonquian grammar since pragmatic factors pervade much of Algonquian morphosyntax (e.g., the selection of a privileged syntactic position in main clauses, the choice of the semantic arguments to be incorporated in verbs and the concomitant variation shown by verbs in terms of transitivity, etc.), semantics (i.e., the factor of pragmatic prominence or salience driving the speaker's choice as to which argument to use in a context involving two third person participants, whether they will act as agent or patient), and information structure (i.e., the influence of the discourse-pragmatic concept of "newsworthiness" when it comes to structuring the way that information is transferred in discourse).

In conclusion, the fact that the grammar of a specific language – in this case illustrated by the Plains Algonquian languages – is different in many areas when compared with a widely spoken language, such as English, appears to imply that the concepts applied to its description will – albeit to a greater or lesser extent too – differ, so that the terms used to account for those distinctive properties will also probably differ from those used in the description of other languages with different grammatical characteristics.

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An Enquiry-Based Approach to Develop Language Skills in Mobile-Supported Classrooms

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This article investigates the pedagogical impact of both the mobile-testing system PeLe and an enquiry-based approach to language skills development in the context of mobile-assisted language learning. The study aims to work out a methodological framework for PeLe implementation into a language classroom through immediate feedback and formative assessment. The framework was developed and pilot tested in a joint research project, MobiLL, by EFL teachers at Lomonosov Moscow State University (Russia) and University College HiST (Norway). The analysis based on quantitative research data demonstrated that PeLe-supported language classes resulted in language skill gains. The qualitative data analysis highlighted the positive effect of mobile formative assessment and of post-test activities on learner motivation and collaboration skills. This study suggests that the use of technology was effective in engaging students in enquiry-based tasks to cultivate collaboration.

Keywords: MALL, mobile apps, formative assessment, enquiry-based learning, immediate feedback

Recent research has demonstrated the variety of educational benefits mobile technologies have for foreign language learning/teaching, including: an increase in learner autonomy (Murphy, Bollen, & Langdon, 2012); mobile networking collaboration (Lan, Sung, & Chang, 2007; Pemberton, Winter, & Fallahkhair, 2010); new formats for problem-solving, interactive tasks based on augmented reality (Cook, 2010; Driver, 2012); a more personalized learning experience (Petersen & Markiewicz, 2008; Oberg & Daniels, 2013); instant feedback (Voelkel & Bennett, 2013); immediate diagnosis of learning problems and design of new assessment models (Cooney & Keogh, 2007).

Today different types of mobile tools are used in language learning/teaching to provide assessment and feedback such as mobile testing or assessment systems, discipline-based mobile apps, mobile clickers designed specifically to assess the level of student proficiency. However, in spite of the plethora of research in the area of mobile learning, instructors are challenged to examine how the pedagogical potential provided by mobile technologies relates to their teaching aims, methods, and subject matter. To date, there is no consistent *mobile-assisted language learning* (MALL) methodology, thus there is a great need for a new educational framework for mobile-testing apps implementation aimed at developing learner skills rather than just assessing learner knowledge.

Materials and Methods

This study examines the extent to which the implementation of a mobile-testing system PeLe in the language classroom can be efficient in developing learner language skills.

The research question included a number of sub-questions:

- What is the PeLe pedagogical potential to develop student language skills?
- Does PeLe intervention impact assessment patterns of the traditional classroom and foster the development of learner language skills?
- How can enquiry-based methods be effectively implemented into *mobile assisted language learning model* (MALLM)?
- Does the proposed MALLM impact student motivation and to what extent?

The hypothesis of this research is that enquiry-based learning and educational opportunities provided by handheld devices, such as interactivity and immediate feedback, could foster learner language skills.

The key objective of this research is to work out sound pedagogical strategies on how to implement the mobile-testing system PeLe in the traditional language classroom.

Literature Review

Today teachers who would like to meet the expectations of a new generation of digital natives need to follow a transformational approach (Puentedura, 2011) to the development of language skills based on creative use of mobile technologies within a learner-oriented environment. The main prerequisite for this environment to function is a collaborative peer-learning approach. In this social framework, learners' expertise and cultural practices gain importance as the role of the devices becomes less important. Mobility is no longer defined through the devices but through "the learners' abilities to act flexibly in ever changing and self-constructed learning contexts" (Seipold, 2011, p. 32). Seipold (2011) argues that only if teachers provide spaces for learners to act according to their interests, agency and cultural practices, can innovative uses for the devices be discovered by learners.

The research framework is also based on Mishra and Koehler's (2006) model for implementing new technologies into teaching - Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge (TPCK). This approach suggests that teachers should aim to reach a point where their traditional content and pedagogical knowledge is enhanced by technological knowledge. According to the TPCK framework, a new tool complements teachers' knowledge and skills. This theoretical perspective suggests that learning is affected and modified by the tools employed and that, reciprocally, these tools are adjusted through the ways they are used for learning. As Stockwell & Hubbard (2013) argue: "Let the language learning task fit the technology and environment, and let the technology and environment fit the task" (p. 9). The Substitution Augmentation Modification Redefinition model developed by Puentedura (2011) can be used as a complement to TPCK. According to this model, the use of new technology tools in education may lead either to the *enhancement of education* (augmentation and substitution phases) or *to the real transformation* (redefinition and modification phases). *Redefinition* is the highest transformation phase which allows for a completely new format for tasks and activities that were previously impossible. This approach also offers a perspective in which pedagogical considerations shape the design of mobile learning.

Another important theory that has been influential in defining the framework of this study is enquiry-based learning. Many researchers today highlight the social aspects of mobile technologies, proposing complex structures of m-learning pedagogy built on Vygotsky's hypothesis about the importance of discussions in an educational context (Laurillard, 2007; Sharples, Taylor, & Vavoula, 2007). Enquiry-based learning is a shift away from passive methods to enquiry-based methods in which students are expected to construct their own knowledge and understanding by taking part in guided processes of enquiry (Kahn & O'Rourke, 2005).

Danaher, Gururajan, and Hafeez-Baig (2009) propose the m-learning structure based on three principles: *engagement, presence and flexibility*. Presence is characterized as an *interaction* that is sub-divided into three types: cognitive (student-content), social (peer) and teaching (student-teacher). Kearney, Schuck, K. Burden, & Aubusson (2012) argue that the main constituents of m-learning pedagogy are *personalization, authenticity, and collaboration*. Mobile technologies enable instructors to create a *collaborative environment* that motivates students to learn for themselves, bringing a research-based approach to the subject. These interactive, "dialogic models of learning are similar to the processes of participation in research" (Sambell, 2010, p. 56).

Ubiquitous access to information via mobile devices potentially enables a paradigmatic shift in education; it changes the way classes are managed and the instructor's role (Betty, 2004). Kahn & O'Rourke (2005) argue that enquiry-based learning encourages students to seek out new evidence for themselves, and supports a peer learning approach. This approach implies a principal change in the paradigm of teaching due to the fact that mobile devices effectively "act as accelerators of the social discourse" (DeGani, Martin, Stead, & Wade, 2010, p. 181). Therefore, a common

thread through nearly all of the literature is the importance of combining mobile voting and testing tools with such constructivist approaches as peer- and enquiry-based learning.

Mobile Testing and Voting Tools in educational contexts: A brief overview

In one study, the Language Learning and Assessment System, 'Learnosity', was used to facilitate oral evaluation of L2 Irish via mobile devices linked to an audio server. 67% of the students reported having made progress in speaking Irish as a result of this pilot project (Cooney & Keogh, 2007). 'Talkback' is an interactive response system for assessing listening and speaking skills in university L2 French and L2 English learning. It presents recorded prompts to which students respond orally. The research demonstrated that Talkback offered ease of use and immediate feedback for learners (Demouy, Eardley, Shrestha, & Kukulska-Hulme, 2011). 'UbiSysTEST' is a ubiquitous testing system that provides an opportunity for creating, storing, and correcting tests: through UbiSysTest learners can download the mobile version of the tests (Lopes & Cortes, 2007).

Quite a few mobile voting tools (Xorro-Q, Mentimeter, MbClick, Socrative, PollEverywhere, SRS, etc.) are currently available on the market. These tools have some common technological characteristics to facilitate material presentation and feedback. Many researchers argue that they allow for anonymous participation and add a game approach to the classroom environment (Martyn, 2007); they can be used successfully in a small classroom as well as in a large one (Gilbert, 2005); they can turn multiple-choice questions into effective tools for engaging all students during class, students are more invested in participating in discussion and are more likely to have generated some ideas to share in that discussion (Bruff, 2009). Mobile voting tools can advance profound learning when teaching strategies center on higher-level thinking skills (Dangel & Wang, 2008) and help design formative assessment activities (Rubner, 2012).

The research which has been done on the pedagogical impact of Student Research System (SRS) demonstrated that SRS supported approach influenced not only lecture design – time management, the mode of material presentation, activity switch patterns – but also learners-teacher interaction, student collaboration, and output, formats of activities and tasks. The vast majority of the research concurs that using mobile clickers in the classroom has a positive influence, especially on factors such as student motivation, engagement and peer learning potential (Caldwell, 2007).

Research Methodology

Mobile Language Learning (MOBILL) was an international project involving two institutions: Sør-Trøndelag University College (HiST, Trondheim, Norway), and Lomonosov Moscow State University (LMSU, Moscow, Russia). The project was conducted during two periods from September 2013 to January 2014 and from February 2014 to May 2014. The key objective of this research was to work out sound pedagogical strategies on how to implement the mobile testing system PeLe into the traditional language classroom (pedagogical perspective), thus introducing some improvements to the piloting tool (technological perspective). In the first period, teachers from LMSU and HiST piloted PeLe and tried to develop the mobile assisted language learning model (MALLM) based on enquiry-based approach and formative assessment.

The Pedagogical Potential of the Mobile Testing System PeLe to Enhance Language Learning

The Mobile Testing System (PeLe) for handheld devices, developed at Sør-Trøndelag University College, enables instructors to deliver a test through any mobile device, assess it and provide timely feedback to both individual students and a group of students immediately after a test. Using Pele, students can respond to tests electronically and the teacher can see on the screen what is happening during the test. Both the number of students that have answered and the percentage of correct answers to each question are continuously updated on the instructor's display. Feedback is created for each possible answer option. PeLe allows students to see on their own devices the individual score they got on the assessment. PeLe has SRS built in that can be used to give students a second chance in voting. The technological characteristics and the pedagogical potential of PeLe are summed up in Table 1.

Table 1
Technological characteristics and the pedagogical potential of PeLe

Technological characteristics of PeLe	***Pedagogical Potential***
Multiple choice tests can be delivered either via PeLe or in the written (paper) form	• teaching in technologically limited environments • no need for profound tech preparation
Instant visualization of the test results	• group dynamics evaluation • formative assessment approach • enhance learner motivation

Immediate test assessment and feedback	• timely diagnosis of teaching/learning problems • instant feedback on learning problems in the large auditorium • revision of teaching strategies to help the students to overcome obstacles
Student Response System (mobile voting tool) is installed	• can be used to conduct in-class surveys, replacing paper-based and on-line versions • encourage peer discussions and post-test activities • can be used to run voting sessions several times • maintain students' attention longer
Database stores both group and individual results for each session held	• e-portfolio approach: evaluation of student learning progress • formative assessment approach • easy to identify the performance of each student • evaluation of group dynamics
It returns individual feedback to the student, direct to their mobile phone/device	• individual approach to each student • e-portfolio approach: student reflection on the learning progress
Multiple-choice questions are created that are a mixture of text and images	• visualization of learning materials • enhancing learner motivation
The teacher can see on their screen what is happening during the test	• evaluation of student learning progress • any aspect of student output is under control and can immediately be drawn attention to
Equipment necessary: one internet-enabled teacher computer and internet-enabled student mobile devices	• teaching in technologically limited environments • no need for bulky costly equipment
Use of student own devices	• no need for tech instructions – familiar devices

PeLe is perfectly suited to evaluate both group dynamics and individual student results; it was primarily used in our research for formative assessment or low-stake assessment, which serves to give learners feedback on their performance and "provides them with a gauge of how close they are to reaching a pre-specified learning goal" (Sambell, 2010, p. 58). PeLe as well as SRS implementation allows for significant feedback pattern changes due to the fact that the test results can be provided almost instantly (Arnesen, Korpås, Hennissen, & Stav, 2013).

The methodological framework of the MALL model

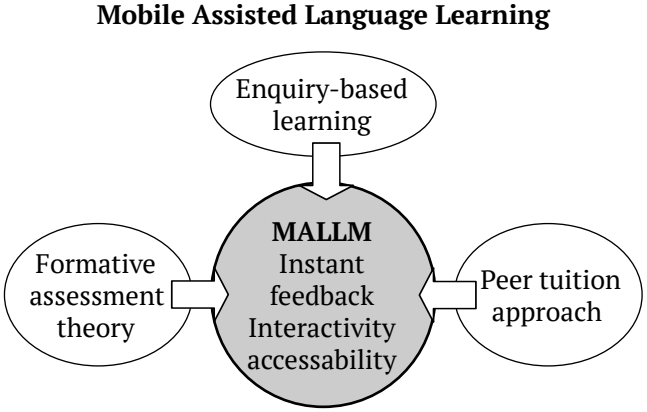

Figure 1. The mobile assisted language learning model.

based on PeLe implementation includes both enquiry-based methods, such as collaborative and peer learning post-test activities, brainstorming, problem-solving activities, group discussions, and mobile learning opportunities such as immediate feedback, formative assessment, interactivity, and flexibility. The project implementation and research design are illustrated in Figure 1.

Data Collection

Data collection was carried out in three cycles that took place from September 2013 to January 2014:

(1) The intervention of PeLe tests as formative assessment tools from September to December 2013 in three experimental groups. Quantitative data of the first and the second voting of PeLe tests were analyzed by mean and standard deviation, students' t-test results. The grid on post-test activities was used after each test was completed by the teachers of the experimental groups.

(2) In addition, quantitative data of the final tests were gathered in control and experimental groups to compare overall performance at the end of the semester; the data were analyzed by mean and standard deviation, students' t-test results.

(3) The post-intervention questionnaire asked students to reflect on their attitudes to PeLe integration. Qualitative data were then gathered to help explain quantitative findings.

The Project Implementation and Research Design: Methodology of PeLe Intervention

We offered the following procedure of PeLe intervention employed in this study:

1. *Setting up the assessment template*

The teacher sets up the PeLe assessment template

choosing the number of questions, alternatives, and the correct answer. In this case, teachers have three options: they can use the printed version of the test, they can show the test on the WIB, or they can copy, paste and save the test on PeLe.

2. *The test is on*

Students take the multiple-choice test and the teacher gets the answers monitoring this process on the computer screen. When the students are picking the correct answers using their hand-held devices, the teacher can see the group dynamics and each student's test results. At this stage, the teacher can see what kind of problems students have both as a group and individually, and can detect what test questions are difficult which better enables them to choose the most suitable version.

3. *Test submission and instant feedback*

The teacher takes some time (usually about 3-4 minutes on a 20-question test) to analyze the test results then students are shown their group scores on each test item in the form of a diagram. The teacher chooses the items that were the most difficult ones for students. After that, the pedagogical agent selects scaffolding from the range of post-test activities: teacher explanation, a group discussion or brainstorming, a pair discussion or SRS-supported activity.

4. *Post-test activities*

At this stage, the teacher has to pick a post-test activity aimed at improving test results. The type of activity depends upon the group results on a test question. We offered the following activities: teacher explanation, group discussion or brainstorming, pair discussion. To figure out what types of post-test activities were the most effective ones, we asked teachers to fill in the grids on post-test activities used after each test.

5. *Second voting on the tough questions*

After post-test activities, students vote on the discussed questions using either SRS installed or PeLe. At this stage, the teacher can also provide immediate feedback comparing and demonstrating group results for the first and second trial of the test. The methodology of PeLe implementation is illustrated in Figure 2.

Participants and Methods

The project target groups consisted of Norwegian and Russian learners of English, all at approximately the same language level (B1) according to the Common European Framework for Languages. In the first period of experimentation, several groups of learners at HiST and at LMSU participated. For the purposes of this paper, only the data collected from the LMSU groups are discussed and analyzed. Students enrolled in a preparatory face-to-face English course at LMSU were randomly assigned to three experimental groups and one control group. Students of the experimental groups took a series of PeLe-supported formative grammar and vocabulary tests as volunteers using handheld devices. The control group was tested by means of a pen and paper method (see Table 2).

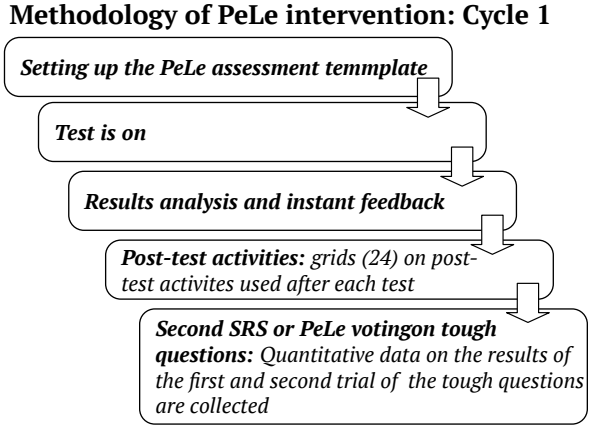

Figure 2. The methodology of PeLe implementation.

Table 2
The project target groups

	Group size	Male	Female	Number of fomative tests	Entrance test MS	Entrance test score SD
Experimental group 1	*12*	*1*	*10*	*7*	*81*	*5,97*
Experimental group 2	*8*	*1*	*7*	*7*	*64*	*8,75*
Experimental group 3	*9*	*3*	*6*	*7*	*66*	*15.09*
Control group	7	0	7	0	60	*7,09*

Results and Discussion

Cycle 1

In the first cycle, the students of the three experimental groups took PeLe multiple-choice grammar and vocabulary tests according to PeLe methodology intervention (see Figure 2 above). In the experimental groups, formative Pele tests were provided in the form of in-class grammar and vocabulary tests. The test data were stored at the server of HiST, Norway. The tests included from 10 to 25 items. Students responded with their smartphones or tablets. They had access to PeLe tests by using the Wi-Fi in class. The students of the control group were taught in a more traditional way: they took the placement and final tests for summative assessment; they were not

supposed to take formative PeLe supported tests with immediate feedback on their results.

According to the methodology of PeLe intervention, we collected the quantitative data on the results of the first voting (FV) and the results of the second voting (SV) of the experimental groups (EXG) and analyzed the results. To assess the magnitude of any significant changes following the intervention, effect sizes were calculated according to the methods of mathematical statistics; the effectiveness of the experiment is characterized by the standard deviation (SD) and mean score (MS) for each group (see Table 3).

Table 3
The first and the second voting test results of the experimental groups

	EXG 1		EXG 2		EXG 3	
	MS	SD	MS	SD	MS	SD
FV Test 1	84	4.03	50	5.67	45	6.77
SV test 1	86	5.15	70	8.12	72	13.56
FV Test 2	86	5.61	40	6.56	65	8.67
SV Test 2	90	4.12	75	11.16	73	14.96
FV Test 3	88	6.45	68	7.89	78	6.67
SV Test 3	90	5.99	70	13.35	96	5.36
FV Test 4	90	4.89	40	10.11	56	11.14
SV Test 4	90	5.37	85	17.10	75	13.13
FV Test 5	90	4.04	62	13.02	70	12.56
SV Test 5	95	4.83	90	11.80	78	15.03
FV Test 6	90	4.56	65	5.56	45	12.44
SV Test 6	90	10.33	80	13.66	74	14.08
FV Test 7	68	11.13	71	6.78	40	12.55
SV Test 7	70	9.66	60	13.66	74	10.07

Based on these calculations, we can conclude that the effectiveness of the formative tests increased after post-tests activities. These results indicate that there was a substantial improvement in group 2 and group 3 (see Table 4) where the entrance test mean scores were 64 and 66 respectively, whereas there was not such a substantial improvement in group 1 where the entrance test mean result was much higher at 88. In other words, the PeLe supported approach proved to be more beneficial for the groups with a lower language level: FV MS1 = **56**< SV MS1 = **75**, FV MS2 = **57**< SV MS2 = **77**. Statistical differences between the first and second voting of the PeLe supported test in the experimental groups were assessed using students' t-test for independent samples, as appropriate. T-test results of the first and second voting in group 2 and group 3 statistically are quite significant: EXG2 T-test = **3,0512** EXG3 T-test = **3,2342**. For group 1, T-test is **0,5023.** According to conventional criteria, this difference is considered to be not statistically significant.

Table 4
The mean score, standard deviation, t-test of the first and second voting of the PeLe supported test in the experimental groups

	FV MS	SV MS	FV SD	SV SD	FV and SV T-Test
EXG1	85	**87**	7,9	8,05	0,5023
EXG2	56	**75**	13,11	10,17	3,0512
EXG3	57	**77**	14,44	8,40	3,2342

As indicated above, our study demonstrated that the second voting results in the experimental groups were better than test results of the first trial. The main reasons for this could be the immediate feedback on group test results and the post-test activities offered by teachers in the experimental groups. Hattie and Timperley (2007) emphasize that effective feedback needs to provide information that specifically relates to the task so that students can develop error detection strategies and use the feedback to tackle more challenging tasks; this insight proves true in our study.

As for the types of the post-test activities that were the most effective, the teachers filled in the grids on the post-test activities used after each test. To answer the third question of our study, we first tried to figure out what kind of post-test activity led to an improvement in student performance, which then could be deemed as the most efficient one; second, whether any correlation existed between the group item score and the type of activity offered by the instructor. Our grid data analysis demonstrated that on average in each group 5.125 activities were offered after each test. The most frequently used activity by instructors was the class discussion (48 %), then comes teacher explanation (32,5 %), then group discussion activities (19,5 %), the least frequently used activity of all the activities (see Table 5).

Class discussions are likely used more frequently because it is easier for instructors to be class facilitators and to initiate discussions by asking open-ended questions that provoke further discussion, stimulate deeper exploration and challenge student thinking, encouraging them to seek new ways to work with problems and situations. But in this case, only carefully formulated questions can stimulate the generation of ideas and interest in what students have to say, providing clues as to whether students are "on track" (Kahn & O'Rourke, 2005). A peer tuition approach seems to be very time- and effort-consuming on the part of the teacher and furtherby Experimental language groups were not so numerous, so it was quite comfortable for the learners and the instructor to have a discussion.

Table 5
Number and type of post-test activities

	Teacher explanation		Class Discussion		Group Discussion		Total number of activities		The average number of activities per group
	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	**5,125**
EXG 1	34,4	11	53,1	17	12,5	4	26	32	
EXG2	37,5	18	43,8	21	19,9	9	39	48	
EXG3	25,6	11	48,8	21	25,6	11	35	43	
All Groups	32,5	40	48	59	19,5	24		**123**	

Our data analysis demonstratea that the class discussion was the most efficient post-test activity because the increase in the second trial test results was significant. These increases were statistically more significant for group 2: T-test = 3,053, FV MS2 = **56**<SV MS2 = **75**, and for group 3: T-test = 3,2342, FV MS3 = **57**< SV MS3 = **77**. In each group, 21 class discussion activities were used (see Table 6). These results substantiate the value of group discussions for student understanding, confirming the significance of a constructivist approach in mobile learning (Arnesen et al., 2013).

Table 6
Correlation between second voting test results and the post-activities offered

	SV MS	FV and SV T-Test	*Number of post- test activities*		
			Teacher explanation	*Class Discussion*	*Group discussion*
EXG 1	**87**	0,5023	11	17	4
EXG 2	**75**	3,0512	18	**21**	9
EXG 3	**77**	3,2342	11	**21**	11

The next question we tried to figure out is the correlation between the group item score and the type of activity offered. In the methodology of PeLe intervention, we presumed that if results are scattered all over the place and about 50 % or more of the students gave incorrect answers, it meant that the class did not have a clue, so the teacher explanation should follow. If more than 50 % of the students answered correctly, the teacher could initiate either a group discussion or a pair discussion aimed to figure out the correct answer to the test statement. A pair discussion can be based on a peer-tuition approach wherein the student who answered correctly explains it to the other student.

Our grid data analysis demonstrated that if 50 % of the group members gave incorrect item answers, the instructors preferred teacher explanation technique; if from 50 to 75 % of the group members gave the correct item answer, the instructors offered either pair or class discussion activities. In this case, the teacher choice depends on the two important considerations: whether it is necessary to give some additional input to initiate the discussion and whether the chosen activity helped save the time assigned for the test and its discussion.

Cycle 2

The learners of both control and experimental groups were given the same placement and final tests. These tests were used for summative assessment. The overall mean scores were included to compare overall performance of the control and experimental groups after the implementation of the intervention. The data collected on the mean scores of the entrance and final tests in control and experimental groups suggest that introduction of PeLe tests helped improve academic performance in the experimental groups in mean results of final test (see Table 7), whereas the control group demonstrated just a slight increase in mean scores (60>62). Statistical differences between the two tests were also assessed using Student's t-test for independent samples, as appropriate: t-test results in group 1 are 1.807, in group 2 – 2.6201, in group 3 – 1.2405. In the control group t-test is the lowest – 0,7025. These data suggest that the introduction of PeLe supported approach helped improve student performance in all three experimental groups.

Table 7
Final and entrance test results in control and experimental groups

GROUPS	Entrance test MS	Entrance test SD	Final Test MS	Final test SD	T-TEST
EXG1	81	5.97	87	8.23	**1.8027**
EXG2	64	8.75	78	14.58	**2.6201**
EXG3	66	15.09	73	10.30	**1.2405**
CG	60	7.09	62	4.88	**0,7025**

These results support our hypothesis that collaborative enquiry-based learning and educational opportunities provided by handheld devices for formative assessment led to a significantly better exam performance for the students who took PeLe quizzes, compared to those who did not. The summative part of PeLe tests ensured a high completion rate, whereas the formative part provided students with prompt feedback and gave them information on what they needed to do to improve their performance (Voelkel, 2013). The increase in the overall exam results was encouraging, but not conclusive enough to show that only PeLe tests were beneficial.

Table 8
Results of the post-study questionnaire

	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Median Score
1. Mobile devices are the best tools to be used for language practice/testing.	17	4	3	0	3,58
2. PeLe tests helped me understand the topic in focus.	16	6	2	0	3,58
3. PeLe tests helped me get ready for midterm and finals a lot.	16	4	2	2	3,41
4. Instant feedback after PeLe tests was very supportive and encouraging for my learning.	22	2	0	0	3,91
5. Post-test activities (class and group discussions) made me better understand grammar rules.	14	6	4	0	3,41
6. Post-test activities were very helpful and timely.	17	5	2	0	3,62
7. Re-voting on SRS after post-test activities helped me correct my mistakes and reflect on my grammar practice.	11	6	3	4	3,00
8. Activity switching kept me engaged in class.	10	8	4	2	3,08
9. The use of mobile devices and tasks based on PeLe was fun and changed my attitude to learning.	10	8	4	2	3,08
10. PeLe tests were frustrating; they complicated my learning a lot.	0	0	4	20	1,16
11. PeLe based tests were motivating and challenging.	16	6	2	0	3,58

Cycle 3

During this cycle, an online survey was administered to elicit students' own perceptions of PeLe intervention. The quantitative data were supplemented by student feedback gained from a post-study questionnaire. The post-study questionnaire contains 11 questions aiming to gather student views on the strengths and weaknesses of PeLe intervention. This survey went well beyond a simple evaluation of learning experiences since the scores were used as a proxy for understanding how exposure to and use of PeLe by the students could impact their attitude toward mobile learning. The questionnaire was completed by 24 students (22 female, 2 male) of the experimental groups. Responses are provided in Table 8.

In response to statement ,1 students averaged 3,58. Overall, students expressed high levels of satisfaction with PeLe supported tests undertaken on mobile devices. The majority of students commented favorably on the fact that mobile tests helped them understand the topic in focus and get ready for midterms and finals with responses to the second statement (averaging 3,58) and to the third statement (3,41). The largely positive reaction to statements 4, 5 and 6 – where the mean scores were 3,91, 3,41 and 3,62 respectively – emphasizes that immediate feedback on test results was very supportive and encouraging for student learning. Students appreciated the prompt feedback they got on their own understanding of material. They also mentioned that the group discussion time gave them a chance to learn from each other. In response to statement 7, the average was 3,00. The students were very positive about the fact that re-voting after post-test activities helped them correct their mistakes and promote reflection on grammar practice.

The positive reaction to statement 8, where the mean score was 3,08, indicates that activity-switch approach kept the students involved. Statements 9, 10 and 11 were designed to collect students' attitudes to PeLe intervention. The average for statement 9 was 3,08, with the majority of students claiming that the use of mobile devices was fun and changed their attitude to learning. This supports the idea that the availability of mobile devices for learners makes them an attractive supplement to other forms of teaching and learning a second language (Stockwell & Hubbard, 2013).

In reaction to statement 10, the majority of students disagreed on the fact that PeLe tests were frustrating and complicated their learning a lot. The average for statement 11 was 3,58, proving the idea that formative assessment tests promote feedback that seeks to empower students to become motivated

and committed to exercising more control over their own learning (Sambell, 2010).

Our findings suggest that students place heavy emphasis on the value of instant, timely feedback on their tests as well as on post-test activities that stood them in good stead in improving their grammar skills. However, despite the overall positive responses, there was also some notable ambivalence: several respondents combined positive comments with criticisms. For example, in answering statement 7, four students strongly disagreed with the idea that re-voting on tough test items after post-test activities helped them correct their mistakes and promote reflection on their grammar practice. Nonetheless, our analysis clearly demonstrates that the vast majority of students found PeLe implementation to be very appealing.

Conclusion

This study indicates that mobile apps integration into language learning could be efficient, especially if combined with enquiry-based and peer-learning approaches along with the pedagogical potential provided by mobile testing systems. The experimental results suggest that the MALLM approach combining m-learning and enquiry-based learning theory and formative assessment is most effective. The research results support our hypothesis that collaborative enquiry-based learning and educational opportunities provided by handheld devices for formative assessment lead to a significantly better exam performance for students who participate in formative PeLe quizzes, compared to those who do not.

Since our conclusions are based on subjective interpretation (surveys) and objective data (server logs and quiz results), this research has some limitations. Firstly, the number of participants was small; consequently, their reflections may not be equally applicable to all mobile learner perceptions. Secondly, PeLe enables the instructor to diagnose not only group performance but also results of each student because each individual's responses are also stored enabling an individual student's performance to be tracked across multiple sessions. One of the advantages of mobile and computer testing is that the test can be individually administered and be tailored to each student's ability levels. Although some students in our research appreciated the immediate feedback, some students said that they would like to get more personalized feedback.

We hope that our research will provide some constructs for pedagogical thinking about enhancing MALL with new mobile-assisted assessment methodology. Formative assessment practices (Black & Wiliam, 2009) lay at the heart of the project's innovative pedagogic approach, offering a practical way of embodying assessment for language learning environments. Although mobile testing system PeLe holds promise, more research is needed to determine its effects upon developing not only grammar skills but also some other skills such as speaking, writing, listening.

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Applied Discourse Markers in Casual Conversations of Male Students in Dormitory Settings and Their Pedagogical Implications for EFL: An Iranian Case Study

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This study is designed to investigate the specific discourse markers that mostly occur in casual conversations among university students who live in dormitories, and to study the amount of attention these expressions receive pedagogically in the context of improving EFL speaking skills. Regarding gender, the investigation was carried out on male students and special topics they talked about are also examined. To fulfill this objective, 6 hours and 3 minutes of casual conversations among 50 students (28 BA and 22 MA) located in 10 dormitory rooms (5 in the BA and 5 in the MA) was audio-recorded and transcribed based on Sacks, Schegloff and Jefferson's transcription system. Furthermore, a semi-structured interview was used to investigate participants' attitudes towards the degree of emphasis of EFL teachers on Discourse Markers (DMs). The data were analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively (interview transcripts). According to the findings, 70 discourse markers recurred in the students' interactions. Likewise, specific topics that received more attention in their conversations were identified. Moreover, the results of the semi-structured interview indicated that discourse markers did not receive sufficient attention in EFL settings. The findings of the current study suggest that instructors and material developers could give more specific attention to discourse markers. Explaining their roles in the production of accurate utterances or bringing samples of natural usage of discourse markers could be of great help to boost learners' oral skills in the EFL context.

Keywords: casual conversation, discourse marker, pedagogical implications, dormitory, gender

Throughout the decades, policy makers, linguists, instructors, and researchers have attempted to meet changing learner needs through new teaching methods or educational frameworks. This means that there has been a significant shift in the educational paradigm that allows learners to play more active roles in educational settings. However, most Iranian EFL learners, in spite of studying English for more than four years in high school and more than two years in university, cannot produce meaningful oral outputs. Moreover, they have only a smattering of knowledge about Discourse Markers (DMs) and do not know how to effectively implement these in class interactions or casual conversations.

Due to the fact that one of the main mediums for identity construction is in performing an accurate and

comprehensive speech, Paltridge (2012) notes that different ways of using linguistic components during interactions demonstrate different identities. He argues that the speakers of a language usually have social identities and matching linguistic repertoires, as well as possible language varieties used while interacting in specific situations and communities. In face-to-face interactions, people not only become aware of others' intentions, feelings, desires, and requests but also convey their own wants (Yule, 2006). More interestingly, Wood (2011) asserts that men and women have different ways of receiving, interpreting, and passing on the distinctive utterances of their co-communicators in different social contexts. Casual conversation that sets the ground to communicate casually, has been considered as a main means to represent speakers' identities while implementing specific DMs whose selective uses are the direct result of gender (Matei, 2011).

Eggins and Slade (2005, cited in Paltridge, 2012, p. 26) refer to the paradox of casual conversation and argue that casual conversation is "the type of talk in which people feel most relaxed, most spontaneous and most themselves", yet it is " a highly structured, functionally motivated, semantic activity…a critical linguistic site for the negotiation of such important dimensions of our social identity as gender, generational location,…social class membership,… and subcultural and group affiliations."

On the other hand, DMs are linguistics devices (with or without specific literal meaning) such as interjections like *oh, well,* conjunctions like *and*, *but,* adverbials like *anyway,* prepositional phrases like *after all*, and lexical phrases like *y'know* used in oral interaction, especially in casual conversations with different degrees of formality, more casual to less casual, to highlight structural and lexical connections among utilized words (Downing, 2006, Schiffrin, 2001, Renkema, 2004). They are considered as the main tenants of oral outputs (Murar, 2008) which empower interlocutors to utilize grammatically well-formed, structurally acceptable, and semantically meaningful structures in their outputs (Wierzbicka, 2003). DMs may not have referential meanings but they can be seen as meaningful devices similar to other words and phrases. For example, among speakers who have shared prior knowledge, using the DM *well* is one of the strategies to signal unexpected conversational action (Johnstone, 2008, p. 242). In the study of spoken forms of discourse, Renkema (2004, p. 168) mentions that the subject of "discourse markers or pragmatic particles" is focused on, and that participants in conversations use DMs to express their attitudes and to verify given and new information.

A review of the plethora of studies that were conducted on DMs indicated that various terms were implemented instead of DMs, such as discourse operators (Redeker, 1991), discourse fillers (Watanabe, 2002), or sentence connectives (Halliday & Hasan, 1976). DMs are defined as "textual coordinates of talk that bracket units of it" (Schiffrin; 1987, p. 31) or "linguistic items whose primary function is connective" (Hansen, 1997, p. 160). Fraser (1990, cited in Paltridge, 2012, p. 103) defines them as "items, with core meaning whose interpretation is based on linguistics and conceptual context, which signal a relationship between the segment they introduce and the prior segments". Piurko (2015) considers DMs as informative means which were used to compose and assess ideas based on the communicative goals. Rahimi and Riasati (2012) refer to them as communicative means used for arranging and negotiating significance in interaction. They add that native speakers use various DMs in casual conversation and the exclusion of DMs makes one's speech sound impolite as well as boring.

Piurko (2015) refers to items such as "oh", "well", "now", "and", "or", and "I mean" as DMs and mentioned that the frequency of occurrence of these DMs are higher in spoken than in written genre. Moreover, Paltridge (2012, p. 102) considers specific functions for each one (e.g. "*oh* could be used for information management, self-repair, or other-repair"). However, it is assumed that DMs have general features and functions in all languages: for instance, they are utilized by the speakers of all dialects (Yilmaz, 2004), at the start of talk as a filler, or help the interlocutor to hold the floor (Muller, 2005), pronounced with or without stress, pauses, or with phonological reduction (Zarei, 2013), used to indicate topic shifts (Brinton, 1996) or turn in conversation (Croucher, 2004).

In examining the use of DMs in different societies, Fung in his work (2011) shows that British speakers of English, for example, use DMs for the purpose of pragmatic functions, while the Hong Kong speakers of English use more limited numbers and more functional forms of DMs in their interactions. Fung and Carter (2007) believe that DMs should be paid more attention to and should be taught explicitly in great detail to FL students to help them be more prepared as capable speakers and suitably skilled users of language.

A review of related literature shows that the differences between male and female speakers are not limited to using backchannels (Maltz & Borker, 1982), hedges (Tafaroji-Yeganeh & Ghoreishi, 2014), or formal / informal forms (Sukegawa, 1998). Some studies indicate that the occurrence of DMs in speakers' oral or written outputs are under the direct control of gender differences, concerning selection, possibility of reoccurrence, and roles (Alami, Sabbah, & Iranmanesh, 2012). It is worth noting that this study's point of view regarding gender is aligned with

Paltridge's view (2012, p. 20), noting that "[g]ender… is not a result of what people (already) are but a result of, among other things, the way they talk and what they do".

Some studies address male and female differences in casual conversation, concerning ways of speaking and the implementation of specific words or DMs (Macaulay, 2002; Matei, 2011; Subon, 2013; Tafaroji-Yeganeh & Ghoreishi, 2014; Wood, 2011). On the other hand, analyzing male and female oral outputs separately seems also to lead to more fruitful results. However, no study has investigated the implementation of specific words and DMs and/or the tendency to talk about specific topics in specific contexts, like a university dormitory, by members of a certain gender, males or females. This study set out to fill this research gap by studying the occurrence of DMs among male students in dormitories, and providing material developers, curriculum designers, and teachers a conclusive gathering of DMs that occur mostly in casual conversations among the males, a group often neglected in scholarly books and academic contexts.

Materials

Theoretical Background

Mediation, as one of the main notions of social constructivism, connotes the fact that linguistic components (symbols, DMs, free / bound morphemes, phrases, or sentences) are utilized to intercede in one's relations with others (Vygotsky, 1978). This theory "treats interaction as a social practice that shapes and reshapes language learning (Kumaravadivelu, 2006, p. 70). Moreover, the interaction hypothesis, proposed by Long (1981), claims that effective communication and interaction among learners improves their understanding and outputs. Considering language as a suitable means to create, establish, and express individual identity, Paltridge (2012, p. 91) argues that interaction or communication is "the main way in which people come together, exchange information, negotiate, and maintain social relations".

In sum, casual conversation is a co-constructed attempt to convey intentions or indicate appreciation or to threaten under certain roles and regulation concerning what/ when/ how to state something (Xu, 2009). The manner of implementing linguistic components in casual conversation come under the direct effects of sociocultural factors such as age, social level, educational background, and gender (Amel-Zendedel & Ebrahimi, 2013). Similarly, Xu (2009) regarded casual conversation as one of the main requirements of fruitful interaction and highlights the impact of gender differences, which lead to implementing different communicative strategies and manners of interaction.

Male-Female Differences in Using Language

The way of using language represents social differences (Xia, 2013) hence, men and women are not only different physically but also they are different in the style and manner of utilizing language (Subon, 2013; Xia, 2013). Such differences are depicted by contrasts in pitch, intonation, vocabulary determination, body movement, paralinguistic system, hesitation, and topic (Wadhaugh, 2005; Wenjing, 2012). Some of these differences are summarized in Table 1 below, based on the conclusive review of related studies.

Table 1
Men-Women differences in using language

Men	Authors	Women	Authors
Directive/ assertive and getting to fundamental point immediately	Haas (1979); Wood (2011)	Supportive, Emotional	Cinardo (2011); Haas (1979)
Less grammatical, More colloquial	Haas (1979)	Formal and polite	Nasiri-Kakolaki & Shahrokhi (2016)
Prefer complex and lexically dense sentence structures	Singh (2001)	Reoccurrence of specific lexical items in their outputs	Singh (2001)
Swear more	Boulis & Ostendorf (2005)	Use tag questions more	Singh (2001)
Use the least attention-getting devices	Broadbridge (2003)	Use the most attention-getting devices	Broadbridge (2003)
Use communication to build up and create status	Tannen (1984); Cinardo (2011)	Tend to know about their communication partners	Cinardo (2011)
Use more names in their oral discourse	Boulis & Ostendorf (2005)	Use more family-relational terms	Subon (2013); Boulis & Ostendorf (2005)
Use a less collaborative style	Howden, (1994); Matei, 2011	Use a more collaborative style	Howden, (1994); Matei, 2011

Lazare (2005) notes that females use more apologetic terms. More recently, Subon (2013) conducted a conclusive study to compare men and women's linguistic features in Malaysia. The outcomes showed that men talk more, use less interrogative sentences and more fillers and affirmatives, and they essentially discussed issues related to sport matches, animosity, and getting things done while women used more amenable terms, more interrogative sentences

and answered with humor, and they talked about home, self, feelings, and their association with others. Furthermore, the results of Attaran and Morady-Moghaddam (2013) reveal critical differences between male and female's outputs concerning the selection of conjunctions/ prepositions, mental processes, and pronouns.

In a similar study, Nasiri-Kakolaki and Shahrokhi (2016) investigate the male and female contrasts in the use of complaining strategies, claiming that gender is a crucial factor in determining the ratio of politeness. Their findings indicate that women tend to be more polite during conversations than men. In a rather different study, Khaghaninejad and Bahrani (2016) explore the impacts of gender differences on intermediate learners' speaking fluency and accuracy. The results of the data analysis show that the male speakers were more accurate while the female speakers were more fluent.

Male-Female Differences in Using Discourse Markers

Gender differences can affect the kinds, reoccurrence, and functions of DMs in casual conversation (Alami, Sabbah and Iranmanesh, 2012). Vanda and Péter (2011) investigate male and female differences in the use of DMs. Their findings show that there is no quantitative contrast between different genders in using DMs. However, whereas men use *you know* as a means for hesitation and topic change, women use it for seeking understanding.

Furthermore, Matei (2011) notes that the reoccurrence of DMs in women's oral productions is greater than with men. He adds that males use more discursive words instead of supportive ones, also men prefer to use *you know* less than women (Macaulay, 2008). Tafaroji-Yeganeh and Ghoreishi (2014) investigate a male preference to use DMs in academic writing,articles, written by non-native speakers in English. The analyses revealed that males put more emphasis on using boosters in their writing. Similarly, the results of Croucher's study (2004) make it clear that there is not a significant difference in terms of using *um* and *uh* DMs between males and females. However, males used *like* and *you know* less often. Matei (2011) mentions that casual conversation provides the appropriate setting for representing structural and functional aspects of DMS, due to the lack of discursive constraints that are typical of formal discourse.

In sum, some studies have looked into the gendered differences in casual conversation concerning the selection of words, phrases, or DMs (Matei, 2011; Subon, 2013; Vanda & Péter, 2011). The preferences of interlocutors of different genders to implement specific DMs in specific social settings, such as university or dormitory, have not received sufficient attention in EFL settings (Yang, 2011). The current study sets out to specifically investigate the DMs applied by male students in dormitories; this random choice of men is a starting point for a future comparative study once results of an upcoming study on women's casual conversations in dormitories is carried out.

Methods

This study set out to investigate the existence of discourse markers (DMs) and the main topics of conversation that occur mostly in casual conversations among male students in dormitories, and to provide material developers and designers as well as teachers with a significant collection of DMs, often overlooked in academic sources and contexts. Furthermore, the opinion of learners towards teachers' attention to DMs is also investigated.

Participants

The participants in this study were 50 male Persian native-speaking students, ranging in age from 21 to 28 years. They comprised 28 BA and 22 MA students, randomly selected from Brothers Dormitories No. 3 and No. 4 of the University of Zabol. It should be mentioned that the majority of them were EFL students; however some of them were engaged in other fields of study. Table 2 below presents the specifications of the participants in the study.

Table 2
Specifications of participants

Room	Field of Study	Gender	Age	Education	No. of Participants in each conversation
1	English	Male	21-24	BA	3-6
2	Engineering	Male	22-26	BA	5
3	Humanities+ English	Male	23-25	BA	2-6
4	English	Male	22-25	BA	3-5
5	Engineering+ Sciences	Male	22-25	BA	4-6
6	Humanities	Male	26-28	MA	4
7	Humanities+ Engineering	Male	25-28	MA	2-4
8	Sciences+ Engineering	Male	26-27	MA	4
9	Humanities+ Sciences	Male	27-28	MA	3-5
10	Engineering+ English	Male	25-28	MA	2-5

The sample of students was selected from among those who had studied EFL in the University of Zabol and those who had studied English for more than 4 years in secondary school, high school, and for about one, two, or more years in the universities.

Data Collection and Analysis

The data for this study were gathered during the second semester of the 1994-95 academic year in the University of Zabol. A compact Philips GoGear Mix MP3 player and 4 mobile phones were used to record the naturally occurring, casual conversations among the participants. The recording of the conversations was carried out by one of the researchers or by an individual from each room. Over all, the authors recorded 6 hours and 3 minutes of casual conversations among male students in different contexts as summarized in Table 3 below.

Table 3
The locations of the casual conversations

Location/ State	Time (min)	Location/ State	Time (min)
Doing homework/ Projects	38	Discussions/ Talks before sleeping	31
Cooking	35	While helping each other on daily lessons	18
Washing dishes	25	Before going outside/ university	15
Cleaning the room	27	Street[1*]	7
Serving tea	23	Shopping[*]	19
While chatting	10	Playing	14
During lunch or dinner	15	Universities Salon	23
Watching TV/ Video on PC	18	When just coming from outside/ university	12
Watching Football Matches	33		

Note. The words like street and shopping mentioned in Table 3 also show the locations in which the conversations among the same participants occurred.

The data collection in this study took 3 months. The researchers selected 5 rooms from BA dormitory (room number 203, 204, 205, 208, and 215) and 5 rooms from MA dormitory (rooms number 406, 408, 412, 413, and 414). At the beginning of the study, the researcher gave participants some brief information about the aim as well as the significance of the study, and told them that their identity would be kept confidential. The recorded conversations were subsequently transcribed. It is worth noting, that Sacks, Schegloff, and Jefferson's (1974) transcription system was implemented in transcribing the collected data. In total, 3600 words were transcribed for this study. This number is not the total number of words uttered by the participants: during conversations, there were lots of interruptions or simultaneous overlapping conversations which, not being the focus of the study, were ignored. A previous study on cross-gender differences in using language and DMs (in contexts albeit different from the context of the current study) revealed that a corpus of more than 2000 words is sufficient. The researchers thus transcribed 3600 words and, following their transcription, analyzed the data using both quantitative and qualitative measures.

Furthermore, a semi- structured interview (its validity was confirmed by two experts in Applied Linguistics) was conducted to find out whether Iranian EFL teachers paid sufficient attention to DMs in English classrooms. Therefore, researchers selected 15 DMs that mostly occurred in the learners' oral production, based on the results of question number 2 (Table 5 and Table 6 below), arranged a meeting with 20 participants, all of them were EFL students who studied English translation or teaching, and then the following questions were explored:

- Did learners know the English equivalent of DMs?
- Did they believe that EFL teachers pay sufficient attention to DMs?

Their answers were coded and a list of all codes was prepared. Afterward, the frequency of codes was calculated and these results were analyzed.

Results and Discussion

The major aim of the current study was to identify and count specific DMs that were implemented by male Persian-speaking students who lived in the universities' dormitories. Meanwhile, the main topics of conversation among participants were identified. Furthermore, learners' attitudes towards teachers' attention to DMs were investigated.

The first research question deals with the topics discussed in the dormitories. The results are depicted in Table 4.

Table 4
Topics of casual conversation among BA-BA and MA-MA male speakers

Topics	F*	Ratio
Homework/Projects	9	18%
Job/Unemployment	7	14%
Sports	6	12%
University Professors	5	10%
Money/ Economic Problems/ expenses	5	10%

Telegram, WhatsApp, Instagram, …	4	8%
Politics	3	6%
Cooking Foods, Washing the dishes/cleaning the room, making tea	3	6%
University/ Dormitory shortcoming	2	4%
Air Pollution, Transportation/ Traffic/ Universities' Buses	1	2%
Education/ Girl-Friend/ Marriage	1	2%
Vocation/ Travelling	1	2%
Shopping/ Home and family	1	2%

*F= Frequency

Table 4 includes topics that Iranian male speakers frequently talk about in casual conversations. The frequency and ratio of each topic are presented through F and P (percent) respectively. As demonstrated in Table 4, dormitory students most often talk about topics like homework/projects (F= 9, P=18), job/ unemployment (F= 7, P=14), sports (F= 6, P=12), and university professors (F= 5, P=10) respectively, and less frequently about topics like shopping/ home and family and vocation/ travelling (F= 1, P=2).

These findings are not in harmony with the Kramer's results (1974) who found that unlike women's tendency to talk about sociocultural aspects of life, books, food and, drink, men tend to talk about household expenses, taxes, and politics. One plausible reason for the divergence in results is that the participants of this study are young, educated, university students who spend most of their time studying and doing different projects/ homework. Likewise, Haas (1979) mentions that issues related to financial benefits, sports, time, and quantity received more attention in men's interactions. The reason for this gendered difference in topics may be the fact that men and women have different roles, status, and duties in daily life (Akhter, 2014). Moreover, the sample of this study is comprised exclusively of university students who spend a lot of their time on academic matters, which may lead them to select such topics.

The second research question investigates the DMs that participants implement in casual conversation. The results are presented in Table 5 below.

Table 5
The frequency and percentage of occurrence of DMs in casual conversation

Persian DMs	English Equivalent	F*	Ratio (%)
و /-و / -رو / -رم / -نم /-یم /-هم	and/ too	46	17/22
اره /اهم / اره بابا / باشه /دقیقا /	yeas/ yeah/ uhhm- okay then/ exactly	35	13/10
نه / نه بابا / خیر/نچ /ابدا/	no/ not/ no way/ never	34	12/73
دیگه /دیگه دیگه	for any or no reason/ the repetition of the previous word	23	8/61
واسه چی / چرا – چی - هرچی-	why- what for- whatever	19	7/11
خب / خو / اها /اهوم	well/ good/ aha	17	6/36
میدونی /میفهمی	you know/ understand	16	5/99
یا- تا- چون- اخه- پس- باید	or- until/ in order to- because- well/ because- so/ then- must/ should	16	5/99
اما / ولی- اخه- بالاخره	but- well/ because- at last/ tell you at brief	15	5/61
که /تا- اگه / تازه- حتی / تازه	that, for / to- if- even	14	5/24
دوباره / بازم /طبق معمول- فقط /تنها /یکی- الان / حالا / فعلا- بعدا	again/ as usual – just/ only- now/ the time being / temporary – then/ later	9	3/37
عجب- اااا- ای بابا	Well/ exclamation word- vow- exclamation word/ oh God	8	2/99
نگا / نگا کن / ببین /دریاب	look/ see/ watch	5	1/87
جدی / راستی / واقعا /جدا /دروغه	really/ honestly/ your are kidding	4	1/49

*F= Frequency

Table 5 represents 70 DMs that were frequently reoccurred in the casual conversation among BA and MA learners in the dormitory. As Table 5 reveals, the DM "and/ too" (F=46, P= 17.22), "yeas/ yeah/ uhhm- ok" (F= 35, P= 13.10), and "no" (F=34, P= 12.73) are the most frequent ones, respectively Likewise, "really" (F=4, P= 1.49), "look" (F= 5, P= 1.87), and عجب-اااا-ای بابا with no exact English equivalent are the least frequent ones. The high occurrence of the DM "and/ too" in casual conversation among male speakers can be justified in the light of the fact that in Persian we have more than 6 DMs as:

و /-و / -رو / -رم / -نم /-یم /-هم which resemble such conjunctions. Moreover, due to the significant of head phrase in utterances they were added to the main nouns or verbs. Another implication of such DMs is their utilization instead of pronouns.

The interesting finding of this study was related to the special casual terms that were used by learners

and the other participants in casual interactions. A summary of these terms and phrases is presented in Table 6.

Table 6
Specific terms (Words/ Phrases) used by the participants

Words/ Phrases	Standard form	English Equivalent
مماتد	خسته هستم	Tired out
خلافی داشتن/ سازمان گوشت	اضافه وزن داشتن	Being obese
قیفو	قیافش رابببین	Look at him/her
تو سایت کسی رفتن	تو نخ کسی رفتن	Thinking about/ watching someone
آژیر باش	حواست جمع باشد	Be careful/watch out
آژیر باش	حواست جمع باشد	Be nobody's fool/she/ he is very clever

The in-depth analysis of the communication among the BA-BA and MA-MA learners demonstrated the fact that male speakers in the dormitory context preferred to use more imperative forms, more challenging, and less polite terms like *please* or *would you mind*, although they were university students and considered members of an academic community. Besides, it was seen again and again that they tended to implement specific terms or raise their intonation to control their co-communicator's behavior or express their personality. These findings can be connected to the Wood (2011) claim that males prefer to use more directive utterances than females.

The third research question explores the participants' attitudes toward teachers' degree of emphasis on English DMs and provides learners with their equivalents. The results of the semi-structured interview are presented in Table 7 below.

Table 7
Learners attitudes towards teachers' degree of emphasis on DMs

Attitudes	Ratio (%)
Focusing just on the DMs that were presented in the course books	90
Providing the literal meaning of the DMs	80
Enough opportunities to practice DMs orally	24
Relatedness of introduced DMs to the oral fluency and accuracy	32
Teacher-centered classrooms are appropriate context for teaching DMs	52
Task-based or content-based activities have more fruitful results	56
Teachers explicit and implicit explanations concerning the roles and functions of DMs are more effective	44
Short clips and videos lead to the more effective implementations of DMS	75
Knowing the English equivalent of casual terms	11
Working on terms used in casual conversation	15

Before discussing the results of the semi-structured interview, it is important that the ratio of each question be taken into account separately. For example, concerning the first statement, 90 percent of learners believed that EFL teachers just focused on DMs that were introduced in the predetermined course books. However, 10 percent noted that their teachers provided them with lots of opportunities to practice various DMs in different social settings (through role play or task completion).

80 percent of participants mentioned that teachers provided them with the English literal equivalents of DMs. However, 76 percent agreed that they did not gain enough opportunities to use DMs orally in the classrooms. Likewise, 68 percent of participants pointed out that the introduced DMs in the course books were more common in written, not oral, discourse which consequently boosted their written production not their speaking fluency and accuracy. Besides, 48 percent claimed that the current teacher-centered classrooms were not suitable for teaching DMs. 56 percent noted that providing natural settings in which they can see or practice the real implication of DMs were more effective and fruitful. Likewise, 44 percent considered teacher explanations about the roles and functions of DMs more fruitful. However, 75 percent believed that viewing short clips and videos displaying the target language in peoples' daily lives and casual conversations were more beneficial.

The interesting finding of this study was the fact that 85 percent of the learners believed that instructors did not consider teaching casual terms and phrases necessary. Additionally, below 15 percent had sufficient knowledge of such words, at least they knew their English equivalents. The results of a rather similar study that was conducted by Yang (2011) confirmed these findings, claiming that EFL countries' pedagogical settings did not consider teaching DMs seriously. The findings of this research can be used as a source of comparison for future studies on gender difference by investigating applied DMs in the casual conversations of female students in dormitories.

Conclusion

While additional studies are needed, the results extracted from the qualitative and quantitative analysis of this preliminary study presents three key findings. First, more than 70 DMs occurred in casual conversations among male Persian-speaking students

living in the university of Zabol's dormitories in the 1994-95 academic year. Second, the study identifies the recurrent topics of these casual conversations. Third, the results of the semi-structural interview indicate that EFL teachers did not put much emphasis on DMs in casual conversation from the learner's point of view. Most of the learners knew the literal meanings of the DMs used, but they didn't know how to implement these in the target language. They complained about the lack of opportunities to use them orally, which hindered the development of their speaking fluency, accuracy, and complexity.

It is a known fact that having appropriate knowledge and ability concerning the implementation of DMs leads to more spontaneous oral and written outputs (Crystal, 1988) as well as the production of coherent and well-formed utterances (Fuller, 2003). The results of the current study could help raise teachers', material developers', and curriculum designers' awareness about the importance of DMs in EFL pedagogy. Some techniques such as providing explicit and implicit information, bringing samples of natural usage of DMs in the forms of short CDs or video clips, or task-based activities like role play, opinion exchange, or problem solving could be of great help in improving the speaking ability of foreign language learners. The present study was limited by two significant factors: the restricted number of participants and the fact that all participants were men. Expanding the study by involving a larger sample from both sexes and including speakers with different EFL proficiency levels would lead to more fruitful results.

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Fostering Economics Students' Listening Skills through Self-Regulated Learning

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This study aims at fostering students' listening skills by scaffolding their self-study learning practices in the English for Special Purposes (ESP) course. While there is a significant body of research exploring classroom-based teaching approaches, there is little empirical research into how students develop their ESP listening skills outside the classroom. Our study suggests that developing a self-regulated model for acquiring ESP listening skills in a self-study mode is an efficient way to improve students' performance as it provides them with relevant scaffolding and makes the listening process more transparent. The article provides theoretical grounding for the self-study model. The entry-level and post-study tests in listening scores (IELTS test) are compared across the control and the experimental groups (60 students in total). The results of the study indicate that students who were developing their listening skills in a self-study mode via the designed scaffolding performed significantly better than their peers in the control group. Scaffolding self-study listening practices of students outside the classroom prove to be a significant factor in facilitating English learning in an ESP classroom.

Keywords: listening skills, study skills, self-regulated learning, scaffolding, ESP classroom, staged activity, meaning making

The effectiveness of students' performance within the field of higher education is significantly determined by their ability to study efficiently. Lectures are increasingly delivered in English, making good listening skills in English one of the major prerequisites for the successful completion of studies. While doing their degree in a discipline, students are expected to read a wide variety of English-medium printed texts and to regularly listen to English-medium speeches (lectures, seminars, discussions, presentations). Using real-life professional English listening resources (e.g., economist.com, BBCs economic news, etc.) has become crucial for building students' professional knowledge.

Yet, the traditional English as Foreign Language (EFL) pedagogical approach to teaching listening via pre-, while- and after-listening activities is aimed at checking listening comprehension rather than systematically contributing to students' knowledge-building and involving them in meaning-making around the issues raised in an audio text. For instance, a traditional set of listening comprehension tasks includes true/false questions, gap filling and other tasks, which are not creative.

A limited pedagogical focus on listening comprehension results in the fact that at the B2+ CEFR level, students may experience a lack of motivation as their need for meeting challenges is not fullfilled with a traditional set of listening tasks where there is the testing comprehension skills focus.

Finally, there has been a significant reduction

of the amount of the classroom-based EFL learning within higher education in Russia overall. As a result, classroom-based study mode provides little space for the development of listening skills (Stone, Lightbody & Whait, 2013). Limited time available for fostering students' listening skills and face-to-face interaction (Parker, 2011) is partly the result of the global tendency to run larger classes and introduce a greater number of professional subjects in higher education.

In this context, it is necessary to develop pedagogical approaches that may counter these difficulties via a self-study mode. The article assumes that developing a (SRL) learning model may foster learning skills in professional contexts within a life-long perspective. The article first foregrounds listening as a staged and a complex phenomenon and then highlights the importance of developing listening skills in a self-regulated mode. This is followed by the self-study model for fostering listening skills of students and the results of the experimental study are shown. Finally, the author concludes with pedagogical implications relevant for EFL teaching of listening skills.

Materials

Theoretical Background

Listening is regarded as a soft skill employability factor and even as an "indispensable attribute" to effective practice in a profession (Stone, Lightbody, & Whait, 2013). Listening is pivotal to learning as well as enhancing students' future employment opportunities.

It was commonly assumed that listening was a reflex ('a little like breathing') and listening seldom received overt teaching attention in one's native language (Morley, 1972). In the 1970s the works by Asher, Postovsky, Winitz and later Krashen, brought attention to the role of listening as a tool for understanding and a key factor in facilitating language learning (Feyten, 1991). Listening has emerged as an important component of second language acquisition (Feyten, 1991). For instance, Rivers (1966) states that speaking does not of itself constitute communication unless what is said is comprehended by another person. Teaching the comprehension of spoken speech (i.e. listening) is, therefore, of primary importance for the communication aim that is to be reached.

The teaching of listening has attracted a greater level of interest in recent years; yet, Morley (1991) claims that listening remains one of the least understood processes in language learning despite the recognition of the critical role it plays both in communication and language acquisition.

Although once perceived as a passive skill, listening is very much an active process of selecting and interpreting information from auditory and visual clues (Richards, 1983). Rivers (1981) states that listening is a crucial element in the competent language performance of second language learners, whether they are communicating at school, work or in the community. Through the normal course of a day, listening is used nearly twice as much as speaking and 4 to 5 times as much as reading and writing (Rivers, 1981). Brown & Yule (1983) stress that listening is a demanding process, not only because of the complexity of the process itself, but also due to factors that characterize the listener, the speaker, the content of the message, and any visual support that accompanies the message (Brown & Yule, 1983).

While teaching graduate students listening, it is important to understand that normally three skills are to be employed: speaking (as a way of sharing ideas), writing (taking lecture notes, presenting an opinion in a written mode) and further reading on the topic. Whenever time permits, it is desirable that the final outcome of all the previous stages in listening acquisition should be the exchange of opinion, students' attitudes and discussion. Thus, the so-called pure listening is practically never possible, as while listening students make observations, speak, write and share information.

Listening is an invisible process, making it difficult to describe (Wipf, 1984). Listeners must discriminate between sounds, understand vocabulary and grammatical structures, interpret stress and intention, retain and interpret it within the immediate as well as the larger socio-cultural context of an utterance. In general, there are various approaches that shed light on the invisible process of listening. For example, Rost (2012) defines listening in a broader sense, as a process of:

- receiving what the speaker actually says (receptive orientation);
- constructing and representing meaning (constructive orientation);
- negotiating meaning with the speaker and responding (collaborative orientation);
- creating meaning through involvement, imagination and empathy (transformative orientation).

Nunan (2001), when analyzing the process of listening, differentiates six stages: hearing, attending, understanding, remembering, evaluating and responding. For tertiary education, the last four stages (understanding, remembering, evaluating and responding) are the most important. According to Nunan (2001), understanding consists of analyzing the meaning of what we have heard and understanding the symbols we have seen and heard. We must analyze the stimuli we have perceived. Symbolic stimuli are not only words, they can also be a picture, a diagram,

a map, the lecturer's body language and other signs. To do this, the listeners have to be in the right context and understand the intended meaning. The meaning attached to these symbols is a function of past associations and of the context in which the symbols occur for successful communication: the listener must understand the intended meaning and the context assumed by the sender. Remembering means that in addition to receiving and interpreting the message, the listener has added it to his mind's storage bank. At the evaluating stage, the listener evaluates the message that has been received. At this point, active listeners weigh evidence, sort fact from opinion and determine the presence or absence of bias or prejudice in a message.

Self-Regulated Learning as a Way to Develop Listening Skills

In general, SRL has been substantially studied in the field of educational psychology (Paris & Paris, 2001) and incorporates meta-cognitive, motivational, socio cultural, and behavioral approaches (Zimmerman, 1989). Yet, the notions of self-regulation and SRL have no clear definition due to their multidimensional nature (Dörnyei, 2005; Pintrich, 2000). Most commonly used terms are self-directed learning, personalized learning, autonomous learning, self-planned learning, and self-education.

Despite the diversity of definitions and terminology used by different researchers, it is commonly agreed that SRL is an essential component of any learning process, which should be taken into account by both teachers and students (Paris & Paris, 2001; Zimmerman, 2008).

There are four main SRL features inherent to most of the definitions. According to Zimmerman (1989), self-regulated learners possess meta-cognitive strategies. Thus students are able to plan and self-control their learning activities. Meta-cognitive strategies are crucial to the development of self-regulated acquisition of listening skills (Vandergrift, 1999). Students develop listening skills much better than their counterparts when they know how to develop an awareness of the process of one-way listening. Vandergrift (1999) introduces a pedagogical sequence that can help develop this awareness: 1) planning for the successful completion of a listening task; 2) monitoring comprehension during a listening task; 3) evaluating the approach and outcomes of a listening task.

Motivation is the second key factor in achieving high academic performance and reflects learners' abilities to initiate and persist in learning (Pintrich, 1999; Zimmerman, 1989). The third component is learners' behavior in terms of developing their learning environment, managing and adapting it to their current needs. Finally, reflection as a cognitive strategy is essential for self-regulated acquiring and processing of new information (Pintrich & DeGroot, 1990).

Motivational factors have been analyzed in a number of studies. These studies have demonstrated that SRL skills are ineffective without sufficient intrinsic motivation, as one of the important aspects of SRL learning strategies is a choice (Schunk & Zimmerman, 2007). Thus high self-efficacy, as one of the key motivational factors, fosters self-regulation and more effective self-regulation promotes self-efficacy.

According to Baranovskaya (2015), self-control, self-esteem and motivation affect students' learning behavior, which has been supported by empirical research. Ample evidence proves that self-control, motivation and self-esteem elevate student communicative competence. Self-regulation skills that were developed during the specially designed course positively influenced students' language acquisition.

A self-regulated model for fostering listening skills

In designing a self-regulated model for fostering listening skills, the key aim is to make the complex process of listening visible to students and scaffold their listening skills acquisition. Self-regulation can be thought of as a cyclical process or as a continuum (Pintrich, 2000; Zimmerman, 2000). This helps to construct an SRL-based model and apply it to the process of learning by defining learning activities at each stage of listening and at particular moments during the course of a study. In the model (Appendix A), the self-regulated learning cycle is applied. It relates to the social-cognitive perspective formulated by Bandura (1986) and features a number of distinct phases, namely, planning, monitoring, and reflections on academic performance (Pintrich & Zusho, 2002; Zimmerman, 2000).

Another feature of the developed model is that this model represents the active and staged nature of listening as a process. The listening process is active and it means that within the self-study mode of learning, we increase students' involvement in the process at various stages (pre/while/post listening stages) as well as key stages of understanding, remembering, evaluating and responding (Nuan, 2001) (see Appendix A). Overall, the experimental model addresses the complex nature of listening by anticipating and guiding students through a set of complexities as well as provides them with advice on how to overcome them. Finally, the model actively involves EFL speaking, writing, and reading modes that support listening skills development.

Methods

The study aims to facilitate economics students' acquisition of listening skills in a self-regulated learning mode with the help of a SRL listening model (Appendix A). Specifically, the following research questions were set:

- Is there a significant difference in pre-/post-test results of economics students in (a) the experimental group exposed to SRL mode of learning (SRL-based scaffolding of self-study mode) and (b) the control group exposed to the traditional English language teaching approach (traditional scaffolding of self-study mode) before and after intervention?
- What stages of listening as an active and complex process would be treated as most/least useful by the students?

Two groups of the fourth-year students (60 participants) in the Department of Economics at the Higher School of Economics represent the experimental and control groups of the study. The research methodology consists of a reference analysis, modeling, a quantitative analysis of the results of the questionnaire, pre-/post- language testing (listening focus). The first group of students (the control group) participated in in-class activities only, where the teacher used traditional methods and strategies. The second group fulfilled the major part of tasks individually through SRL model (LMS-based). The experiment was conducted from September to March 2017. During the final stage of the study all data and results were analyzed and described.

Results and Discussion

The pre-test revealed that the overall English language competence in both groups was of the same B2 CEFR level. The students from both groups had a IELTS pre-test and post-test in listening. The results of the tests indicate a significant improvement of listening skills of the experimental group (Table 1).

Starting from the same level, both groups improved their listening skills. The experimental group demonstrated a significant advancement with the majority of students scoring from 37 to 40 points, whereas the highest results in the control group were only 32-35.

The teaching resource for the study included: the course book, "Objective IELTS", students book and official examination papers from University of Cambridge, ESOL Examinations. Authentic audio texts from the 'The Economist' journal were used. Further reading on the subject and classroom discussions were based on authentic texts from British and American sources. Teaching listening skills in the control group was based on the traditional approach, which assumed that all the listening tasks were completed in the class. Actually, this was time-consuming, with the teacher reflecting that she had to devote more time to developing listening skills at the expense of other skills of reading and writing.

The self-study scaffolding was based on the SRL model developed for the second group. Most tasks were LMS-based and were designed for the self-study mode. This approach also enabled to combine two ways of assessment: teacher assessment and self-assessment. The tasks were organized in a way that the students could come back to the task and do it again if the score that they got did not meet their expectations. This is particularly important in situations where the classes are large and it is virtually impossible to continually monitor individual performance. Self-assessment activities provided a continuous, personalized and formative element of assessment, in settings where practical assessment measures were mostly tests (Harris, 1997). In the second group individual work, followed by self-assessment was integrated into classroom activities.

The tasks constructed for LMS studies embraced both bottom-up and top-down approaches. Bottom-up processing in our study refers to using the incoming input as the basis for understanding the message. Comprehension begins with the data that has been received which is analysed as successive levels of organization - sounds, words, clauses, texts - until meaning is arrived at. Comprehension is viewed as a process of decoding (Richards, 1983).

The tasks that develop bottom-up listening skills in our study required the students to: identify the referents of pronouns in an utterance, recognize the time reference of an utterance, distinguish between positive and negative statements, recognize the order in the words occurred in an utterance, identify sequence markers, identify key words that occurred in a spoken text, identify which modal verbs occurred in a spoken text. An essential part of the pre-listening phase was the introduction of unknown words using such tasks such as matching synonyms, antonyms. Gap filling was also considered to be an efficient way to introduce unknown words, while slang and idioms were explained by the teacher when necessary.

Top-down processing refers to the use of background knowledge in understanding the meaning of a message. Whereas bottom-up processing goes from language to meaning, top-down processing goes from meaning to message. In our study, the top down approach encouraged the use of resource material

resulting in authentic learning. In order to illustrate the approaches discussed above, an adjustment was made by combining the stages of listening activities performed out-of-class and in-class. The concept of top-down and bottom-up approaches (Richards, 1983) was applied when constructing a set of tasks for individual work and further class activities. The pre-listening stage was conducted in class, as was the post-listening phase. The bulk of the while-listening tasks was performed individually by LMS. The score of each task permitted to evaluate the completion of the task in percentage (80% of correct answers was considered successful completion).

A questionnaire was constructed in order to evaluate the students' attitude towards the offered approach and to find out the difficulties that they confronted. Getting students to reflect on their own performance is the key to perceiving progress not only in terms of language, but in terms of communicative objectives, so that skills development can be seen as a, "gradual, rather than all or nothing progress" (Nunan, 1988, p. 5).

The results of the questionnaire clearly indicate that self-assessed usefulness of the staged listening activities is high across the experimental group of students. The highest value students see in the context-based and responding stages of listening as these stages are the most challenging to students and require critical thinking skills and an ability to go beyond the audio text. Understanding the intended meaning and evaluation stages are also treated as very important by the students. Although these stages are known to the students, they stated that identifying biases (evaluation stage) and addressing multiple views on the issue and juxtaposing them with their own point of view were the least developed skills. The value of the remembering stage was the least positively rated by students: a result that can be explained by the fact that the students have developed this skill within the course of prior university studies.

Conclusion

The current study addressed the hypothesis that the development of listening skills via SRL-based model would lead to their substantial increase. More specifically, the research studied: a) if post-test results would be significantly higher within the experimental group due to the self-study mode scaffolding, and b) what stages of listening as an active and complex process would be treated as most/least useful by the students. The results of the study indicate that modeling is an important way to address the complex nature of listening skills development and the SRL-based model helps to make listening process more transparent to students and empower them with proper self-study mode instructions in order to foster this type of learning.

Future ELT research implications suggest application of the model to scaffolding the lower language proficiency levels of students with bottom-up strategies becoming the major drive in fostering listening comprehension skills and developing their ability to analyse the audio text and express an attitude.

Table 1
Economics students' listening pre/post test results

	Pre-testaverage (max 40)	**Mean difference**	**p-value**	**Pre-test average (max 40)**	**Mean difference**	**p-value**
Experimental group (EG)	29	1	Less 0,05	37	1	Less 0,05
Control group(CG)	30	1	Less 0,05	32	1	Less 0,05

Table 2
Economics students' self-assessment of their listening skills development via SRL mode

Degree of self-assesseed usefulness of staged listening activities (1 - least useful, 5 - most useful)	**1**	**2**	**3**	4	**5**
understanding the meaning via the context					30
understaning meaning via the intended meaning				2	28
remembering	4	5	21		
evaluating				1	29
responding					30

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Appendix A

Table 1
Fostering listening skills: A self-regulated learning model

Self-study mode	**Types of activities**	**Activities grounded in staged self-regulated learning with a focus on planning, monitoring, and reflections on performance**
Goal: **understanding meaning** through understanding the larger context	Answer the questions and **take notes**: *- what is the source of listening? (private, governmental)* *If you experience a problem, follow the advice next to this section* *- what does the title signal? (opinion, historical account, problem solution)* *- can you guess what this audio text will be about? why?* *If you experience a problem, follow the advice next to this section.*	- study the sources of the audio text (the website and its owner) and find out what kind of texts are usually published by this portal (experts opinions, owner of the website, anonymous opinions). - if you fail to guess what the text might be about, try searching the Internet and **read** some information relevant for this topic. The key goal is to broaden your outlook and have some background knowledge about the issue. This background knowledge will allow you to predict the information in the text and enable to get more details while listening.
Goal: **understanding meaning** through understanding the intended meaning and the context	Listen to the audio text and answer the questions in writing: - what is the main idea of this text? **Write** it in 1-2 sentences. *If you experience a problem, follow the advice next to this section.*	- Listen to the text once again and make pauses while listening every two minutes. - If you are still struggling, listen to the text once again and make pauses every minute. Use the dictionary to learn the meaning of new words and expressions. - If you are still struggling, listen to the text once again and use the audio script to help you understand the intended meaning (key message of the text) and use the dictionary to learn the meaning of new words and expressions. Make a list of key vocabulary for this text. Divide your vocabulary notes into: professional terms and concepts, collocations (set phases), idiomatic expressions.
Goal: **remembering** via receiving the message and storing it in the memory	- how is this main idea developed in the audio text? (argument, description, problem solution, a sequence of historical accounts). Take notes reflecting this structure. *If you experience a problem, follow the advice next to this section.*	- Listen to the text again and make pauses while listening every two minutes. Take notes on the key structural elements of this text. Listen to get the signal words that indicate the structure of this text (linking words, etc.) -If you are still struggling, listen to the text once again and use the audio script to help you understand the internal structure of the text.
Goal: **evaluating** by looking for evidence, facts, opinions, biases	- do you think that the main idea expressed in the text is reliable and trustworthy? Why? What evidence do you get from the text that supports this opinion? *If you experience a problem, follow the advice next to this section.* - have you noticed any biased opinions? *If you experience a problem, follow the advice next to this section.*	- Listen to the text again and make pauses while listening every two minutes. Take notes on the key facts, opinions, expressed in this text. Read your notes after listening and make a decision if the main idea is reliable or contradictory. -If you are still struggling, search for some information on the Internet and find evidence that supports/contradicts the evidence supporting the main idea of the audio text. - A biased opinion is an opinion which is representing only one side of the argument (e.g. supports the opinion of one side and ignores the opinion of the other side: the elite/the poor, migrants/migration authorities, newspaper owner/experts, government/business, etc.). Listen to the text again and critically look for possible biases expressed in the text.

Goal: **responding** by constructing new meaning	- what is your own opinion on the issue stated in the audio text (do you agree/disagree and why)? - does the intended meaning (text message) meet your personal values, beliefs? Why? *If you experience a problem, follow the advice next to this section.*	- the main idea (message) in the text may be or may not be similar to what you think about the issue. In order to give your own opinion, it is important to know some possible views on this issue (supporting opinions, criticisms, questionable issues, etc.). Search the Internet and find some possible alternative points of view on the addressed issue. Compare these views with the opinion stated in the audio text. Which opinion do you tend to support and why? Be ready to provide reasons and evidence to justify your point of view.

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Displacement and Overall Conflictual Relations (OCR) as Patterns to Instantiate Academic Conflict in Major Applied Linguistics Textbooks

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Following Giannoni's classification of the rhetorical strategies for overt (rather than covert) negative evaluation, the current study aimed to investigate lexico-grammatical structures to instantiate *Overall Conflictual Relations* and *Displacement* as two major rhetorical strategies to realize Academic Conflict in two distinct corpora of textbooks in applied linguistics specifically taught at MA and PhD levels. Adopting a Mixed-Methods Approach, the study revealed the various lexico-grammatical items that were frequently used to instantiate *Displacement* and *Overall Conflictual Relations*. Qualitatively, the emerging patterns and the functions they served were delineated. At the quantitative stage of the approach, the corresponding distributions of the emerging patterns were investigated and recorded. This corpus-based study also found that the two corpora utilized resources for expression of *Overall Conflictual Relations* with an almost similar distribution; however, there was a statistically significant difference between the MA versus PhD textbooks concerning the use of *Displacement*. The study found the important functions of the strategies as the ways to put two ideas in opposition to later take side with one at the expense of discarding the other. The study also found that the strategies were among the prominent incentives to construct knowledge in the field.

Keywords: academic conflict, overall conflictual relations, displacement, knowledge construction, appraisal theory

Evaluative language in general and academic conflict play a crucial role in academic writing; therefore, much interest has been attracted to the study of rhetorical strategies concerning its structures and functions in academic discourse (Salager-Meyer & Ariza, 2011, p. 175). Hyland (2011) explicitly asserts that. 'all academic texts are designed to persuade readers of something' (p. 177); such as, 'knowledge claims … [as in] a research article or dissertation; of an evaluation of others' work in a book review, or of one's understanding…in an undergraduate essay', or put in a nutshell, academic texts are structured for persuasive effect. To fulfill such purposes, writers tend to 'draw on the same repertoire of linguistic resources for each genre again and again' (Salager-Meyer & Ariza, 2011, p. 177) to 'anticipate and head off possible negative

reactions to their claims' (p. 174).

By the same token, academic criticism (AC) as a negative remark uttered by a writer towards an entity or towards another writer's stance (Salager-Meyer, Ariza, & Briceno, 2012, p. 233) has turned attention to identify both grammatical and functional/semantic units in academic discourse (Salager-Meyer, Ariza, & Briceno, p. 234). In academic writing, criticism is communicated through critical speech acts that signal inconsistencies or gap in earlier studies, as well as oppositions, contradictions, and denials.

Extensive research has been conducted to explore evaluation and academic criticism in spoken modes of academic discourse (Mauranen, 2002a), lectures (Mauranen, 2002b; Bamford, 2004; Swales, 2004), peer reviews (Salager-Meyer & Ariza, 2004; Shaw, 2004), research articles (RA) (Hunston, 1993), discussion sections of RAs (Giannoni, 2005), book reviews (Giannoni, 2002; Babaii, 2011), and conflict and argument in applied linguistics (Badger, 2004), to name just a few. Despite the frequent use of argumentation, case studies and narratives in the humanities (Hyland, 2011, p. 179) to acknowledge ideas of others (i.e., recognizing alternative voices), or to refute them and present better idea(s), little is known about the recurrent lexico-grammatical patterns or specific structures used in academic textbooks to present and argue ideas throughout the texts at the sentence level (be it a clause simplex or a clause complex). Little research has been dedicated to find out its usage and functions; that is, what linguistic elements embody academic criticism, and how these features are realized in academic textbooks.

Given the multiple functions that *Overall Conflictual Relations* (OCR hereafter) and *Displacement* can play in instantiating academic conflict in academic discourse, the present study set out to investigate the extent to which such textual characteristic were realized in applied linguistics (AL hereafter) textbooks as well as the ways to determine how such academic writing features might help shape writing in AL textbooks.

To this end, major textbooks of AL written by English native speakers and used at MA and PhD levels of AL courses in Iran were explored to identify the dominant recurrent lexico-grammatical structures to express and realize conflict in academic discourse, and to determine the functions they served.

Materials

Academic criticism (AC) as a socio-pragmatic phenomenon, is a rhetorical variable that has recently attracted the attention of sociologists of science, linguists, applied linguists, and academic discourse analysts (Hunston, 1993; Kourilova, 1996; Hyland, 2000; Salager-Meyer, 2001). Salager-Meyer, Ariza, and Briceno (2012) define academic criticism as a negative remark uttered by a writer towards the stance adopted by another writer or towards a given aspect of the entity with reference to a criterion of evaluation (p. 233).

'The textualization of agreement and disagreement [as] a key function of academic discourse' (Giannoni, 2005, p. 73) follows the principle of knowledge construction as a collaborative, cumulative process. Such collaboration, however, does not defy or exclude the agonistic dimension of science (Hunston, 1993; Badger, 2004), which is the result of 'intense competition for tenure and funding' (Giannoni, 2005, p. 71). Nor does it exclude 'confrontation between diverging or opposing knowledge claims, methodologies and theoretical frameworks' (Giannoni, 2005, p. 71). In other words, we can observe both confrontation and acknowledgement in academic discourse. The collaborative, competitive duality has been a feature of scientific discourse and academic life for centuries, at least since the Greeks, and although initially inimical, competitiveness, conflict and rivalry are forceful incentives to both individual discovery and collective criticism (Hyland, 1997, p. 27). The explicit confrontation is particularly noticeable in the wording of 'negative or positive evaluative speech acts that target competing claims or research results' (Giannoni, 2005, p. 72).

The socio-pragmatic phenomenon of academic criticism is examined by applied linguists, LSP practitioners, historians of science, philosophers, and sociologists from various perspectives. Research on AC has focused on both written prose and later on oral discourse. By the same token, conflict and negotiation in specialized texts (i.e., scientific /academic, political, legal, economic and business communication) written in the main European languages (i.e., English, French, German, Italian and Spanish) have also been scrutinized (Giannoni, 2002). The reason for so much enthusiasm in exploring the mechanism of AC in recent years is two-fold. On the one hand, it is a common tendency in a discourse community to disagree, oppose or criticize what is new. Considered from the obverse vantage point, new proposals, findings and lines of research attract opposition or criticism. On the other hand, it is in the nature of specialized discourse to negotiate and criticize propositions (Gianonni, 2002): that is, 'conflict and its negotiation are prominent features of specialized discourse' (Salager-Meyer & Ariza, 2011, p. 175).

A great number of researchers have tackled the problem of attacking and criticizing others in research papers (e.g., Myers, 1989; Swales, 1990; Belcher, 1995; Swales & Feak, 1995; Schramm, 1996; Kourilova, 1994, 1996). They have also pointed out that challenging previously published research findings, as one of

the most important issues in academic discourse, abundantly uses epistemic modality and some other hedging strategies. Other researchers have recently explored academic criticism diachronically, cross-linguistically/cross-culturally or from a cross-disciplinary vantage point. For instance, Moreno & Suárez (2008) analyzed the frequency and linguistic formulation of positive and negative appraisals in English and Spanish literary book reviews. They found that the frequency of criticism is significantly higher in the English than in Spanish literary book reviews.

Academic criticism has also been studied diachronically and cross-culturally (e.g., Salager-Meyer, 2001; Salager-Meyer & Zambrano, 2001; Salager-Meyer & Ariza, 2004; Salager-Meyer, Ariza, & Zambrano, 2003). For instance, the evolution of the ways to express criticism in Spanish, French and English in different periods lasting from the 19th to 20th century medical discourse was explored to find out how criticism was formulated and how its distribution compared. The findings revealed that in the 19th century, the three languages used personal and antagonistic ways to criticize other scientists' proposals. It was in the 1930s that the English researchers began shifting their direct aggressive manner and adopting impersonal, non-offensive, indirect hedgy ways to evaluate and criticize the proposals, or as Gianonni (2005) metaphorically states, to blame the sin rather than the sinner. However, during this period, both the French and Spanish clung to their traditions of personal and antagonistic fashion in AC. It was only after 1990s that Spanish, but still not French, scholars trained by English manuals adopted the more mitigated mode of the English.

In an early study of disagreement in academic discourse, Hunston (1993) examined the way in which propositions were evaluated, and how this evaluation was open to analysis. She focused on conflict in academic discourse and the linguistic strategies to persuade readers to accept the writer's claim above all opposition.

Hunston compared the conflict presentation in the academic research articles in biochemistry, sociolinguistics and history. They represented sciences, social sciences and humanities, respectively. The study examined conflict relevance, the presentation of knowledge claims, and conflict resolution in the three disciplines. She called the knowledge claim made by the writer under discussion as the Proposed Claim (PC) and that made by opposing writers as the Opposed Claim (OC). She then tried to explain why writers chose to report views which were in conflict with their own and found that the conflict provided a context within which gaps or inconsistency in existing research could be pointed out. This allowed writers to find a niche for their knowledge claims. Moreover, the writer's linguistic choices evaluated the PC more positively than the OC. Such a strategy thus created a difference between the PC and the OC in favor of the former, as in the following: McGhee el al... *found a limiting* ... and *did not* observe (Opposed Claim). *Our experiments showed...* (Proposed Claim) (Hunston, 1993, p. 120).

The writer's PC was seen as relevant at the expense of the OC. Finally, she reported that knowledge is assumed as something that is mainly constructed by texts. The writer's knowledge claims stand in conflict with another researcher's knowledge claims, and the ideas of one group of researchers become accepted as part of the general knowledge.

In academic writing, criticism is communicated through critical speech acts (Salager-Meyer, 2001; Stotesbury, 2002) that signal faults or inconsistencies observed in earlier research in the field. AC, however, is not just confined to a gap in knowledge and is of two kinds: *targeted* and *diffuse*. In a targeted criticism, the fault is attributed to the author or a section of the scientific community, while in a diffuse criticism it is not (Giannoni, 2005, p. 78) as in the following examples:

Targeted criticism: 'These findings contradict the findings of Reid's (1987) study, which included...' Diffuse criticism: 'It therefore casts doubt on the Aspect First Hypothesis to the extent it shows that...' (Reid, 1987), where responsibility for the faults is not directly attributed to the members of the academic community and contrary to the targeted criticism, there are no explicit links to specific authors or publications.

Contrary to such a simple classification, there are pragmatically ambiguous cases where 'marking stance and being polemical or critical are not fundamentally very different' (Giannoni, 2005, pp. 73-74). In this connection Mauranen (2002a) contends that academic speaking seems to be 'less clear and explicit about conflictual discourse or direct disagreements than one might expect' (p. 1). Ambiguity arises from the fuzziness and context-dependency of criticism markers. Therefore, Mauranen (2002b) observes that evaluation is 'a slippery elusive notion' (p. 118),

In an attempt to investigate evaluation cross-linguistically, Giannoni (2005) analyzed the disagreement and contrasting claims in the discussion section in a corpus of English and Italian medical research articles. He focused on the structures used to express negative evaluation as the most prominent way of realizing ***academic conflict*** and found that overt criticism was prevalent in both languages; indirect criticism was more frequent in English than in Italian; the amount of negative evaluation was almost three times greater in English discussion sections (p. 91). He investigated, devised and tabulated the rhetorical

strategies and devices preferred for conveying disagreement and encoding criticism. The strategies made up a continuum ranging from more indirect covert to more explicit overt ones (see Appendix A).

The results of Giannoni's (2005) study demonstrated that written academic discussions deployed a considerable range of linguistic devices when expressing contrast and conflict with peers, 'from the most indirect, semantically opaque strategy to the most explicit and confrontational' (p. 92). The most frequent overt strategies were called *describing specific faults or failures* and *identifying points of conflict*, respectively.

One particular genre in which evaluation has been widely studied is that of the book review (BR), a discursive genre with three main functions based on the descriptive, informative and evaluative nature of BRs (Motta-Roth, 1998; Gea Valor, 2000; Carvalho, 2002). In this regard, Giannoni (2002) identified a number of rhetorical strategies associated with expressions of praise and criticism in English software reviews, and in the case of criticisms he found 'poignant negative evaluation [construed] by stigmatizing fault, [and] stressing incompleteness' (p. 344).

Babaii (2011) identified rhetorical strategies associated with criticism and negative comments in physics book reviews. She analyzed the negative criticism in 54 physics BRs published by three journals over a span of two years (1998-1999). Adopting the appraisal theory as her theoretical framework, she divided the BRs into Balanced (containing both positive and negative ACs) and Negative (dominantly containing negative ACs). Among many important points, she concluded that BRs in her corpus were replete with confrontational comments, which undermined the disinterested impersonal matter-of-fact mode of scientific discourse in physics (Babaii, 2011, p. 65) and that 'errors [were] the most important, non-negligible, and sometimes unpardonable, problems in books, as they denote[d] academic inadequacy and/or intellectual sloppiness' (Babaii, 2011, p. 66).

Given the lack of objective measures to identify the implicit strategies, and the inevitably fuzzy nature and overlapping behavior of the covert strategies devised by Giannoni (2005), in which the very sentence used to indicate a covert strategy can readily be interpreted as an overt strategy as well, and in order to avoid such mismatches, the present corpus-based study adopted only the overt strategies encoding criticism so as to help explore the recurrent lexico-grammatical patterns that realized conflict.

For instance, *offering interpretations* in the light of new evidence in the field (see Appendix A) is considered a strategy employed for indirect (covert) criticism. However, this is not a criticism at all and contrary to what Giannoni (2005) claims, it is as a further contribution to ongoing research supporting a given idea.

Another reason for opting for overt rather than covert strategies is to consider the strategy called *logically implicit criticism,* which implies that there is something amiss in current knowledge and compares current and earlier results/approaches. However, this bears much resemblance to its overt counterpart called *displacing existing claim,* through which new claims as knowledge displace claims made by other scholars, as in the following examples: *'The sluggish rate of change … is replaced by* a more dynamic rate of …' (Giannoni, 2005, p. 84), which is considered a covert criticism, while *'Instead of the presumption* of …. *we might benefit from assuming that …'* (p. 87), which is considered an overt one by Giannoni (2005). However, '*Instead of'* and '*is replaced by'* refer to a similar function and it is explicitly stated as an overt critical strategy which is called *displacing existing claim,* where one of the two opposing points is favored and prioritized putting the faulty, incomplete one aside.

Despite a large body of research conducted to investigate evaluative language and academic conflict for some sub-genres of academic discourse (e.g., medical RAs by Salager-Meyer, et al., 2003; book reviews by Giannoni, 2002; and discussion section of medical RAs by Giannoni, 2005), it is doubtful how academic conflict is realized in textbooks in applied linguistics. In other words, it is not clear what lexico-grammatical structures frequently realize Displacement and Overall Conflictual Relations (OCR), what functions they serve, and how all this accounts for the realization of academic conflict in AL textbooks. Therefore, the lexico-grammatical elements or structures to realize academic conflict in applied linguistics textbooks are not known and are yet to be explored and researched.

Notwithstanding the textbook authors' tendency to opt either for an overt or a covert, diffuse or targeted strategy, direct or indirect AC, the current study explored the instances of academic conflict in terms of the recurrent lexico-grammatical structures that realized Displacement and OCR, and also their rhetorical functions. In other words, regardless of who or what was responsible for criticism (Salager-Meyer, et al., 2003) or who/what was criticized (Giannoni, 2005) through the ACs, the study focused on the lexico-grammatical structures that set two points in opposition and realized AC in two corpora of major applied linguistics in MA versus PhD textbooks. Therefore, Giannoni's (2005) rhetorical strategies for overt AC were principally used so as to explore lexico-grammatical structures that realized AC in the specified corpora. Therefore, this corpus-based study aimed to explore recurrent lexico-grammatical patterns of academic conflict with their corresponding

distribution, frequency and functionality in major applied linguistics textbooks.

Based on Giannoni's (2005) overt rhetorical strategies for negative evaluation, the current study meticulously analyzed the two corpora to explore the underlying lexico-grammatical structures of Displacement and Overall Conflictual Relations that realized academic conflict and the functions of these structures in major AL textbooks. The selected textbooks, recommended by experts in the field, were all written by native speakers of English and were used most widely at the MA and PhD levels of AL courses in Iranian universities.

This corpus-based study, therefore, aimed to address the question of the lexico-grammatical items to indicate ***displacement*** and ***overall conflictual relations*** so as to realize Academic Conflict between (parts of) propositions in AL textbooks and the various functions served by deploying such patterns. To achieve this end, the following research questions stand out:

1. What are the recurrent lexico-grammatical structures to indicate *displacement* and *overall conflictual relations* in major applied linguistics textbooks at MA versus PhD levels of tertiary education?
2. What are the different functions served by these structures in major applied linguistics textbooks?
3. What are the corresponding distribution and frequencies of such recurrent lexico-grammatical elements, to realize conflict in the two corpora and how do they compare?

Although AC has been explored from different perspectives, Hyland (2000, p. 45) asserts that 'there is little work on how the expression of criticism may vary in particular genres and contexts. … [and] our knowledge of how criticism is expressed is likewise very limited.' Moreover, it is necessary to examine the ways scientists verbalize their criticisms in the context of particular genres. Therefore, it is the main goal and purpose of the current corpus-based study to explore the lexico-grammatical structures that realize AC in major applied linguistics textbooks. These are the most prominent textbooks of applied linguistics written by native speakers of English, recommended by a number of informed Iranian professors, taught at the tertiary level of education, and scrutinized as the main source texts for the MA and PhD students majoring in TEFL in Iran.

Methods

This study was grounded in Giannoni's (2005) classification of rhetorical strategies for overt negative evaluation. The research design for the current study was the Sequential Mixed-Methods approach, beginning with a qualitative analysis for exploratory purposes followed up with a quantitative analysis. Using the structure of sentence as the unit of analysis, the researchers explored the underlying lexico-grammatical structures for the instantiation of two of such rhetorical strategies called Displacement and Overall Conflictual Relations in applied linguistics textbooks, their corresponding distribution and the functions potentially served by these structures. The unit of analysis in this study was a sentence, as demarcated by Halliday and Matthiessen (2004) and Eggins (2004).

A representative sample of textbooks in applied linguistics (AL) was selected. Textbook selection, in the present study, met the following criteria: A number of experts in the discipline were asked to recommend textbooks they considered as essential in AL, which had been established as major course textbooks at higher levels of tertiary education (i.e., at MA & PhD levels) in the discipline. The selection was motivated with the aim of building the materials representative of applied linguistics textbooks taught in Iranian universities at MA and PhD levels: decisions on the selection of each book were made by consulting 30 experts in the discipline.

To this aim, e-mails were sent to the university professors at different universities in Iran and they were asked to recommend the key (must-be-studied) textbooks for MA and PhD levels in the discipline. Different books were recommended by these experts, and their suggestions were compared and contrasted to arrive at a final decision on the selected materials for the analysis. Based on the most recent date of of publication, the formality, the content, and the author of the books, for each level three major textbooks were selected as the material for analysis.

Accordingly, the recommended AL textbooks assigned for the MA level were represented by: *Understanding Language Teaching* (Kumaravadivelu, 2008, abbreviated as ULT); *Methodology in Language teaching: An Anthology of Current Practice* (Richards, & Renandya, 2002, coded as R & R); and *Task-based Language Learning and Teaching* (Ellis, 2004, coded as TBLLT). On the other hand, the recommended AL textbooks assigned for the PhD level were: *Input, Interaction, and Corrective Feedback* (Mackey, 2012, coded as ICF); *The Handbook of Language Teaching* (Long & Doughty, 2009, coded as L & D); and *The Study of Second Language Acquisition* (Ellis, 2008, coded as SLA). The study then developed a corpus for each level.

As the unit of analysis was *sentence* as demarcated by Halliday and Matthiessen (2004) and Eggins (2004), the total number of sentences in each level of the two corpora was counted manually twice. The main

reason for a sentence as the unit of analysis was that rhetorical strategies occur both in dependent and independent clauses.

Instrumentation

The main concept of the quest for Displacement and Overall Conflictual Relations (OCR), was based on Giannoni's (2005) classification of rhetorical strategies for overt negative evaluation that realized academic conflict. In this classification, *identifying points of conflict* or what we call *Overall Conflictual Relations* (OCR), is instantiated when the writer draws attention to tensions/inconsistencies between different entities/ideas/ propositions or studies and points to the *relation* between the two conflicting items as *contradiction*, *contrast*, and many other kinds. Since this clearly accounts for reporting the kind of relation between two ideas as in a conflict we call it *Overall Conflictual Relationship* abbreviated as OCR. Therefore, an overall conflictual relationship between the two items is reported and AC is thus realized by the two opposing parts, as in the following example where the structures that instantiate OCR and realize Academic Conflict in a given phase of the text are all **in bold**:

… one **criticism** … **leveled against** them is they are based on an outmoded view of learning (SLA, p. 655).

The relation between the idea that criticizes and the one that is criticized is one of OCR.

Moreover, *displacing existing claims* is instantiated when an idea/proposition/entity displaces claims made by others in the light of new knowledge in the field or a better consideration of the factors involved. Academic Conflict is realized when the text presents an alternative rival idea to *eradicate* the earlier idea/ proposition/entity and also to *displace* it by the newer better more advanced one, as in:

> When the audiolingual method was introduced, it was hailed as scientific, systematic, and teacher friendly, and soon it **replaced** the 'discredited' grammar-translation method that held sway for a long time (ULT, p. 225).

Since a number of the sentences/propositions containing OCR or Displacement also contained negative evaluative items, part of the theoretical framework to conduct the current corpus-based study was based on 'appraisal theory' advocated by Martin and White (2005), specifically *appreciation* as a sub-category within attitudinal language. Appraisal theory, developed by Martin and White (2005) and located within the framework of Systemic Functional Linguistics (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004), divides evaluative resources into three broad semantic domains called attitude, graduation and engagement.

A system of meanings called attitude is a framework for mapping feelings, values related to behaviors and non-human entities construed in texts. This system involves three semantic regions covering emotions, ethics and aesthetics. Attitude includes categories of *affect* (feelings and emotions), *judgment* (evaluation of human behavior) and *appreciation* (evaluation of things). In the following examples from the two corpora (MA vs. PhD), tokens in phrases or sentences are **in bold**:

Affect: Feelings of **uneasiness; angry; confused; bored** and **discouraged; dislike; frightened; dissatisfaction;**

Judgment: It is **unfair** [negative evaluation: judgment] to expect the CTP pedagogists to deliver something that ….(ULT, p. 155) Students will **not be able to** confront [incapacity, inability: judgment] learners' **inappropriate** response [negative evaluation: judgment]

Teachers **fail** to highlight [inability: judgment] **inexperienced** teachers [negative evaluation: judgment]

The **inability** to sequence tasks [incapacity: judgment] **failure** to verbalize (ICF, p. 108) [inability: judgment];

Recalcitrant participants (R & R, p. 231) [negative evaluation: judgment].

Appreciation:

As a model it is **too simplistic** [intensified negative appreciation of an entity] to

be the central planning factor for curricula today (R & R, p. 71)

The **contrived** [negative appreciation] language they contain has **little to do with** [downgraded, low quantity] reality (R & R, p. 80)

Artificial, **unnatural** [language of some teaching materials]

Counterproductive [negative appreciation]

The relationship between … was **weak** [negative appreciation] and **insignificant** [low quantity].

Additionally, through *graduation*, force of utterances are raised or lowered, or the focus of their semantic categorizations are blurred or sharpened. *Engagement* is the act of positioning the speaker's/ author's voice with propositions

Procedure

Adopting a Sequential Mixed-Methods approach, the current study investigated the various lexico-grammatical structures that expressed Displacement and Overall Conflictual Relations, and realized Academic Conflict in the two corpora. As a response to the subjective reading problem faced by all text-based research, and in order to increase the reliability (Connor & Mauranen, 1999, p. 50) of the current study (i.e., to validate our own reading interpretation), inter-

rater and intra-rater procedures were implemented to ensure that instances of denial-correction pairings were identified with high degree of accuracy.

Additionally, given the possibility of variation in terms of the lexico-grammatical elements that expressed Displacement and Overall Conflictual Relations across different sections of the textbooks, a pilot study was conducted, and the data were analyzed until the researcher could identify dominant patterns and functionality of the patterns in each and every section of the textbooks. To this end, one of the textbooks was randomly selected. To find out about the content of the book, the selected textbook was read several times.

The analysis for the pilot study was carried out until no more patterns or functions emerged and the researcher could identify no other new dominant markers, patterns or functionalities for the structures in the sample textbook. After finding the lexico-grammatical items that expressed Displacement and Overall Conflictual Relations, and their functions in the sample and also delineating them in their categories, the whole process was conducted for the second time to render coding more reliable. In other words, the researcher re-analyzed the sample textbook within an interval of at least four weeks to control for intra-rater (coding) reliability.

Working independently, the second non-native rater who specializes in SLA research analyzed the textbook, double-checked the sample to determine coder reliability. This was conducted with the intention to help minimize the likelihood of endangering the reliability of the analyses and the findings, and then we agreed on the method of analysis. Therefore, to guarantee accuracy of analysis and ensure the inter-rater reliability of the analyses, the second non-native rater analyzed the selected textbook, and based on the concepts and theoretical underpinnings of Displacement and Overall Conflictual Relations, extracted the patterns and recorded the corresponding frequencies. For this stage, the selection of the samples was purposeful rather than random.

After we were both through with the analyses, Pearson correlation was applied to calculate the inter-rater reliability of the analyses. The correlation coefficient obtained for the analysis of different features rendered 0.82, which is an acceptable index, assuring the reliability of the analyses. Minor discrepancies in the analyses were negotiated.

To control intra-rater reliability of analysis, the sample textbook was read several times and with an interval of four weeks the data were re-analyzed the second time and discrepancies on the method of analysis were recorded and resolved. The index of intra-rater reliability was 0.85. Therefore, after completion of the pilot study, the rest of the data was analyzed by the main researcher of the study.

Analysis of the selected textbooks began with reading the texts carefully several times to ensure the comprehension of the content. The sentences in the corpus were studied carefully, focusing on the propositional meaning, their stance in the context and content in presenting ideas and constructing knowledge. All this was carried out to have a firm understanding of the text semantically and pragmatically, as well as checking the interconnection between sentences and ideas. In the quest for structures that realized OCR and Displacement, each sentence was meticulously focused on to explore the kind of lexico-grammatical structure that instantiated OCR and Displacement, the connection to the preceding and proceeding sections and sentences, as at times one element of the pairing was in a sentence, whereas the other element was in the following one. This was achieved through:

(i) identifying the elements and structures construing Overall Conflictual Relations and Displacement;
(ii) exploring the nature and functionality of the emerging patterns of OCR and Displacement.

In the first step, all lexico-grammatical items that instantiated Displacement and OCR were identified and extracted. In the second step, the texts were scrutinized to record the frequency of occurrence for each pattern. At this stage, both the emerging patterns and the corresponding frequencies were tabulated. In the third step, the frequency of each structure was recorded in the corresponding categories. The tables contained categories based on the structures realizing Displacement and Overall Conflictual Relations and their corresponding frequencies. The data were analyzed until we reached a stage in which the patterns were fixed and data saturation was achieved: that is, no new structures emerged and no other differences could be identified in how these patterns were realized.

The number of sentences and pages analyzed in the current study are shown in Tables 1 and 2 below. The prefaces, notes, exercises, and glossaries were excluded when counting the two corpora. The MA corpus included 573 pages while the PhD corpus comprised 634 pages.

Table 1
The total number of sentences and pages (MA vs. PhD)

The levels of textbooks	*Number of sentences*	*Number of pages*
MA	18,367	889
PhD	28,093	1612

Moreover, the analysis of the MA corpus in the present investigation covered 12,122 sentences, whereas for the PhD corpus 11,556 were analyzed. As the sentence was the unit of analysis, they were

Table 2
The number of sentences analyzed in each corpus

The levels of textbooks	*Number of sentences*	*Number of pages*
MA	12,122	573
PhD	11,556	634

counted manually twice to ensure the distinctions made for sentence boundaries.

In the fourth step, to identify textbook writers' preferences for encoding resources of Displacement and Overall Conflictual Relations, the distribution and the total frequency of each structure were compared to detect the possible differences among the two corpora (i.e., MA versus PhD) and to see whether or not the differences were significant. At this stage, Chi squares were administered to detect the possible differences in the use or frequency of the patterns in MA versus PhD textbooks.

In order to find out the similarities and differences in the two corpora in terms of the frequency of occurrence for the patterns, one-way *Chi-square* (X^2) was computed for each pattern. As a one-way X^2 with only one degree of freedom was involved in the analysis, an adjustment known as *Yates correction for continuity* was employed. Therefore, the estimate for the recurrent patterns was corrected by applying *Yates correction factor* so that they could fit the X^2 distribution (Hatch & Farhady, 2007, p. 171).

Owing to the fact that the number of pages and also the number of sentences comprising each of the corpora was totally different, it was evident that the number of occurrences for the patterns in each corpus had to be different. Therefore, to compare the distribution of the occurrences of structures that instantiated Displacement and Overall Conflictual Relations in the two corpora, it was statistically necessary to have equal numbers of sentences for each of the two corpora (MA vs. PhD). To this end, the frequencies were normalized for 5000 sentences.

Results And Discussion

The current study was conducted to explore the various patterns of denial-correction pairing in major applied linguistics textbooks written by native speakers of English and studied by students of TEFL at MA and PhD levels in Iran. The patterns emerging from the corpus are shown in Table 3 after normalizing the data. In order to find the similarities and differences in the two corpora in terms of the frequency of the patterns, one-way *Chi-square* was computed for each pattern.

The results of the analyses are presented, described and discussed in detail in the following section. The first section of the results and discussion is dedicated to Overall Conflictual Relations. This is followed by the second section which accounts for the findings related to Displacement. At the qualitative phase, the two corpora were analyzed and the following lexico-grammatical items that instantiated OCR and Displacement were found.

Identifying Points of Conflict (OCR)

We draw attention to tensions/inconsistencies between different entities/ideas/ propositions or studies and point to the *relation* between the two conflicting items as *contradiction*, *contrast*, and many other kinds. Therefore, an overall conflictual relationship between the two items is reported and AC is thus realized by the two opposing parts:

… one **criticism** … leveled **against** them is they are based on an outmoded view of learning (SLA, p. 655).

The relation between the idea that criticizes and the one that is criticized is one of OCR. The OCR finds fault with it and declares that it is based on a shaky basis; therefore, it is so unreliable that researchers try to think of better alternatives. Here, the OCR is based on a negative appreciation instantiated by *outmoded***.**

In the example, **'[r]ejects** the rigidities associated with the concept of method … (ULT, p. 193)', the OCR shows the conflicting relation between *the concept of method* and the entity/proposition/scholar that *rejects* it. In the example from the PhD corpora below, there are at least three lexico-grammatical structures at work to indicate the conflict between the earlier and later stages in coming to understand speaking as a specific language skill. The OCR establishes the contrast between the earlier and the last period. The pairing rejects viewing it as a *target* and provides the correction to it in viewing it as a *medium*. This stands in contrast, as seen in the example that follows, to the improvement in the *last period* as development-based conflict, which focuses on *the nature of the construct*:

In all these various 'communicative' developments, speech tends to be viewed as **medium rather than** as **target** skill to be fostered. **In contrast**, **this last period** has begun to see the testing of speaking concentrate more precisely on the **nature** of the construct, and on operationalizing its assessment (L & D, p. 412).

In the following example from the MA corpora, there are two instances of OCR, one of which rejects the other: One is the earlier *criticism against* the *strategy*, and the other concerns the *dismissal* of the criticism: '**[d]ismiss** the **criticisms leveled against** the analytic strategy' (ULT, p. 190).

The results of the quantitative analysis of the distribution of the lexico-grammatical structures that indicate OCR and the related discussion are presented below.

Table 3
The comparison of the two corpora in their use of the structures indicating overall conflictual relations (Normalized for 5000 sentences)

Textbook Level	O	E	(Fo-Fe-0.5) Yates Correction	$(Fo-Fe-0.5)^2$	$(Fo-Fe-0.5)^2 / E$	Chi-square observed
MA	397	414	-17.5	306	0.74	1.40
PhD	431	414	16.5	272	0.66	

Note. P< .05d.f.=1; O = observed; E = Expected; Chi-square critical value =3.84; $\boldsymbol{X^2}$**=** $\sum$ (Fo-Fe-0.5)2/ E = Chi-square observed.

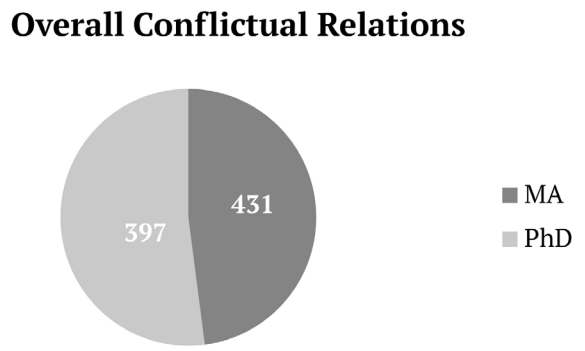

Figure 1. The diagrammatic comparison of the frequency of the use of the OCR in the two corpora.

As shown in Table 3, the lexico-grammatical structures that the present study defines as the Overall Conflictual Relation form a pattern frequently used in the two corpora. This can indicate the importance of the pattern to express different kinds of conflict inherent in the field. The structures can express differences, contrasts, criticisms, disagreements, discrepancies, rejections and many other resources of conflict extracted from the corpus some of which are presented in the following sections.

Although the observed frequency of the use of the pattern in the PhD corpus was apparently

more than that of the MA corpus, the Chi-square obtained **(1.40)** was not higher than the critical value (3.84). In other words, the comparison of the two corpora yielded a Chi-Square that was far less than the critical value with one degree of freedom (df = 1, p < 0.05), and the difference between the two corpora was not statistically significant. Therefore, there was no significant difference between the MA and the PhD textbooks in terms of the frequency of the use of the lexico-grammatical structures that indicated OCR and thereby realized AC. In other words, the two corpora frequently made use of the OCR structures to establish a conflictual relation between entities, (parts of) ideas, schools of thoughts, methodologies, scholars and their propositions, and thereby to realize AC in the discipline.

As revealed by the current study, OCR can usually be a nominal, an adjective, an adjunct, an adverb of manner, or a process (verb) that conveys the relation between A and B as a conflict. There is a tension or disagreement between (the features of) A as opposed to (those of) B. The OCR can be instantiated and conveyed by words such as *barrier*, *critical*, *conversely*, and *to challenge,* to name just a few.

In the following examples from the MA corpus, the structures that instantiate OCR and realize Academic Conflict in a given phase of the text are all in bold:

He **comes down heavily on** teacher educators (ULT, p. 220).

The AC is realized here between the scholar who severely criticizes (*comes down heavily on*) the teacher educators.

Bialystok's model is **substantially different** from Krashen's (e.g., 1981) Monitor Model
(ULT, p. 191):

Here, the graduation (*substantially*) upgrades the adjective (*different*) and the intensified difference stands for the conflictual relation between the two models. In the following examples, the items that express OCR and realize conflict are in bold:

[T]he ideological and pedagogical barriers **cause impediments** for progress in post-method pedagogy. (ULT, p. 220) … assume 'a **critical stance towards** 'mainstream' TESOL activity (ULT, p. 222) … the **conflict** between central control and local initiative (ULT, p. 223);

[S]urvey, with a **critical** eye (ULT, p. 224) … to develop **serious doubts** about its efficacy; **resistance** to change (ULT, p. 225) … the ideological **barrier** with which any Post-method pedagogy has to **wrestle** (ULT, p. 218) …. current practices of teacher education **pose** a serious pedagogic **barrier** to any type of post-method pedagogy. (ULT, p. 217);

[C]hallenges facing the construction and implementation of post-method Pedagogy (ULT, p. 216);

The negative appreciation expressed by *barrier* is intensified and the phrase (i.e., powerful **barriers);** *stand*ing as a *harmful hurdle* that *block*s the way are at the service of construing OCR between the earlier

features of the concept of method and the post-method pedagogy;

The pedagogical **barrier** relates to the content and character of L2 teacher education. It **stands** as a **harmful hurdle blocking** the effective construction and implementation of any post-method pedagogy by practicing teachers. (ULT, p. 216).

However, AC has its own unique usefulness, a blueprint of change for the better: We have barriers, we should think of the way(s) to remove them, we propose favorable alternative solutions, and if we are fortunate enough, we can devise a balanced approach to overcome the predicaments. Of course, at times we are not equipped with the best solution or the conclusive idea, and further exploration is certainly needed to 'explore alternatives to method' (ULT, p. 214). Getting more and more disillusioned or dissatisfied with the constraining concepts, the conflicting findings highlight the need for more research and the identification of conflicts can act as an incentive to the development of more useful models, 'to transcend the limitations of the concept of method' (ULT, p. 213).

Moreover, to know what the major flaw, weakness, or problem is in itself a movement towards improvement, as this casts light on what to avoid and what to focus on: A balanced approach would

also seek to establish a dialogue, 'between the barriers that inhibit change and the factors that help overcome those barriers' (ULT, p. 215).

In what follows a number of lexical items from the two corpora that instantiated OCR and realized AC between two conflictual parts are presented. The list is by no means exhaustive; rather it tries to exemplify and illuminate the concept conveyed by OCR:

a) *run against; run counter to; call into question; to question; be repeatedly questioned; doubt; go/move/act/look beyond; tension; conflict; critique of; criticize; criticism; contradict(ion); wrestle with; contra argument; counter-evidence; severe/fundamental criticism; negative reaction to; objections to; move away from; by negation of; disagreement; contentious; downplay; raise a negative view*; *arguments against; counter-argue; be at odds with; vary; alter; alternative(ly); contentious; disagreements; differ from; counter; militate/mitigate against; dispel; differences; differentiate; distinction; discrepancies; problematic; difficulty; controversy; controversial; opposing view; as opposed to; argue against; conversely; constraints; compare; by contrast; contrast; have contrastive value; debate; challenges; hamper; hinder; stand in the way of; withhold; push; force; pose; induce; prevent from; prohibit; avoid sth (un) favorable; filter out; reject; revise; refine; Conversely (as an adjunct);*

b) re+process: restructure; redefine; reshape; redirect;; rewrite; reinterpret; reformulate; reconsideration; reframe; reconceptualize; reconstruct;

The lexico-grammatical patterns that indicate an OCR and realize AC, are also used in the following example:

… the **barriers** that **inhibit change** and the factors that help **overcome** those barriers (ULT, p. 215).

Here, there is an OCR between *barriers* and *factors* instantiated in *overcome,* and the relative clauses describing the characteristic features of *barriers* and *factors.*

The items that indicate OCR can be nouns, adjuncts, epithets, attributes, processes, or circumstances of manner as in these examples from the two corpora: define it *differently* (circumstance of manner), *criticism* (nominalized), *Conversely* (adjunct), a *conflicting* result (epithet), *disagree* (process) and the results are *contradictory* (attribute). Moreover, the lexico-grammatical items that realize OCR can also be graduated (e.g., intensified) or even infused with intensification whenever needed in the specific context, as in *fundamental differences between,* where attitudinal meaning is also intensified as being the most important instantiated by *fundamental.* Other examples include:

- **taking a critical** pedagogic **stance** and moving toward **transforming** the educational system (ULT, p. 197);
- **rejects** the rigidities associated with the concept of method (ULT, p. 193);
- as **opposite** ends of a continuum (ULT, p. 192) … **contrastive** terms (ULT, p. 191).

The items that follow indicate OCR can be as different phrases and expressions that convey a conflict between two parts. Again, the list is by no means conclusive. Rather, it attempts to exemplify and illuminate the concept conveyed by OCR:

make a clear and consequential break with; deconstruct the existing concept of method; the anti-method sentiments; contrary to common misconception; competing pulls and pressures; to question the status quo that keeps them subjugated; offered resistance to; rejects the very idea method-based pedagogies are founded upon; compels us to fundamentally restructure our view of; inhibit the development of a valuable …; a clear repudiation of established methods; competing, and mutually incompatible, theories of language learning; fundamentally different from…; teachers are at variance with the conceptual considerations; meaning-based input modifications to the exclusion of explicit form-based; take a critical look at; dismissed the L1 pragmatic knowledge; fundamental differences between; expressed surprise at; differed from each other in terms of; the bone of contention; two competing hypotheses; prioritize the cognitive over the social; resulting in conflicting findings; poses a severe challenge to; uphold a persistent

argument by; took exception to these views; consistently rejected the dichotomy between; other formulations of language competence have been proposed; cross the borders of the classroom to investigate broader social, cultural, political, and historical structures; oppositional practices; negative observation effects; take a critical perspective on; raise questions about; debates about; controversy; rejection of; dismissal of; disagreement; here the results are somewhat conflicting; the polar opposites of; make the opposite prediction; raise a serious problem; reverse the sequence; everlasting controversy; This is in contrast to another study; reject the former in favor of the latter; provide evidence against; make a convincing case against;

The example of, 'The Death of Method' (ULT, p. 168), as a separate title introduces what is stated against method in the coming text; to liken the method to a living organism which is declared as dead, which is entombed and at its funeral. Phrases such as 'lay to rest' and to write a 'requiem' … for 'recently interred methods' (ULT, p. 168) all give a negative evaluation to the concept of method. This is undoubtedly a clear instance of OCR in action. This is the point from which the concept of POST-method germinates. Therefore, Academic Conflict is (at least) one of the major influencing forces that compels and enables the academic discourse community to go beyond weaknesses and think of better alternatives.

Another example of OCR is realized in, '[a] widespread **dissatisfaction** with a version of language-centered pedagogy' (ULT, p. 135), based on the negative affect conveyed in the lexical item. In '[o]ne **criticism** … leveled **against** them is they are based on an outmoded view of learning' (SLA, p. 655), the relation between the idea that criticizes and the one that is criticized is one of OCR. The OCR finds fault with it and declares that it is based on a shaky foundation; therefore, it is so unreliable that researchers try to think of better alternatives. As the text moves along, it reveals this fact as, 'there have, in fact, been a number of attempts to develop alternative language aptitude test' (SLA, p. 655). The dissatisfaction, the negative evaluation, the criticism, and generally the OCR together culminate in pushing the academic community to think of better ways that, on the one hand, do not have the previous shortcomings and, on the other hand, provide the field with better solutions to the problems. The same pattern holds true in the following example:'[t] hey found that Reid's questions did not show a good fit with the constructs … and therefore explored an alternative learning style model …' (SLA, pp. 668-669), where support for the idea proposed by Reid is denied and it is declared as no longer reliable or useful; therefore, the other phase of the text (to use Hood's terminology, 2010) that follows this contains AC in the form of OCR realized by *contradiction,* which makes Reid's proposal even more unreliable: '[t]he findings of this study, therefore, contradict the findings of Reid's study' (SLA, p. 669).

It should be noted that what follows a negative evaluation to introduce an alternative view with an OCR is not necessarily the best solution to the existing problem. That is, as the text moves forward we come to realize that Reid's idea had been wrong and there had been a host of research conducted to present a solution; nevertheless, 'no useful generalizations can be based on the research undertaken to date' (SLA, p. 669), which in turn indicates a gap yet to be explored.
In the following example, graduation instantiated by *less* has a contextually negative evaluation for the amount of the support, which gives a negative coloring to the given hypothesis. Therefore, the AC is realized for an idea that has no new supporters: 'The second hypothesis has received **less** support' (SLA, p. 675).
In [o], the act of *attack*ing is a clear instance of OCR conducted by the members of the discourse community. Or consider the following example from the PhD corpus:
A **high** level of motivation **does** stimulate learning, and perceived success in achieving L2 goals can help to maintain existing motivation and **even** create new types. **Conversely**, a **vicious** circle of **low** motivation – **low** achievement – **lower** motivation can develop especially if learners attribute their **failure** to factors they feel **powerless** to alter (SLA, p. 686).

In this example, there are two propositions that stand in opposition to each other. The first one is explicitly asserted with emphasis (*does stimulate*), and the favorable state can be even beyond what is normally expected (can *even create new types*). The conjunct acts as an item to instantiate the conflictual relation between the two propositions, where the negative appreciation expressed by *a vicious circle* gives a negative value to the second proposition, which is now conceived of as an unfavorable state for the motivation-learning cycle. The conflicting amount of graduation expressed in *high* vs. *low* amount of motivation saturates the OCR between the two propositions. This is intensified when the negative outcome is presented as inability with negative judgment instantiated by *failure* and being *powerless to alter* the factors that impede learning. Here, the OCR specifically expressed by the word *conversely* sets the two propositions in opposition to each other and the negative evaluation as appreciation, judgment and low amount as graduation give a prosodically negative coloring to the second proposition. Therefore, the second idea is considered an unfavorable state relative to a better alternative expressed in the first one.

If two groups of scholars working on the same

subject have an instance where the relationship between their propositions is one of conflict, it does not necessarily imply that the Overall Conflictual Relation indicates a total disagreement; rather, the two ideas can have agreement on one feature but differ or even disagree on another feature of the same subject. In the following example from the PhD corpus, the two groups share the same idea concerning one aspect of the subject but disagree on another and the OCR focuses on the disagreement: '[C]sizer and Dornyei (2005) located integrativeness as the core variable influencing effort and language choice. 'Integrativeness subsumed attitudes towards L2 speakers', **but, contrary to** Gardner's claims (1985), it was also found to subsume instrumentality' (SLA, p. 689).

'Integrativeness subsumed attitudes towards L2 speakers' is the finding that is shared by the two groups, yet the additional finding is the part on which the disagreement resides.

In the following example from the PhD corpus, two instances of Direct AC are presented where the scholars who have opposing ideas are reported to metaphorically attack each other, though such direct ACs are scarce and not frequent enough to be statistically significant:

Sparks, Ganschow, and Javorsky **dismissed** the research carried out by Horwitz and her associates as 'misguided'. … Horwitz has **reacted** strongly this dismissal of her work, …' (SLA, p. 695).

Here, it is the scholars rather than entities that express the disagreement, where one *dismisses* and the other *strongly reacts to the dismissal*. Moreover, a negative appreciation is attributed to the idea as (*misguided);* the other process *(has reacted)* conveys the OCR and is reinforced by a circumstance of manner *(strongly)* and thereby AC is realized. Additionally, in the following example, two groups of people are reported to have opposing ideas and AC is thus realized by the OCR and the dichotomy with conflicting agnates (ends) (i.e., *hinder* vs. *facilitate*): [r]esearchers like Newport argue that …, **hindering** the learning. Ludden and Gupta propose the **opposite**; … **facilitate** second language learning' (ICF, p. 94).

Noteworthy is the point that OCR alone is not necessarily indicative of the sole resource of realizing AC. That is, the two corpora are replete with propositions where OCR is combined with counter-expectation, graduation (as intensification, quantity or amount), overall objection or indications of flaws and weaknesses. In this connection, the following example expresses that contrary to what is expected, there is no conclusive answer to the subject in question and there are still scholars who have opposing views as well: **However**, **arguments** continue as to how to define learning strategies. Macaro (2006) … defined learning strategies as **cognitive** and **rejected** the view that they can be considered in terms of **overt behavior** (SLA, p. 705).

The dichotomy contains two opposing concepts; that is, the externally observable *overt behavior* and the internally non-observable *cognitive* processes and since Macaro establishes the definition on cognitive processes, it is inevitably in conflict with externally observable overt behavior; therefore, AC is realized and the other proposition contrary to this is *rejected*. And this is also the case in the following example where it is indicated that there is still no proper solution: 'Looking at all of these **differing** opinions and hypotheses, therefore, it is obvious that the question of age in relation to SLA is far from resolved' (ICF, p. 81). This way, the proposition that is saturated with negative evaluation stands in opposition to another proposition which is taken as the criterion against which evaluation is carried out. This finding is in consonance with Hunston (1993). For instance: **Problems** [flaw] exist regarding the **construct validity** [general objection] of these taxonomies; … Robson and Midorikawa **challenged** [OCR] the **reliability** [general objection] of the SILL in a study that showed … ; … quantifying the use of different strategies **runs contrary to** [OCR] learning strategy theory.… There are **a number of** [graduation: quantity] other **problems** [flaw] (SLA, p. 706).

Course design is concerned with … the what of teaching. As such, it **contrasts with methodology**, which addresses the how of teaching …' (TBLLT, p. 205):

Here, the dichotomy between *course design* and *methodology* is based on their contrastive features that define each of them. That is, the two terms are defined based on the conflicting features and what is true of design is not applicable to methodology and vice versa. It is the contrast that enables the writer to even define one entity based on the opposite of the other entity. Of crucial importance is the fact that, the relation is not necessarily an antonymy, rather it is the discipline that determines what stands in conflict, contrast or opposition to a given entity or idea in the text.

The two corpora are replete with such dichotomies the two parts of which are in a contrastive, conflictual relation with each other. For instance, the other agnate of a dichotomy that involves language–centered pedagogy is not a non-linguistic pedagogy, rather its counterpart is learning-centered pedagogy. Or as yet another example, the counterpart of a *linguistic* syllabus is not a non-linguistic; rather it is a *functional* or a *task-based* one:

Such a system of classifying tasks has the obvious advantage of … . **However**, such a classification **runs**

against the primary rationale for tasks, namely that they provide opportunities for **holistic** and experiential learning. … the **danger** is that the tasks will **lose** their taskness, i.e., will become more like **exercises** focusing on **discrete** aspects of language (TBLLT, p. 211).

Although it has its advantage, it suffers from being contrary to the essence of a task. A dichotomy is created, each member of which has its own specific characteristic; that is, a task is *holistic* but an exercise is *discrete*; a task is favorable but an exercise is not, as an exercise is not the objective of the activity and also it is not favored at this phase of the text; therefore, it is taken as the final objective to be achieved and a criterion against which the other counterpart is weighed and thus evaluated. Thus, implementing a task this way is negatively evaluated in the word *danger* as an extremely negative appreciation of the entity which is additionally a threat to our security. The result is also a negative affect, that will lead into a flaw that is not supposed to happen but it will (*lose*) if it is implemented. To sum up, in this part of the text the writer utilized the following strategies and structures to realize AC and reject an entity and its accompanying idea and, on the other hand, to give credit to an opposite counter-part and to take side with it: counter expectation; OCR; conflict based on a dichotomy; negative appreciation; negative affect; and an assumption of flaw. Under such a specific condition, who is to take side with an idea that is considered a *danger*, one that leads into fundamental flaws, or one that downgrades the activity to the level of an *exercise*, which is contextually unfavorable?

Additionally, the OCR can at times be contractive rather than expansive as in: '[t]he power of internal processing factors … make it **impossible** to determine externally what learners should acquire' (TBLLT, p. 231), where the negative modulation is so strong that it logically leaves no room for alternative points of view, thus making the proposition dialogistically contractive. This goes parallel with the Bakhtinian vantage point (1981) and Halliday's conception of Modulation (2004) and also engagement as a system within the appraisal (Martin & White, 2005).

OCR as a lexico-grammatical pattern that was recurrently used in the two corpora and realized AC is an incentive for members of the academic discourse and writers to move beyond what is considered contrary to establish standards and to think of better propositions. This is also evident in the history of development in one field within the discipline as follows:

The **move away from grammatical**ly based syllabuses in the 1960s led to a variety of syllabus proposals, … all of which claim to be examples of a **communicative** syllabus (R & R, p. 65).

Here, there is a *development-based conflict* (Majidzadeh, 2017) built on the unfavorable earlier grammatical syllabuses and the relatively recent favorable communicative one; an *OCR* between *grammatical* where the academic discourse community has tried to move away, detach and take a safe distance, and the *communicative*, to which the community has tried to achieve and reduce the distance; and the repudiation of *grammatical* as opposed to the praise of *communicative* as the final objective. All this is only part of the strategies used by the writer to win the reader over and to persuade the audience to take side with the communicative syllabuses, as well as constructing pieces of knowledge in the field.

In, 'This is **contrary to** claims made by Foster and also arguments made by Nicholas, Lightbown, and Spada' (ICF, p. 43), a proposition has a conflictual relation with what some other scholars have stated and it is instantiated by *is contrary to* (in bold). Therefore, AC is realized between the ideas expressed by them. A note in passing is that it is the specific context that determines which party has expressed the correct proposition (if there is a conclusive remark).

Additionally, OCR can be at the service of expressing the relation between the two parts of a **dichotomy** (Majidzadeh, 2017). In the following example, two parts of the dichotomy are contrasted and opposite to each other as the OCR is instantiated by *as opposed to:* 'during the unfamiliar **as opposed to** familiar tasks' (ICF, p. 45).

In a series of criticisms leveled against what is claimed in the previous phase of the text, the following items refer to the OCR and keep on arguing against the previous claim and thus AC is again realized: 'Another **point of contention** concerns …'(ICF, p. 48); 'another **argument** in the literature **against** the generalizability of laboratory studies to the classroom concerns learners' …' (ICF, p. 51) or it can even be up/down-graded by quantification of the amount of OCR as in '**considerable** controversy' (ICF, p. 79) or 'the **little** discrepancy'.

Additionally, OCR functions as a separating strategy that sets the two points in conflict and makes a disparity between them, as in:

TBLT [as a new entity] can be **distinguished** [item realizing OCR] from … more traditional forms [all others prior to TBLT] of instruction, in that … (ICF, p. 57).

In response to Krashen's claim … Gass proposed the concept of *apperception*, which **differs from** perception … and [she] **distinguished between** [Krashen's] *comprehensible input* and [her own] *comprehended input* (ICF, p. 131, italics in the original).

Here, Gass's response to Krashen's claim is in conflict rather than consonance. The relation between *perception* and *apperception* is one of difference rather

than similarity. And finally, what Gass proposes as *comprehensible input* is distinct and thereby different from Krashen's *comprehended input. All this is realized by employing* lexico-grammatical items such as, 'in response to', 'differs from', and 'distinguished between', that clearly disclose the relation between (parts of) ideas uttered in this phase of the text.

Here, there are three cases of OCR, one between the scholars, and two between the different parts of the dichotomy which is established between *apperception* vs. *perception*, and *comprehensible* vs. *comprehended*. Nowhere else except in the specific field in the discipline of applied linguistics can such a dichotomy exist. That is, if we semantically think of the opposite of *comprehensible* in an antonymy relation, we would mistakenly offer *incomprehensible* as the other end for the dichotomy. However, this is not the case, as the agnates or the two ending parts of the dichotomy are just devised or coined by specialists in the field and the specific context of use. Therefore, the inherent conflict in the dichotomy comes from the specific context and what the members of the academic discourse community share and agree upon to be as established knowledge. Here, the counterpart is *comprehended* as opposed to *comprehensible*, rather than any other lexical item that may come to mind as an antonym.

As an important finding in the study, OCR is in consonance with one of Gianoni's (2005) overt strategies that identified points of conflict and negatively evaluated the ideas. However, the lexico-grammatical structures that instantiated OCR and realized AC were found to be both frequent and varied.

By the same token, with regard to the lexico-grammatical items used to draw attention to tensions/inconsistencies that realized OCR, the current study found that no statistically significant difference could be shown between the two corpora in terms of the frequency of the use of these resources although the apparent frequency of the use of the items to instantiate OCR in the PhD corpus was slightly higher than the MA corpus. As a result, the two corpora took up the recurrent items that instantiated OCR with almost similar distribution. To oppose (parts of) propositions/ideas in the discipline, the writers used the lexico-grammatical elements that would readily bring forth the opposing and the opposed idea. They would indicate the relation between the two and also express the type of stance they adopted concerning the idea opposed: that is, the writers would deploy specific lexico-grammatical elements to express the two opposing ideas and simultaneously settle the overall relation between the opposing idea and the one opposed. In his way they realized Academic Conflict between two ideas/propositions in a given field in the discipline.

Displacing Existing Claims

In the light of new knowledge in the field or a better consideration of the factors involved, an idea/proposition/entity displaces claims made by others. Academic Conflict is realized when the text presents an alternative rival idea to *eradicate* the earlier idea/proposition/entity and also to *displace* it by the newer, better, more advanced one. This strategy uses lexico-grammatical items such as *replace* and *instead of* to instantiate the displacement of an idea by the one that is in conflict with it. The degree of improvement and the truth of the idea absolutely depend on the specific context and the field in the discipline. That is, the replacement is a discipline-specific and an evidence-based principled proposition, and not a word-play:

When the audiolingual method was introduced, it was hailed as scientific, systematic, and teacher friendly, and soon it **replaced** the 'discredited' grammar-translation method that held sway for a long time (ULT, p. 225).

The replacement is supported by a negative appreciation as *discredited*. That is, when an idea is *discredited* it has to be *replaced* someday in the history of knowledge construction.

In the following example, the two viewpoints are contrasted and the *internal* nature of language is replaced by its *social* functioning. The dichotomous counter-relation between *internal*/individual and *social* gives a conflictual coloring to the ideas proposed by the two great figures in the field, and AC is thus realized: **Instead of** viewing language as something exclusively internal to the learner, as Chomsky does, Halliday views it as a means of functioning in society (ULT, p. 8).

In what follows, the results of the quantitative analysis for the distribution of the lexico-grammatical structures that indicate *displacing existing claims* and the related discussion are presented.

As evinced by Table 4, the observed frequency of the use of the structures for indicating *displacing existing claims* in the MA corpus was more than that of the PhD counterpart and the Chi-square obtained (4.93) was more than the critical value (3.84) with one degree of freedom ($df = 1$, $p < 0.05$); therefore, there was a statistically significant difference between the two corpora in terms of the frequency of the use of the lexico-grammatical structures that indicated displacing existing claims in different areas in the discipline. In other words, MA textbooks tended to use displacing existing claims more frequently than those in the PhD, to show that there are stronger or better propositions that can replace the existing claims.

Earlier and current results or approaches are compared more antagonistically, bringing competition to an extreme degree. Therefore, new knowledge

Table 2
The comparison of the two corpora in their use of the structures indicating displacing existing claims (Normalized for 5000 Sentences)

Textbook Level	O	E	(Fo-Fe-0.5) Yates Correction	$(Fo-Fe-0.5)^2$	$(Fo-Fe-0.5)^2 / E$	Chi-square observed
MA	**55**	45	9.5	90.25	2.00	**4.93**
PhD	**34**	45	-11.5	132.25	2.93	

Note. P< .05 d.f.=1; O = observed; E = Expected; Chi-square critical value =3.84; $X^2 = \sum$ (Fo-Fe-0.5)2/ E = Chi-square observed.

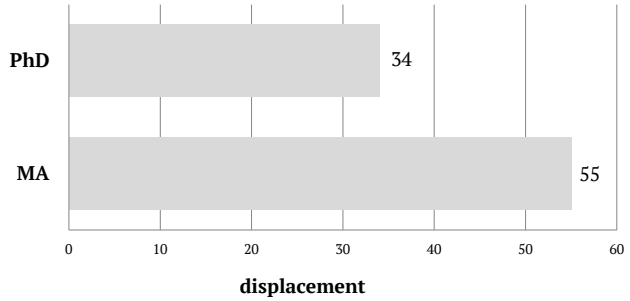

Figure 2. The diagrammatic comparison of the frequency of the use of the structures indicating displacing existing claims in the two corpora (Normalized for 5000 sentences).

displaces claims made by others. Alternative claims are often hedged and signaled by items encoding positive evaluation: *we might benefit from* / or by adversative adverbials such as *Instead:*
Tanaka (2004), in a longitudinal study of Japanese students learning English in New Zealand … showed that learners **change** their beliefs markedly over time (SLA, p. 701).

The change from an earlier state to another yet contrastive one is even intensified (*markedly*) and the two stand in a conflictual relation to each other. However, it is the context that determines such a *change* is favorable or detrimental (in this case, it shows success as opposed to the earlier failure).

The replacement can be actually taking place in reality or, at times, it can be hypothetical (not yet actualized) to contrast two different states for the same phenomenon and eventually take sides with one rather than the other. The replacement motivated by rejection in the following example expressed by the adversative adverbial (*instead*), and the OCR expressed by *rejection* is an instance of what really happened and was actualized. Here, the traditional grammarians with mentalistic approaches are in conflict with Structural linguists with their empiricist approach:

Structural linguists rejected the views of **traditional grammarians**, who depended on philosophical and **mentalistic** approaches to the study of language. **Instead**, structuralists claimed to derive their view of language through a positivist and **empiricist** approach (ULT, p. 99).

In the example below, the context revealed that Swain was in favor of production and it was production rather than comprehension that was favorable. The conflict between the hypothetical characteristics of the two opposing points (i.e., comprehension Vs. production) was hypothesized as to account for the replacement of an earlier state by a later one (*move from … to*) in the process of output production.

Swain (1995, p. 128) also notes that the production of output may stimulate learners to **move from** the semantic open-ended … in comprehension, **to** the complete grammatical processing needed for accurate production (ICF, p. 17).

Yet another example from the corpus is: **'[i] nstead of** privileging the teacher as the sole cultural informant, we need to treat the learner as a cultural informant' (ULT, p. 208).

The necessity of such a replacement (which is not actualized) is also intensified by the modality of *need*, whereby the *learner* is to replace the *teacher* as the source of the issue at stake.

Both corpora used the pattern to present an alternative that replaced another proposition and AC was thus realized between the two ideas. The following lexico-grammatical items present the stylistic variation for the recurrent use of **replacement** in the two corpora:

instead (of); replace; is replaced by/with; transform; rephrase; change; correct (the errors); make changes; substitute; shift; switch; take a turn; alternative; alter; alternate; deconstruct; choice of … over …; overcome challenges/ barriers/ limitations; dethrone; eliminate; choose not to follow;

The replacement is motivated by the negative evaluation attached to the other idea, so that it loses favour and disapproved. The negative evaluation can be related to dissatisfaction, flaws, lower amounts when higher amount is favorable, failure, limitations, erroneous misconceptions, outright denials, lack of a necessary feature, or excess in a feature that makes the idea or part of it unreliable, unfavorable, out of fashion or in contrast to a better alternative idea. In other words, the replacing idea contains the opposite traits compared to the replaced one, as in the following example from the corpora:

Then, in the1990s, attention **switched** to a more cognitive-situated view of motivation where the significance of situation-specific factors such as the classroom learning situation was examined… (SLA, p. 677).

In this example, the previous trend prior to this proposition (i.e., 'social psychological construct of integrative motivation') is no longer practiced, since it is replaced by a *more cognitive-situated view of motivation*; therefore, the conflict between the previous trend and the one in the 1990s is established, in such a way that the former is no longer effectual but the latter is the norm according to which various factors are examined.

The widespread dissatisfaction with the language-centered pedagogy coupled with the new developments in the fields of psychology and linguistics ultimately motivated the search for a better method. The result is the advent of what is called communicative language teaching, which is normally treated as a prototypical example of a learner-centered pedagogy. To what extent the new pedagogy addressed the drawbacks of the one it sought to **replace** and to what degree it achieved its stated objectives are the focus of …. (ULT, p. 113).

Dissatisfaction as a negative affect gives a negative evaluation to *language-centered pedagogy*. This becomes a strong incentive to think of better alternative views as expressed by *ultimately motivated the search for a better method*. The newer better proposition in the form of CLT runs against the *drawbacks* as the negative appreciation for the earlier faulty views. Therefore, the new idea tries to *replace* the former idea which is by now negatively evaluated.

In the following examples, grammar-translation is replaced by the audiolingual, which is in turn replaced by the communicative language teaching. Or from the obverse point, CLT replaces ALM, which in turn has replaced GTM; GTM is negatively appreciated in *discredited;* the amount of the unfavorable feature in CLT is excessive as expressed by the negatively intensified unfavorable feature in being *too much* demanding:

When the audio-lingual method was introduced, it was hailed as scientific, systematic, and teacher friendly, and soon it **replaced** the 'discredited' grammar-translation method that held sway for a long time. … Again, when the communicative language teaching came along, there was a hue and cry about how it demands too much from practicing teachers, how ill-prepared they are to embrace it, and how it is bound to fail, and so forth. Within a decade, almost everybody was swearing by it, and it has easily **dethroned** the 'discredited' audiolingual method (ULT, p. 225).

And finally, the main feature of CLT as communicative is itself replaced by another alternative called *tasks:*

The word, 'communicative,' which was ubiquitously present in the titles of scholarly books and student textbooks published during the 1980s is being **replaced** by yet another word, 'task' (ULT, p. 95).

The findings of this part of the current corpus-based study are in consonance with Giannoni's (2005) study of the rhetorical strategies encoding overt negative evaluation and academic criticism. By replacement, an earlier proposition/entity is *eradicated* and *displaced* by a newer alternative; moreover, the alternative proposition replaces a previous idea/claim in a way that it is no longer reliable.

Conclusion

Owing to the fact that 'conflict and its negotiation are prominent features of specialized discourse' (Salager-Meyer & Ariza, 2011, p. 175), it is imperative to find out the patterns that enable writers to present ideas both convincingly and conventionally. Therefore, in order to fulfill the requirements for such an essential activity, the present study set out to investigate the recurrent lexico-grammatical patterns used as to construct Academic Criticism.

The current corpus-based study aimed to explore the instances of academic conflict in terms of the recurrent lexico-grammatical structures that realized Displacement and Overall Conflictual Relations, their corresponding distribution, frequency and functionality in major applied linguistics textbooks. Based on Giannoni's (2005) overt rhetorical strategies for negative evaluation, the current study meticulously analyzed the two corpora to explore the underlying lexico-grammatical structures of OCR that realized academic conflict.

The selected textbooks comprising the two distinct corpora (one corpus for each level as MA versus PhD) were all recommended by expert informants in the field. The textbooks were all written by native speakers of English and were most widely used at MA and PhD levels of AL courses in Iranian universities.

The quest for the lexico-grammatical items that instantiated Displacement and Overall Conflictual Relations and realized Academic Conflict in the discipline (i.e., Applied Linguistics) revealed the recurrent use of a plethora of such items that were frequently used in the two corpora.

With regard to the OCR it was found that when using the lexico-grammatical items that instantiated led to them, textbook writers would draw attention to tensions/ inconsistencies between different entities/ ideas/ propositions or studies. They would also point to the *relation* between the two conflicting processes

(verbs) such as *contrast; criticism*; *question*; *doubt*; *object*; *move away from*; *disagree*; *argue against*; *differ*; *militate against*; *differentiate*; *oppose*; *challenge*; *hinder*; *prevent*; *reject; reshape*; *reframe* (to name just a few out of many).

The current study also found that the items that indicated OCR could be nouns, adjuncts, epithets, attributes, processes, or circumstances of manner, as in these examples from the two corpora: define it *differently* (circumstance of manner), *criticism* (nominalized), *conversely* (adjunct), a *conflicting* result (epithet), *disagree* (process) and the results are *contradictory* (attribute). Moreover, the lexico-grammatical items that realized OCR could also be graduated (e.g., intensified) or even infused with intensification whenever needed in the specific context, as in *fundamental differences between,* where attitudinal meaning is also intensified as being the most important instantiated by *fundamental*.

The quantitative stage of the analysis for the quest for the lexico-grammatical items that instantiated OCR revealed that it was a pattern frequently used in the two corpora. This can indicate the importance of the pattern to express different kinds of conflict inherent in the field. The structures can express differences, contrasts, criticisms, disagreements, discrepancies, rejections and many other resources of conflict evidenced and extracted from the two corpora

Although the observed frequency of the use of OCR in the PhD corpus was slightly higher than that of the MA corpus, the comparison of the two corpora yielded a Chi-Square that was far less than the critical value. Therefore, there was no statistically significant difference between the MA and the PhD corpora in terms of the frequency of the use of the lexico-grammatical structures that indicated OCR. As a result, the two corpora took up the recurrent items that instantiated OCR with almost similar distribution. This can mean that the two corpora frequently made use of the OCR structures to establish a conflictual relation between entities, (parts of) ideas, schools of thoughts, methodologies, scholars and their propositions, and thereby to realize AC in the discipline.

It was found that OCR at times can be contractive rather than expansive as no room was left for alternative points of view. It can also function as a separating strategy that sets the two points in conflict and makes a disparity between them. Moreover, it can be at the service of expressing the relation between the two parts of a dichotomy when the two parts of the dichotomy are contrasted and are set in opposition to each other by the OCR as in: 'during the unfamiliar **as opposed to** familiar tasks' (ICF, p. 45), where OCR is instantiated by 'as opposed to'.

As an important finding in the study, OCR is consonant with one of Gianoni's (2005) overt strategies that identified points of conflict and negatively evaluated the ideas. However, the lexico-grammatical structures that instantiated OCR and realized AC were found to be both frequent and varied. Therefore, the results of the current study with its numerous items can be considered as an expansion to Gianoni's findings with its limited items.

With regard to *displacement*, the current study found that *displacing existing claims* was instantiated when an idea, proposition, or an entity displaced / replaced claims made by others in the light of new knowledge in the field or a better consideration of the factors involved. Academic Conflict was realized when the text presented an alternative rival idea to *eradicate* the earlier idea/proposition/entity and also to *displace* it by the newer, better, or more advanced one.

By displacement, earlier and current results or approaches were compared more antagonistically, with bringing competition to an extreme degree. Therefore, new knowledge displaced claims made by others. It was found that the replacement could be *actually* taking place in reality or, at times, *hypothetical* (not yet actualized), which would contrast two different states for the same phenomenon and eventually take sides with one rather than the other.

Quantitatively, the quest for the lexico-grammatical items that instantiated *displacement* revealed that the observed frequency of the use of the structures to indicate *displacement* in the MA corpus was more than that of the PhD counterpart, and the Chi-square obtained was more than the critical value. Therefore, there was a statistically significant difference between the two corpora in terms of the frequency of the use of the lexico-grammatical structures that indicated *displacement* in different areas in the discipline. This can mean that the MA textbooks tended to use such items more frequently than the PhD ones, to show that there are stronger or better propositions that can replace the existing claims.

The current study found that the two corpora used the pattern to present an alternative proposition that replaced another proposition and AC was thus realized between the two ideas. **Replacement** in the two corpora could be expressed by lexico-grammatical items such as *instead (of); replace; transform; rephrase; change; substitute; alternative; deconstruct; dethrone;* and *eliminate* (to name just a few).

To oppose (parts of) propositions/ideas in the discipline, the writers used the lexico-grammatical elements that would readily bring forth the opposing and the opposed ideas. They would indicate the relation between the two and also express the type of stance they adopted concerning the idea opposed. That is, the writers would deploy specific lexico-

grammatical elements to express the two opposing ideas and simultaneously settle the overall relation between the opposing idea and the one opposed. This way, they realized Academic Conflict between two ideas/propositions in a given field in the discipline.

The study can assist the academic discourse community to know the recurrent lexico-grammatical patterns used to oppose others; contradict and contrast ideas; reject, deny and refute propositions; criticize entities or propositions and thereby accomplish presenting various ideas in different parts of the textbooks.

Academic Conflict casts light onto the ways to explore how to assess and reject the whole idea or part of it in a textbook. By the lexico-grammatical elements that express OCR, the relation reported is one of conflict rather than praise or confirmation. This is an introduction for the alternative view to convey from the onset that there are at least two ideas that are *in conflict with* each other, in a way that the text can later point to the faults, or weaknesses of one; pave the way to eradicate the existing claim which is erroneous; and finally *replace* it with another alternative idea which is supported by convincing evidence in a given area in the specific field under scrutiny.

In other words, by using the recurring lexico-grammatical patterns of academic conflict, it would be possible for the members of the academic community to set various points in opposition; to consider both sides of an idea; to see a topic from various angles; to acknowledge other (opposing or different) opinions and then to evaluate them; to counter-argue; to refute some; to rebut others; and finally to take sides in favor of the best, the most improved, the most developed idea relative to any recent point in time. As Eggins (2004) puts it, the meaning of each sign in language 'comes largely from what it is not' (p. 189). In other words, as Eggins (2004) illustrates, 'part of knowing what [something] is involves knowing what [it] is not' (p. 190). More technically, we can say that 'part of the meaning of a linguistic sign is in the oppositions it enters into' (Eggins, 2004, p. 190). Therefore, in order to better understand the entities and phenomena in the discipline, writers employ rhetorical strategies such as displacement or OCR among others to instantiate such oppositions.

Finally, acknowledging the point that OCR and displacement are just two of several strategies/ patterns identified for Academic Conflict (Majidzadeh, 2017), the results of the current study are consonant with Hyland's (1997) statement that conflict and rivalry are forceful incentives to both individual discovery and collective criticism. This means that the lexico-grammatical items that instantiate OCR and Displacement act as an impetus for evaluating existing ideas. This in turn acts as an incentive to think of alternative ideas that can well be supported by ideas and evidence in specific fields and thereby construct knowledge in the discipline.

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Appendix A

Rhetorical Strategies Encoding Academic Criticism

Rhetorical Strategies Encoding Academic Criticism	
covert, indirect strategies	**overt, direct strategies**
1. Having Hypothetical criticism	6. Signaling or filling a gap
2. Taking a skeptical stance	7. Displacing existing claims
3. Offering interpretations	8. Using comparative evaluation
4. Using Logically implicit criticism	9. Identifying points of conflict
5. Making recommendations	10. Describing specific faults or failures
	11. Stating general objections

Note. Adapted from "Negative evaluation in academic discourse: A comparison of English and Italian research articles," by D. S. Giannoni, 2005, Linguistica e Filologia, 20, 80-81.

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Gendered Patterns in Teacher-Student Interaction in EFL Classroom: The Greek Context

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The present research endeavours to shed light on the role that gender plays in the language classroom in the Greek context. As no systematic investigation has considered special aspects of gender and interaction in primary school classrooms, this study seeks to investigate how teachers and students position themselves within different discourses in EFL classroom interaction. The issues discussed include turn-taking and interruptions, praise and reprimand, class dominance, teacher attention and class participation in classroom interaction. Drawing on language and gender research, it was hypothesized that gender of the learner affects the learner's language use and behaviour during EFL interaction. This study advances our understanding of gendered classroom interaction and highlights important ways in which students' gender influences teacher-student, as well as student-student interaction. Moreover, this study sheds light on gender bias which occurs in the classroom and thus impedes teachers' abilities to work successfully with all students. The Greek data revealed great similarity with findings of previous studies by supporting the assumption that: (a) teachers are biased in favour of boys, especially with respect to giving them more attention; (b) male students demand more teacher attention and more instructions from the teacher than their female peers; (c) female students are more likely to receive praise and positive comments, whereas male students are reprimanded by the teacher; (d) male students are more active in class participation, by taking more turns, volunteering and calling out.

Keywords: gender differences, interaction patterns, gender bias, classroom discourse, difference theory

Owing to a vast and undoubtedly increasing amount of research on gender theories in the language area, the field of language and gender has become 'one of the most lively, sophisticated, and interdisciplinary areas of linguistic inquiry' (Pavlenko & Piller, 2001, p. 2). One particularly popular question has been the extent to which men and women use language differently. This popularity stems, in part, from the fact that language is an inherently social phenomenon which provides insights into how men's and women's language use can affect their social worlds (Zendedel & Ebrahimi, 2013).

Due to the fact that language is a social phenomenon, it is strongly influenced by social and cultural factors such as gender, age, educational level, social level and so forth. Discovery of the existing relationship between language and linguistic variations is commonly provided through the examination of linguistic and social differences. The study of gender is important to the study of language and the first step to study gender is to explore the difference between men and women.

Our research deals with classroom interaction, which has always been an interesting and a fruitful subject of study (e.g., Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975; Mehan, 1979; Drew & Heritage, 1992; Nassaji & Wells, 2000; Cazden, 2001; Seedhouse, 2004; Walsh, 2006; Lee, 2007; Constantinou, 2008) because communication in the classroom always differs from communication in a normal social setting. Moreover, when interaction is considered from the point of view of gender in the EFL classroom (e.g. Sunderland, 1992, 1994, 1998, 2000, 2001, 2006; Swann, 1992; Lindroos, 1995; Goddard and Patterson, 2000), it can be extremely fascinating and useful because potential gender differences influence

the academic and social lives of students.

Through this exploration, we hope to make a substantial contribution to the field of research on gender bias in the EFL classroom by uncovering several findings with important implications for our understanding of gendered classroom interaction and by highlighting important ways in which gender influences teacher-student, as well as student-student interaction, in Greek primary schools. Therefore, this study is up-to-date, practical and claims to offer benefits to the emerging research on classroom interaction.

The study was undertaken in order to investigate and to reveal whether there are any correlations between gender and linguistic behaviour of fifth grade learners. Qualitative research was considered appropriate for this study in the particular EFL classroom setting as far as it occurs in natural settings where human behaviour and events occur.

Materials

There are three main theoretical approaches within language and gender studies: dominance theory, difference theory and diversity theory (Cameron, 2005). Dominance theory emphasized how growing up in a patriarchal society essentially predisposed females as subordinates and males as the dominant group and set out to explore how this unequal social arrangement was both reflected in, and reinforced by, language (Cameron, 2005).

Difference theory, on the other hand, broke away from concentrating on male's domination over women and ascribed gender differences in speech to the distinct socialization patterns of girls and boys (Cameron, 2005). It has been observed that girls and boys prefer to spend their time with same-sex children from a very early age (Eckert & McConnell-Ginet, 2003). This same-sex preference observed in playgroup and friendship formation brings about two distinct subcultures of males and females, each of which develops its own group norms and practices (Tannen, 2001). Girls' groups are built on cooperation, whereas boys' groups are greater in size and display a hierarchical organization, and these differences manifest in language use as well (Tannen, 2001). The difference approach rejects the idea that everything women say reflects their lack of power and confidence (Cameron, 2005).

The third theoretical approach within the study of language and gender is diversity theory, which radically differs from the previous two in several ways. First, it questions the distinction of sex and gender, claiming that similarly to gender, sex is a social construct as well (Cameron, 2005). Second, it problematizes the practice of handling men and women as two distinct but internally uniform groups (Cameron, 2005). Consequently, the emphasis is put on revealing the many types of existing gender identities and sexualities.

Our study will adopt the difference theory approach because our research has taken place in classrooms. Within the classroom, students have equal rights and opportunities: therefore, gender differences cannot be interpreted as reflections of a hierarchy that positions male students as dominating over females. Moreover, the dual categorization of students as male and female is usually the most that is done in the area of learner differences (Chavez, 2001). This ignores the diversity theory's claim that considering gender as a binary category is problematic. Therefore, we will use the category of gender as distinguishing two groups, male and female, whose linguistic behaviour displays systematic differences that are worth investigating.

Methods

The main goal of this study is to fill a gap in the research of gender in the language classroom in the Greek context by investigating and determining whether the gender of the learner affects the learner's language use and behavior during EFL classroom interaction in primary schools in Greece, particularly in the city of Thessaloniki. The study looked at the various interaction patterns in each of the classrooms, and whether teachers used different patterns with children based on their gender. Through this exploration, we hope to make substantial contribution to the field of research on gender bias in the EFL classroom by uncovering several findings with important implications for our understanding of gendered classroom interaction and by highlighting important ways in which gender influences teacher-student, as well as student-student interaction, in Greek primary schools. Therefore, this study is up-to-date, practical and claims to offer benefits to the emerging research on classroom interaction.

Based on the purpose of the study, the following questions were used to guide the research:

Research question 1: Are there any gender differences as far as class turn taking and interruptions are concerned?

Research question 2: Are there any gender differences in receiving praise and positive comments?

Research question 3: Are there any gender differences in getting blame and reprimand from the teacher?

Research question 4: Are there any gender

differences with regard to student dominance in EFL classroom interaction?

Research question 5: Are there any gender differences with respect to demanding and getting more teacher attention?

Research question 6: Are there any gender differences regarding class participation during EFL classroom interaction?

Research Participants

In order to achieve more generalizable results, it was considered necessary to carry out the study in as many schools as possible. An adequate range of sampling was, consequently, needed which could provide enough data to allow us to draw evidential conclusions. A sample of 81 students and 70 teachers was selected, aiming at collecting enough data to reach generalizable conclusions. Students from four different classes participated in the study, all of them fifth graders. The particular age was chosen as students at that age have already been exposed to EFL for at least three years and thus had attained quite a good level of English.

All teacher participants were Greek who taught English as a foreign language, with ages that ranged between 30 to 45 years. All the participants were informed about the purpose of the researcher's presence in the classroom (though not the exact research area of our study) and all of them agreed to be observed. They were told that mainly teacher-student interaction patterns would be observed during their classes, but not specifically gender differences in these patterns. Participant information was kept anonymous in order to respect the personal beliefs of the participants as well as to ensure confidentiality of the data (Creswell & Clark, 2007).

Procedure

The questionnaire was selected as a useful research instrument because, although it is time-consuming and labour-intensive in design and analysis, it exhibits several advantages. First, the responses are collected in a standardized way, so questionnaires are more objective, certainly more so than interviews (Milne, 1999). Second, information can be collected from a large sample. Moreover, they are simple to administer, they should be simple and quick for the respondent to complete and they are usually straightforward to analyse. Furthermore, data entry and tabulation for nearly all surveys can be easily done by using software packages. The questionnaire was designed to elicit data in relation to the extent, pattern and nature of gender differences in language use and behaviour in classroom and classroom interaction in general. To this aim, the questionnaire was divided into two parts: Part I elicited demographic information and Part II provided information on gender and linguistic behaviour of students. The questionnaire was administered in English, as it was the language of instruction in the EFL classes used as research settings. It consisted of 23 items of which 10 were Yes/No question items and 12 items were multiple choice questions with four choices (male, female, both and no answer). The questionnaire template designed for this study is given in the Appendix. All questionnaire items aimed to elicit respondents' opinion and attitudes to main gender issues. Only one open-ended item was employed which sought to elicit comments and remarks related to gender issues in EFL class.

Results and Discussion

Based on the results of our study, it can be concluded that female students are at a disadvantage in the foreign language classroom by receiving less attention from the teacher than that given to boys. In the early work in this area, Brophy & Good (1970) observed that boys have more interactions with the teacher than girls and appear to be generally more salient in the teacher's perceptual field. This gender imbalance has led to some relatively extreme claims, especially by writers approaching the issue from a feminist perspective. Perhaps the best-known work in this tradition is that of Spender, who writes of boys receiving, "[s]o much more attention from teacher than do girls'' (Spender, 1982, p. 54). Spender also claims that gender imbalances are so routinized and expected in classrooms that even when teachers are trying to equalize attention, girls get only just over a third of the teacher's time (Spender, 1982).

With regards to gender differences in turn-taking, the findings suggest that male students take more turns in classroom interaction, and as to the frequency of interruptions, male students interrupted more frequently in teacher-student interaction as well as in peer interaction, which confirms previous findings (Holmes, 1995; Chavez, 2001).

However, the significant gender difference in the present study does not lie in the frequency but rather in the functions of interruptions. The notion that women behave cooperatively in conversations as opposed to men's competitiveness (Tannen, 2001) has been confirmed by the functions for which male and female students used interruptions. Regarding the gender difference in cooperative interruptions, an interesting result found in the present study is that female students used interruptions mainly for cooperative reasons, such as providing assistance

or expressing agreement, whereas male students interrupted intrusively with the aim to gain the speaking floor or to express disagreement. Moreover, another interesting result is that the interruptions are more frequently initiated between opposite-sex speakers than between same-sex speakers, which had not been seen in previous work. Most of the cooperative interruptions were instances of mistimed (either early or late) answers to the teacher's questions. The following excerpts illustrate a mistimed answer:

Excerpt 1

M1: (reading) The criminal which was arrested had robbed a bank.
T: The criminal
M2: //Όχι which, who πρέπει να ναι. (It is not which, it should be who.)
T: Τί είναι criminal? (What does criminal mean?)
M1: εγκληματίας (criminal)
T: So …
M1: The criminal who was arrested had robbed a bank.

Excerpt 2

T: Look, there is a difference between travel and trip. What does travel mean? Travel means
M1: //ταξιδεύω (to travel) δεν είναι;
M2: //Should we hand the copies now?
T: Wait a moment, please, George!

In these excerpts we can see that the teacher's question is not immediately followed by an answer and the first answer only arrives when she already goes on to answer her own question. Consequently, the teacher is interrupted. Tannen (1983 and later work) proves that interruption can have a cooperative function, which is considered to be a way of indicating that one is interested in, enthusiastic about, and highly involved in the conversation Here, in these excerpts, mistimed answers are categorized as cooperative interruptions, because replying to the teacher's question signals a student's involvement and cooperation in interacting with the teacher, regardless of whether the reply arrives early or late. In this sense, the mistimed answers are similar to what Li (2001) calls 'assistance interruptions', which are aimed at helping the current speaker who is in need of either a word or an idea. Of course, the kind of assistance the teacher needs is not in connection to language problems but rather to the smooth flow of the lesson for which student cooperation is essential.

Besides cooperative interruptions, there are instances when students started talking without the teacher explicitly asking or expecting them to do so, therefore these instances are categorized as intrusive interruptions. The following excerpts from our data are examples of intrusive interruptions:

Excerpt 3

T: So, you will have Exercise 3, 4, 7…… and 8 for home
M1: //Look, Exercise 3 is on prepositions. We put in, on, at, under.
T: Yes, exactly.
M1: And we have to match sentences in Exercise 4 … με το νόημα (with meaning).
T: Yes, thank you.
M2: //Πρέπει να το γράψουμε κυρία; (Should we write them down?)
T: No, we are going to do it orally. Have you written them down in your copy?
M2: Τώρα, τώρα κυρία. (now, Miss)

Excerpt 4

T: Αυτή τη στιγμή τα παιδιά παρακολουθούν τηλεόραση. (The children are watching TV now.)
M1: The children are watching TV now.
M2: Yes, we use watching, not looking, έτσι δεν είναι κυρία; (Isn't it so, Miss?)
T: Exactly.
T: Η Ελλάδα είναι μια όμορφη χώρα.
F: Greece is a very beautiful χώρα (country).
M1: Country, country! Είναι χώρα στα αγγλικά. (It's country in English.)
M2: Γαλλία (France) is also beautiful.
T: country. Correct!
T: Συναντώ τους φίλους μου κάθε Σάββατο, Αβραάμ.
M3: I meet my friends every Sunday, σωστά κυρία; (correct, Miss?)
M1: //Saturday! Σαββάτο είναι Saturday στα αγγλικά. (It is Saturday in English.)

In excerpts 3 and 4, M1, M2 and M3 do not change the topic the teacher starts talking about, neither do they disagree, so their interruption qualifies as a floor-taking interruption, with the intent 'to obtain the conversational floor' (Murata, 1994, p. 389). The teacher's positive feedback 'yes, exactly, correct', which acknowledges M1's knowledge of prepositions in excerpt 3 and M1's and M2's knowledge of foreign words in excerpt 4, denotes that student contributions to classroom talk are highly valued, even if they are interruptive. In excerpt 4 we have a kind of interruption that is not related to opposition, instead it is primarily supportive and collaborative in nature. For example, according to James & Clarke (1993, p. 239), Edelsky (1981) finds that interruption is a signal of a high degree of involvement in conversation or task performance. Participants interrupt each other and talk simultaneously to develop an idea together and produce a joint answer to a question. The present study focused also on the interaction between the

teacher and both male and female students in terms of providing approval or disapproval (i.e. positive and negative feedback). In terms of the research question as to in what way the teacher reacts and gives feedback to her students' responses, some interesting conclusions can be made. The teachers used praise and reprimands in response to students' academic behavior regardless of the gender of the student, whereas in response to student's classroom social behavior they mostly used reprimands, usually addressed to male students.

Excerpt 5

T: (to a boy) I was going to give you a grade for participation. Where is your participation? It's going to drop.
M: But I speak good English. Wait a second! Don't clean the blackboard.
T: Ok, complete the sentence using Present Continuous Tense.
M: John is on the ladder. He is holding on with his hands.
T: Great! Good job!

Excerpt 6

T: Exericise A is to match the beginning of the sentence on the left with the correct ending on the rignt. Ελένη, ξεκίνα. (Eleni, begin)
G: (reading) When I grow up I really want to (pause)
F: //be a doctor. Έτσι δεν είναι κυρία; (Isn't it so, Miss?)
T: Yes, exactly, very good! Manoli, take out your book, otherwise you will leave the classroom!
M: Θέλω να μείνω! (I want to stay)
T: Ok, then read the next sentence.
M: (reading) Flying in a plane (pause) makes me feel nervous.
T: You are great! Good for you!

It is obvious in the excerpts illustrated above that in response to students' academic behaviour in excerpts 5 and 6 when male students provide grammatically correct sentences, teachers used praise statements ('Great', Good job', 'You are great', 'Good for you') and not disapproving comments, whereas in response to students' classroom social behavior they used reprimands ('Your participation is going to drop!', 'Take out your book, otherwise you will leave the classroom!'). In excerpt 5, the teacher's reprimand is in the form of a warning, that the student's grade for participation is going to drop and in excerpt 6 the teacher warns the student that if he does not behave properly in class, he will leave the classroom.

Regarding the interaction between the teacher and the students, significant differences are found in teachers' reactions to male and female students' responses in the classroom. Teachers seem to be in favor of female students especially in respect of encouraging them more and giving them more positive feedback as shown in the excerpt 7. This can be attributed to the fact that girls are more reluctant to speak, they are less confident, and thus experience what the literature calls ''loss of voice'' (Brown & Gilligan, 1992; Orenstein, 1994). This form of interaction between the teacher and the student is a key element in our research since the more the teacher addresses the student, the more involved the learner becomes and, according to Dornyei (2001), the more the student is required to become an active participant of an activity, the more likely he or she finds the learning situation stimulating, which is one of the most important issues in successful language learning.

Excerpt 7

T: Κατερινάκι, γράψε το πρώτο. (Katerinaki, write the first one.)
F: Δεν μπορώ κυρία, δεν ξέρω. (I can't, Miss. I don't know.)
T: //Μπορείς, έλα! (You can do it, come on!) It is not difficult at all.
F: (writing on the blackboard) You are not allowed to smoke on this airplane.
T: Και υπογράμμισε γιατί όλα που υπογραμμίζουμε μπαίνουν στο τεστ. Άντε αστέρι μου! (And underline it, because everything we underline will be in the test. Come on, my star!)
F: Υπογραμμίζουμε το smoke έτσι; (We underline to smoke, don't we?)
T: Yes, exactly! Well done! A very good job!

In the feedback in excerpt 7 the teacher does not accept the female student's self-criticism about her skills and abilities. Instead, she encourages her to complete the task, claiming that it is not difficult at all and that she can do it. Such behavior is expected to boost students' academic involvement in classroom interaction.

Furthermore, findings of our study suggest that male students are more likely than female students to be reprimanded during EFL classroom interaction for their inappropriate behaviour as shown below and this is in accordance with empirical evidence throughout the research literature (Wing, 1997; Younger et al., 1999; Francis, 2000; Jones & Dinda, 2004).

Excerpt 8

T: Άκη, διάβασε!
M: Σε ποιά σελίδα είμαστε κυρία; (Which page are we on, Miss?)
T: Γιάννη, σε παρακαλώ, συγκεντρώσου! (Yanni, please, concentrate!) Και σταμάτα να έρχεσαι σαν επισκέπτης, καλά αγόρι μου; (And stop coming in like a visitor, ok my boy?)

M: Θέλω να έρθω στο μάθημα. (I want to come to class.)

Another important focus of the current study is the examination of gender differences with regards to student dominance in interaction. Based on the findings of the observations in four classes, it was concluded that male students dominate the class more than their female peers.

Excerpt 9

T: Daddy is shopping and
M1: and buy some new dresses.
T: Παιδιά, ταιριάζει το νόημα; (Guys, does the meaning match?)
M2: Ναι, ναι, κυρία. (Yes, yes, Miss)
T: Καθόλου δεν ταιριάζει! (It doesn't match at all!) Ο μπαμπάς να πάει να πάρει φουστανάκι; (Daddy to go and buy a dress?)
M1: Ναι, για τη γυναίκα του. (Yes, for his wife.)
M3: for his wife, Miss.

On the whole, our results corroborate findings of previous studies, which show that in the discourse of Greek adults as well as in classroom discourse, women are dominated by men (Altani, 1992; Pavlidou, 1999; Makri-Tsilipakou, 2002). Girls' cooperative behavior is also observed in the classroom setting by Archakis (1992), who found that girls interrupt the teacher less often than boys, but also that most of the girls' interruptions are cooperative, whereas most of the boys' intrusions are of the dominant kind. Our analysis of interactions in EFL classroom, as in Archakis' (1992), yielded that girls participate to a lesser extent in dialogues with the teacher, but also they develop less verbal initiative in class than boys. For the most part, as our findings show, the negotiation of positions of power in teacher-student interactions is related to the gender of the students. Male students in the conversational episodes of these data exhibit a strong tendency to preserve their independence, resisting female students' efforts to dominate both the exchanges and the activities.

The study also sought to find out whether male and female students demand and receive differential teacher attention in class. Our findings corroborate those of previous studies (Brophy & Good, 1970; Stanworth, 1981; French & French, 1984; Sadker & Sadker, 1994; Younger et al., 1999; Duffy et al., 2001; Tsouroufli, 2002; Swinson & Knight, 2007) by supporting the assumption that male students tend to ask more questions in class and are more likely to offer contributions to discussion. As a result, they receive more attention from the teacher and are addressed more often regardless of whether they raise their hand, as seen in the example below. Some possible explanations for this might be that boys tend to be more active and willing to speak, and that they are not afraid of takings risks when it comes to speaking. Moreover, the need for disciplining male students seems relevant as well, which might contribute to boys having more chances to speak and get attention.

Excerpt 10

T: Please, sit properly and get ready for the lesson. Alex, you too, turn around and get ready.
M1: Κυρία, δεν έχω το copybook εδώ. Στο σπίτι το έχω. (Miss, I don't have my copybook here. I have it at home.)
T: Have a look, maybe it's there.
M1: Όχι κυρία, το έψαξα. (No, Miss, I have searched for it.)
M2: Ούτε εγώ το έχω. (Neither have I.)
T: Κάθε φορά το ίδιο Άγγελε. (Every time the same situation Aggele.)
F: Can I read, Miss?
T: Yes, please, Maria.

Furthermore, it should be pointed out that the teachers in our study seem to be unaware of the fact that they pay more attention to male students. Thus, while we acknowledge that teacher bias can be responsible for more attention being provided to males, we can assert that "remediation of male biased teacher attention" (French & French, 1984) alone may not be sufficient to achieve a change in interactional bias favoring male students. As French & French (1984) state, teachers must also become sensitive to the interactional methods used by students themselves (in this case largely boys) in, "securing attention and conversational engagement", and that in the main the strategies female students use remain 'invisible' to teachers (p.133).

In addition, this study provided valuable insights on whether class participation on the whole is gender differentiated in classroom interaction. In our study we find a clear trend: male students participate in classes more than females do and the results are in line with previous works (Brooks, 1982; Wingate, 1984; O'Keefe, 1987; Banks, 1988; Crawford, 1990).

Excerpt 11

T: Now please, Maria, complete the passage with the correct form of the verb in brackets, using the causative form of the verb, ok?
F: King George had the outside of the Palace (design) designed in Indian style and he had the inside (decorate) decorated in Chinese style.
T: Ok.
M1: Κυρία, preposition in θέλει εδώ ναι; (Miss, it requires preposition in here, doesn't it?)
T: Yes! You are very attentive. Repeat, please. In
M1: //in Chinese style

M2: επίσης (also) in Indian style
T: Correct.
M1: Και όταν λέμε δύο φορές του χρόνου λέμε twice a year, not twice in a year, yes? (And when we say δυο φορές του χρόνου, we say twice a year, not twice in a year, yes?)
T: Exactly.

Moreover, findings of the present study indicate that teacher's choice of which student will participate is gender differentiated and favors male students.

Excerpt 13

T: What's a wheel? You, please, Leonidas.
M1: Εγώ, κυρία; (Me, Miss?)
T: Yes, you, please.
M1: ρόδα (wheel)
T: Could you please repeat what you said and its equivalent in English?
M1: ρόδα είναι (is) wheel
M2: //Να κάνουμε με τη σειρά κυρία; (Let us do it in turns, Miss).
T: Yes, please.
M2: They never stay at the same town for more than a week.
T: So, what time expression do we use here? And what other time expressions do we know with Present Simple?
M2: We have never here. We also know sometimes, always, often.
T: Thank you, one more please.
M1: Sorry?
M3: Η δασκάλα λέει μια ακόμη. (The teacher says one more.)
M1: Α, τώρα το κατάλαβα. (Now I got it.)

These findings support the results of studies by Sadker & Sadker (1985) and Swann & Graddol (1988). Interestingly enough, questionnaire data do not indicate statistically significant gender differences regarding students' class participation, showing that teachers' treatment toward male and female students is not gender specified. Nevertheless, the observations suggest that this is not the case. Teacher respondents during our observations are biased in favor of male students when they select students for class participation. These findings are in accordance with the views of Constantinou (2008), who reported that "the overall ratio of teacher-student interaction favored males" (p. 29).

Limitations

Although the findings of this study contribute to research in gender bias in the EFL classroom, certain limitations should be pointed out. Due to the limited number of students and teachers compared with the total number of students and teachers in Greece, their views and opinions as well as the limited nature of the data (as for example the lack of videotaped data), the sample cannot be considered illustrative of the whole Greek primary school pupils' and teachers' community. However, the themes identified in the present study, and particularly the problems brought forward by the respondents as regards to gender differences in EFL classroom interaction, can outline some general matters of concern on gender issues in classroom interaction. In addition, they can definitely point towards certain directions and serve as helpful tools for other primary school teachers in Greece.

Moreover, the data for the present study is too narrow to allow us to draw any definite conclusions about differences in teachers' reactions to student's responses according to their gender, or to generalize teachers' negative behavior towards all male students. Furthermore, the preponderance of female teachers in elementary schools and the lack of male teachers especially in the early grades is by no means an issue only with this particular data set and remains a challenge to this field of research.

Despite its shortcomings, this study holds potential to fill an important gap in the current empirical knowledge concerning Greek state primary school students and language teachers' gendered behavior.

Conclusion

It is hoped that by investigating such important issues as turn-taking and interruptions, praise and reprimand, class dominance, teacher attention and class participation in classroom interaction, the present study contributed to raising teachers' and researchers' awareness of the importance of gendered behavior. It is suggested that our findings might help teacher training and teacher education programs, as these data and observations might inform the content of those courses.

While answering some important questions, this study introduced some new queries that need to be addressed in future research.

First, future studies should continue to explore the influence of teacher gender on interaction and relationship quality. An issue worth exploring would be a comparative study between male teachers' responses to the questionnaire and female teachers' responses.

Another recommendation is to conduct research on the perceptions of both male and female teachers regarding their attitudes to their students during EFL classroom discourse. Moreover, teachers need to

examine their own biases in order to best accommodate the needs of boys and girls and help all pupils reach their highest potential at school.

While not the focus of this particular study, potential future research may be carried out by expanding the sample to secondary school teachers, broadening the sample to include other content areas, attaining a better understanding of gender differences in the Greek classroom reality.

Furthermore, the Ministry of Education should provide training programs for teachers aiming to emphasize the importance of gender issues and raise awareness of educators regarding gender biases in classroom interaction. Such knowledge will help teachers improve their relationship with their students.

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APPENDIX A

TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE

The classroom is a place where inequalities between male and female students can be explored and challenged. Thus, my research deals with gendered patterns in teacher-student interaction in EFL classroom in Greek context.

I am particularly interested in the special insights, perceptions and experiences you have had on patterns of gender differences in teacher-student interactions.

Although the questions lead you in certain directions, please feel free to add ideas you think might be especially relevant from your point of view. Hope you will also find this occasion insightful or rewarding for yourself as well!!!

1. Who takes more turns (in the form of requests, disagreement, etc.) in your class?
M □ Both □
F □ Neither □

2. Who interrupts you more often in class?
M □ Both □
F □ Neither □

3. Who initiates more interactions with the teacher in your class?
M □ Both □
F □ Neither □

4. Who produces gender stereotypes in your class?
M □ Both □
F □ Neither □

5. Who do you have more instructional exchanges with in your class?
M □ Both □
F □ Neither □

6. Who gets more blame, disapproval from your part?
M □ Both □
F □ Neither □

7. Who dominates the classroom interaction time?
M □ Both □
F □ Neither □

8. Do you have a classroom monopoliser in your class?
Yes □
No □

9. Who do you give more power, space to talk in your class?
M □ Both □
F □ Neither □

10. Who demands and gets more teacher attention?
M □ Both □
F □ Neither □

11. Are there any gender differences in nonverbal behaviour in class?
Yes □
No □

12. Regarding teacher-initiated feedback who do you give more praise/positive comments?
M □ Both □
F □ Neither □

13. Do you select your students for class participation based on their gender?
Yes □
No □

14. Who receives more attention from you in your class?
M □ Both □
F □ Neither □

15. Who is better at learning English as a second language (producing correct linguistic forms in FL, verbal superiority in FL acquisition)?
M □ Both □
F □ Neither □

16. Do male and female students have different attitudes toward FL learning activities (speaking, reading, writing and listening)?
Yes □
No □

17. Are there any events in your classroom regarding gender differences that you think are attributable to the fact that you are male/female?
Yes □
No □

18. Has your attitude towards male/female students changed over the years?

Yes □
No □

19. Have you ever encountered gender discrimination in class from your students?

Yes □
No □

20. Do you use specific sitting arrangement for your male and female students in your class when they do pairwork or groupwork?

Yes □
No □

21. Do you have fixed ideas on gendered behaviour?

Yes □
No □

22. Some teachers report having management problems (e.g. overt disruption, challenging competence, lack of student participation, etc.). Have you had these because you are male/female?

Yes □
No □

23. Please add any comments/remarks related to the topic of my research.

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National Research University Higher School of Economics
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Abdullahi, M., & Salisu, M. (2017). University Of Ilorin Final Year Students' Experience In Practice Teaching Exercise. *Journal of Language and Education, 3*(3), 99-106. doi:10.17323/2411-7390-2017-3-3-99-106

University Of Ilorin Final Year Students' Experience In Practice Teaching Exercise

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Practice teaching is a vital aspect of the teacher preparatory program in teacher training institutions. This study examined the University of Ilorin final year students' experience in a practice teaching exercise. It made use of descriptive survey research design. The population for this study were all students of the Faculty of Education, University of Ilorin, Ilorin, Nigeria. The researchers' self-developed questionnaire with a reliability coefficient of 0.63 was used for data collection while the data collected were analysed using descriptive statistics of mean and standard deviation and inferential statistics of independent t-test. It was found that during the course of practice teaching exercises, student-teachers acquired skills which enabled them to use a variety of teaching methods, and instructional resources, improved their skills in tests construction, scoring and recording, built their teaching confidence and presentation, among others. However, student-teachers were faced with a number of challenges in the course of lesson presentation during practice teaching. It was, therefore, recommended among others, that student-teachers should not perceive their personality and logical presentation of instructional objectives as challenges but rather should embrace and exploit it to improve and widen their (cognitive) domains.

Keywords: education, teacher, teaching, practice teaching, experience, student-teacher

Teaching is an exciting and rewarding activity but like other professions it is demanding. It requires teachers to clearly understand what should be done to bring about the most desirable learning in the learners and to be highly proficient in the skills necessary to carry out these tasks (Kanno, 2013) Teacher education programs in consonance with various levels of education, i.e., NCE, B.Ed. and M.Ed., have been introduced at colleges and universities. All the teacher training institutions not only impart theoretical but also practical knowledge and skills in teaching different subjects to prospective teachers. At the end of the session, practice teaching is carried out as a practical application of the theoretical understanding about different teaching methods. It is generally of one-month duration (Yusuf, 2000).

Practice teaching is a vital aspect of the teacher preparatory program in teacher training institutions and in faculties of Education in the Nigerian universities (Okobia, Augustine, Osagie, 2013). According to Afolabi (2010), the objectives expose student-teachers to the essence of teaching and professional work in the educational sphere with the targets of student-teachers exposing to some sort of preliminary training, teaching methodology and the means of effective teaching. Overschie, Wayenburg, Vries, & Pujadas (2006) assumed that the positive aspect of the practice teaching is to give meaning to

accomplishment to student-teachers as they train to obtain ability, gain confidence and step up their class-organizing skills.

In the Colleges of Education and Universities (with an education program), practice teaching exercise is a compulsory course for final year students of the Faculty of Education. The practice teaching exercise is a 6-week program, which is a co-operative venture involving both the student-teachers and supervisors (usually academic staff of the Faculty of Education). The practice teaching exercise is the equivalent of industrial training in the Faculties of Engineering, Sciences and other professions. Subjects in curriculum and teaching methods offered in the Bachelor of Education program are intended to prepare student teachers in the pedagogical skills in specific subjects (Okobia, Augustine, Osagie, 2013). Lu (2010), as an educator, is of the opinion that the theoretical aspect concerns theoretical knowledge acquisition in the class while the practical aspect emphasises all the parameters of pre-service contact with the act of teaching in the class. Links between theory and practice are emphasized in education programs so that students can draw close professional links between the universities and the secondary schools where they are prepared to function as teachers (Okobia, Augustine, Osagie, 2013).

Yusuf (2006) considers that the knowledge and skills acquired are shown before examiners who provide feedback so as to enrich their practice before they are finally evaluated. According to Perry (2004), practice teaching is exciting but challenging. It is against this back-drop that this study examined the challenges faced by student-teachers during the practice teaching exercise. Although practice teaching is a vital component in teacher preparation, the practice teaching role is still dialectical among scholars and educators (Peker, 2009).

Materials

Practice teaching is the practical aspect of teacher education. According to the (UNESCO, 2002) practice teaching is an indispensable component of teacher education, which is capable of making the potential teacher fit well into the teaching profession. Jekayinfa (2001) noted that sound professional preparation is necessary for success in teaching. Teaching professionalism cannot be acquired overnight, it needs adequate preparation and practical work. Ulaah and Farouq (2008) considered practice teaching as the main quality control measure in the preparation of teachers. Adeyanju (2006) viewed practice teaching as an exercise that gives the teacher trainees opportunity of putting into practice all they have gained during their exposure to different principles and courses. It is the field that permits the application of the theoretical to practical.

According to Adesina (2005), practice teaching is one of the first innovations in teacher education. It is a compulsory course in all teacher preparatory programs. Practice teaching is a core aspect of teacher education, which is designed for training and testing the teacher trainees' mastery of teaching skills. Bhargava (2009) described practice teaching as a time when all learned concepts have to be applied in real life situations successfully. It provides improvement to teacher trainees in terms of forming positive attitudes towards the teaching profession, gaining teaching skills, applying theoretical knowledge to the instructional settings of the profession and professional proficiency. This is because student teachers gain their first teaching experience, which will be useful during their professional life. Cetin (2013) viewed practice teaching as the application of professional knowledge and understanding of the learners, curriculum, teaching and learning environment so as to promote learning. For teacher trainees to understand the relationship between theory and practice in teacher education, practice teaching has a crucial role to play.

Ulaah and Farouq (2008). pointed out that the new trends in teacher education programs focus on the investigation of the problems associated with the training of student-teachers. So, the study programs of teacher education are programmed to include interesting activities that provide students with a realistic experience for future teaching (Jones, Foster, Groves, Parker, Straker & Rutler, 2004).

However, Farrell (2008) declared that the most important factors that affect student-teachers' practicum experience are the cooperative teachers and peers who spend most of the time with the student-teacher. In this regard, Otuka (2008) reported that when student-teachers have high level of pressure during a practicum experience they do not engage positively in the teaching process. In addition to practicum stress, supervision and administrative work-load are examples of practicum defect issues. This study therefore, examined the practice teaching experience of the University of Ilorin Final Year students in terms of challenges and the panacea.

Methods

The general purpose of this study was to examine University of Ilorin final year students' experience in practice teaching exercise. Specifically, this study examined the skills acquired by student-teachers in

the course of their practice teachings exercise; the challenges encountered by student-teachers and the difference in the skills acquired; and challenges encountered by male and female student-teachers during their practice teaching exercise. The following research questions were answered:

1. What skills do student-teachers acquire during the course of their practice teachings exercise?
2. What are the challenges encountered by student-teachers in the course of their practice teaching exercise?

The following null hypotheses were postulated and tested:

1. There is no significant difference in the skills acquired by male and female student-teachers during their practice teaching exercise.
2. There is no significant difference in the challenges encountered by male and female student-teachers during their practice teaching exercise.

Procedure

This study made use of a descriptive survey research design. The population consisted of all the students of the Faculty of Education at the University of Ilorin in, Nigeria, with the target population all final year students in all the Departments in the Faculty of Education. A total number of 200 students were sampled using multiphase sampling techniques. At the first phase, a purposive sampling technique was used to select 400 level students in the first semester of the 2015-2016 academic session: this constituted the respondents as they had experienced and passed through the practice teaching exercise. At the second phase, a simple random sampling technique was used to select 20 students from each of the departments and the Institute of Education in the faculty and this made a total of 200 final year students sampled across all the nine Departments and Institute of Education in the Faculty. Researchers' designed a questionnaire structured in a four-response type, with strongly agree (SA), agree (A), disagree (D) and strongly disagree (SD), and a reliability coefficient of 0.63 was used for data collection. See Appendix A for the questionnaire items. Descriptive statistics of mean and standard deviation were used to answer the research questions while the hypotheses postulated were tested using the inferential statistics of independent t-test at the 0.05 level of significance.

Results

Out of 200 final year students that took part in this study, 110 (55%) of the respondents were male and 90 (45%) were female.

In answering research questions, a cut-off score of 2.50 was used as the baseline for determining participants' responses since the questionnaire items were structured in a four-response-type.

Research Question One: What skills do student-teachers acquired during the course of their practice teachings exercise?

As shown in Table 1, no item has a mean score below 2.50. This implies that during the course of the practice teaching exercise, student-teachers acquired skills which enabled them to use a variety of teaching methods and instructional resources, identify and apply an appropriate teaching method for a particular class, improved their skills in test construction, scoring and recording, built their teaching confidence and presentation, among others.

Research Question Two: What are the challenges encountered by student-teachers in the course of their practice teachings exercise?

As shown in Table 2, ranked first, second, up to the fifth are items whose mean scores are above 2.50. This implies that planning lessons from the work scheme, teacher's personality (Dressing & Emotion) was stressful during practice teaching the organization of knowledge which must be presented in sequential order, the logical presentation of instructional objectives during practice teaching as well as consistent writing of lesson plans were the challenges

Table 1
Mean and rank order of participants' responses on the skills acquired during the course of practice teaching exercises

SN	Items	Mean	Rank	Remark
4	I learned to use a variety of teaching methods	2.90	1st	Acquired
1	The exercise helped me identify and apply an appropriate teaching method for a particular class	2.89	2nd	Acquired
5	I learned to use a variety of instructional resources	2.83	3rd	Acquired
6	The exercise improved my classroom management skills through the feedback from the supervisors	2.69	4th	Acquired
7	The exercise improved my skills in test construction, scoring and recording	2.63	5th	Acquired
8	The exercise enabled me to identify students with learning difficulties and give special attention to them	2.60	6th	Acquired
2	The exercise built my teaching confidence and presentation	2.58	7th	Acquired
3	The exercise helped me to master the subject matter	2.56	8h	Acquired

Table 2
Mean and rank order of participants' responses on the challenges encountered during the course of practice teaching exercise

SN	Items	Mean	Rank	Remark
1	Planning lesson from the scheme of work is a challenge in practice teaching	2.59	1st	Encountered
12	Teacher's personality is stressful during practice teaching	2.59	1st	Encountered
6	Organization of knowledge presented in sequential order during practice teaching is tasking	2.56	2nd	Encountered
3	I can't present statement of instructional objectives logically during practice teaching	2.54	3rd	Encountered
2	Writing lesson plan adequately challenged me during my practice teaching	2.51	4th	Encountered
4	I do not usually present statement of behavioral objectives logically during practice teaching	2.47	5th	Not Encountered
5	Use of appropriate content (topic & sub-topic) during practice teaching is taxing	2.46	6th	Not Encountered
7	Indication of entry behavior during practice teaching is taxing	2.36	7th	Not Encountered
8	Planning for suitable students' activities during practice teaching is taxing	2.34	8th	Not Encountered
9	Indication of adequate lesson during practice teaching is taxing	2.30	9th	Not Encountered
10	Time allocated for subject during practice teaching is a great challenge	2.29	10th	Not Encountered
11	Handling individual differences during practice teaching is a great challenge	2.29	10th	Not Encountered

encountered by student-teachers in the course of their practice teaching exercise.

However, the logical presentation of behavioural objectives the use of appropriate content (topic & sub-topic), the indication of entry behaviour and planning for suitable students' activities during practice teaching exercise among others were not found to be challenges encountered by student-teachers in the course of their practice teaching exercise.

Hypotheses Testing

Hypotheses postulated were tested at the 0.05 alpha level.

Hypothesis One: There is no significant difference in the skills acquired by male and female student-teachers during the practice teaching exercise

Table 3 shows the t-value of 1.322 obtained with a p-value of 0.071 computed at the 0.05 alpha level. Since the p-value of 0.07 is greater than the 0.05 alpha level, the null hypothesis one is retained. This implies that there is no statistically significant difference in the skills acquired by male and female student-teachers during the practice teaching exercise.

Hypothesis Two: There is no significant difference in the challenges encountered by male and female student-teachers during the practice teaching exercise

Table 4 shows the t-value of 1.424 obtained with a p-value of 0.063 computed at the 0.05 alpha level. Since the p-value of 0.06 is greater than the 0.05 level of significance, null hypothesis two is retained. This implies that there is no statistically significant difference in the challenges encountered by male and female student-teachers during the practice teaching exercise.

Discussion

Findings from this study revealed that student-teachers acquired skills which enabled them to use a variety of teaching methods and instructional resources, identify and apply an appropriate teaching method for a particular class, improve their classroom management skills through the feedback from their supervisors, improve their skills in test-construction, scoring and recording, enable them to identify students with learning difficulties, build their teaching

Table 3
T-test statistics showing the difference in the skills acquired by male and female student-teachers the practice teaching exercise

Gender	N	Mean	S.D.	df	t_{cal}	Sig.	Remark
Male	110	2.245	1.323				
				198	1.322	0.071	**NS**
Female	90	2.121	1.041				

Note. Insignificance at p>0.05

Table 4
T-test statistics showing the difference in the challenges encountered by male and female student-teachers during the practice teaching exercise

Gender	N	Mean	S.D.	df	t_{cal}	Sig.	Remark
Male	110	2.352	1.232				
				198	1.424	0.63	**NS**
Female	90	2.003	1.021				

Note. Insignificance at p>0.05

confidence, presentation and improve their skills in the mastery of their subject matter. This outcome supports Jekayinfa, Yahaya, Yusuf, Ajidagba, Oniye, Oniyangi, & Ibrahim (2012) whose findings revealed that the skills acquired by the students from practice teaching enabled them to be more competent in their classroom instruction.

The results from this study revealed that the challenges encountered by student-teachers during the course of practice teaching exercise include lesson-plans from the scheme of work; organization of knowledge which must be presented in sequential order, teacher's personality (Dressing & Emotion) being stressful during practice teaching; logical presentation of instructional objectives during practice teaching as well as consistent writing of lesson plans. This latter finding agrees with Achuoye (2007), who found that majority of students-teachers having difficulties in writing lesson plans.

However, as revealed from the findings, the logical presentation of behavioural objectives, the use of appropriate content (topic & sub-topic) and the indication of entry behaviour and planning for suitable students' activities were not found as challenges encountered by student-teachers in the course of their practice teaching exercise. This outcome disagrees with Dagnew (2011), whose findings revealed that the presentation of behavioural objectives and the use of appropriate content were challenges encountered by majority of student teachers.

This study showed that there is no significant difference in the skills acquired by male and female student-teachers during the practice teaching exercise. The results also revealed that there is no significant difference in the challenges encountered by male and female student-teachers during the practice teaching exercise. This outcome is in line with Jekayinfa (2001) who found no significant statistical differences in the skills acquired and challenges encountered by student teachers based on gender.

Conclusion

Based on the findings from this study, it can be concluded that student-teachers acquired skills in the use of variety of instructional resources, adopting appropriate teaching methods for the classroom instruction, building of self-confidence and identification of variety of students with learning difficulties during the practice teaching exercise. It can also be concluded that among the challenges encountered by student-teachers during the practice are consistent writing of lesson plan with organization of knowledge which must be presented in sequential order, teacher's personality (Dressing & Emotion) being stressful during practice teaching as well as logical presentation of instructional objectives. In addition, no discrepancy or differences exists in the skills acquired and challenges encountered by male and female student-teacher during the practice teaching exercise.

Based on the findings and conclusion drawn from this study, it is therefore recommended that student-teachers should not perceive their personality and logical presentation of instructional objectives as challenges but rather should embrace and exploit them to improve and widen their (cognitive) domains. Student-teachers should understand and realize that consistent and up-to-date writing of lesson plans is a way to not only guide themselves as teachers, but also help in the logical and sequential presentation of their subject matters. University management should train the students before being sent to the field for teaching practice. Also, policy makers should extend the periods used for practice teaching in the Nigerian universities for effective training.

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Appendix A

Department of Arts Education
Faculty of Education, University of Ilorin, Ilorin
Questionnaire on University of Ilorin Final Year Students' Experience in Practice Teaching Exercise

Dear respondents,

This questionnaire was designed to elicit information on the purpose of this study. The information supplied will be treated with utmost confidentiality.

Yours faithfully
The Researchers

Section A: Personal Information

Instruction: Please provide answers to the items in the spaces provided or put a tick ( ) in the appropriate column.

Demographic Data

1. Gender: Male ( ) Female( )
2. Department: _____

Section B:

Instruction: Please tick the option as appropriate based on your experience during the practice teaching exercise on the following items:

SN	Student-Teachers' skills Acquired from Practice Teachings Exercise	SA	A	D	SD
1	The exercise helped me identify and apply an appropriate teaching method for a particular class				
2	The exercise built my teaching confidence and presentation				
3	The exercise helped me to master my subject matter				
4	I learned to use a variety of teaching methods				
5	I learned to use a variety of instructional resources				
6	The exercise improved my classroom management skills through the feedback from my supervisors				
7	The exercise improved my skills in tests construction, scoring and recording				
8	The exercise enabled me to identify students with learning difficulties and give special attentions to them				

No	The challenges faced by student-teachers during practice teaching exercise	SA	A	D	SD
1	**Planning lesson from the scheme of work is a challenge in practice teaching**				
2	**Writing lesson plans adequately challenged me during my practice teaching**				
3	**I can't present a statement of instructional objectives logically during practice teaching**				
4	**I do not usually present a statement of behavioural objectives logically during practice teaching**				
5	**Organization of knowledge presented in sequential order during practice teaching is taxing**				
6	**Use of appropriate content (topic & sub-topic) during practice teaching is taxing**				
7	Indication of entry behaviour during practice teaching is taxing				
8	**Planning for suitable students' activities during practice teaching is taxing**				
9	**Indication of adequate lesson during practice teaching is taxing**				
10	**Time allocated for subject during practice teaching is a great challenge**				
11	**Handling individual differences during practice teaching is a great challenge**				
12	**Teacher's personality (Dressing &Emotion) is stressful during practice teaching.**				

Appendix B

List of Departments

1. Department of Arts Education
2. Department of Social sciences Education
3. Department of Science Education
4. Department of Educational Management
5. Department of Counsellor Education
6. Department of Educational Technology
7. Department of Adult and Primary Education
8. Department of Human Kinetics Education
9. Department of Health Promotion and Environmental Health Education
10. Institute of Education

National Research University Higher School of Economics
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Gamifying Content and Language Integrated Learning with Serious Videogames

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New methods and approaches focusing on foreign language teaching are continuously being developed and applied in the classroom at different educational levels. The interest in raising learners' competences in foreign languages has been a fact in the last few decades. In this sense, approaches integrating the learning of non-linguistic content through a vehicular language that is not the learners' mother tongue have been widely used around the world. However, it seems that some benefits of those approaches integrating language and content could be further strengthened if the time of exposure to content and language was higher and if students were highly motivated to learn. To this purpose, this article suggests that serious videogames could be a suitable tool to provide learners with further teaching support and increase their motivation in a playful context and introduces a model that aims at gamifying and integrating content and language learning through serious videogames.

Keywords: videogames, CLIL, gamification, education, language learning

Methods and approaches for language teaching are constantly changing; one of the tendencies for language learning in the first two decades of the 21st century concerns the instrumental use of the target language to teach contents. The content and language integrated learning (CLIL) or the content-based instruction (CBI) approaches focus on fostering communicative situations in the classroom, in which the students' language acquisition process is unconscious. In this context, there is a clear division of opinions as it may happen in other research contexts. Some view these approaches with illusion and hope (Coyle, Hood, & Marsh, 2010; Dalton-Puffer, 2007; Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2009; Marsh & Langé, 2000), whereas others seem to reject them (Bruton, 2011; Marias, 2015; Paran, 2013). These opposite views suggest that there are some aspects in their implementation that could be improved and new and supportive alternatives would be beneficial in this field.

This article focuses on the use of serious videogames to give support to teaching language through content subjects as it is the case of CLIL and CBI; and our objective is to review the literature and explain how content and language based subjects can be integrated and gamified in tailored videogames. In this sense, videogames can be a means of useful support to learners since they provide students with further practice while they are engaged in an entertaining atmosphere. Dörnyei & Ushioda (2013) claimed that students learn better when they are motivated, both intrinsically and extrinsically. Thus, a positive attitude towards their own learning process would be beneficial (Lasagabaster, Cots, & Mancho-Barés, 2013). To this purpose, the use of videogames for educational purposes can be positive for students and the gamification of language and content learning could result in a breakthrough in the field of education.

Materials

The application of approaches based on the integration of language and content are increasingly present in schools and universities. The most usual approaches in this context are CLIL and CBI, whose

differences are insignificant and according to some authors near inexistent (Cenoz, 2015). CBI was first originated in the 1960s in some areas in Canada where both French and English are official languages, as well as other aboriginal languages. This approach focuses on teaching content in a foreign language, but none or little attention is paid to the L2 (Cenoz, 2015). On the other hand, CLIL was developed and spread in Europe in the 1990s and 2000s. This approach also focuses on teaching contents through a foreign language (Coyle et al., 2010); however, the main focus in CLIL may be placed either on the content, the language, or both at the same time (Massler, Stotz, and Queisser, 2014). Both approaches aim at fostering communicative situations in the classroom, in which the students' language acquisition process is unconscious (Marsh, 2008). The main difference between them is the flexibility of CLIL in order to balance its dual-focused nature and strengthen learners' acquisition of language and content when some linguistic flaws are detected. Thus, students in CLIL can be provided with language literacy support when necessary (Coyle, 2008). The purpose of this support is to enhance learners' acquisition of content in non-linguistic subjects.

These approaches help students develop communication skills, and intercultural knowledge, interests and attitudes towards the language and its speakers; and they also aim at enhancing language competence with a special focus on oral communication skills (Coyle et al., 2010; Marsh, 2002; Meyer, 2010). CLIL and CBI also provide students with comprehensible and meaningful input and opportunities to practice the new knowledge in real communicative situations (Marsh, 2002; 2008). According to Coyle (2007), these communicative situations connect communication, content, culture and cognition, creating a suitable scenario for learning foreign languages. As result, this context enriches the use of the language to express real ideas based on the contents exposed in the subject, being the communication authentic, varied, and relevant (Muñoz, 2007). Another key towards success when using these approaches is the way information is introduced to the students, which should be pleasant, avoiding stress and boredom (Krashen, 2011). Vygotsky (1978) stated that learning is pleasant when the student stays in the zone of proximal development. Krashen (1985) also developed this idea by referring to the need to provide students with tasks at a slightly higher level (*i+l*).

In the practice, teachers can make their lessons pleasant and comprehensible through experiments, involving interaction, reflection, and problem-solving among students (Skehan, 1998). In this context, videogames can be a real possibility to experiment in content and language based subjects, providing students with pleasant and comprehensible input. Moreover, videogames involve a playful atmosphere that entertains and engage students through their learning processes (Galloway, 2004). Thus, videogames can be a suitable tool for content and language learning since they extend the time of exposure to language and content and can provide further opportunities for practice (Roediger & Karpicke, 2006). In this sense, there have been some previous experiences in which videogames have been used for educational purposes. According to Michael Sutton in an interview (Costea, 2016), there is an emerging and growing market of tailor-made serious videogames addressed to companies and institutions, which require specific training programs. Their main customers are multinational private companies as well as governmental entities such as military, education or health services. These videogames are adapted to be played in computer and consoles and some of them also offer serious videogames to be played with smartphones. Similarly, other academic institutions have also developed some projects; in this sense, some examples of serious games applied to teaching languages have been shown in Tsalapatas et al. (2014), Johnson, Vilhjalmsson & Samtani (2005), Calvo-Ferrer (2013). Other experiences are also mentioned in Hainey & Connolly (2013), such as: Akcaoglu, (2011), Dourda, Bratitsis, Griva & Papadopoulou (2014), Pivec & Dziabenko (2004), Vos, van der Miejden & Denessen (2011). With the support of these previous experiences, the use of videogames for educational purposes seems to be a positive experience for students and it can be integrated in subjects dealing with content and language at the same time (namely CLIL and CBI) as well as with those in which content and language are introduced in isolation, as happens in more traditional methods. Having considered the information provided in this section, this paper focuses on reviewing previous research about how to gamify content and language based subjects in tailored videogames.

Methods

When talking about gamification, this involves any area that can be treated as a game. In this sense, games or videogames can be used for pedagogical purposes, these being known as serious games. For our purposes, this section focuses on determining the main features to gamify subjects based on the content and language integrated learning approach through the use of videogames. In this sense, the integration of content and language learning has been largely discussed during the last decade in Europe, especially since Marsh (1994) introduced CLIL, a similar approach to CBI as mentioned above. The implementation of CLIL is based on the '4 C' framework introduced by Coyle (2005). This framework aims at helping teachers to

obtain the appropriate design of the CLIL approach; and the '4 C' represent the connection among communication, content, cognition and culture (see Figure 1).

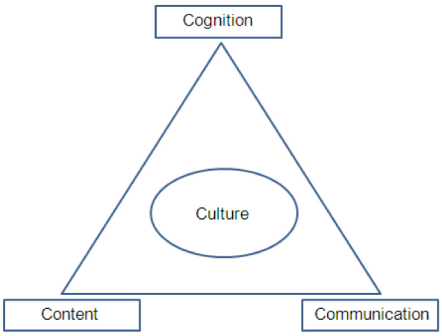

Figure 1. The '4 C' framework for CLIL. Adapted from "CLIL: Planning tools for teachers,"by D. Coyle, 2005.

The first item in this framework is content, which refers to the theme of a particular non-linguistic subject (e.g., math, history, science, music) and it is considered the main basis for learning. Learners need to acquire some particular knowledge and to develop some specific skills based on that theme. On the basis of the target content, the teacher will establish teaching aims and learning outcomes to determine the students' learning progression. The second item is communication and it focuses on the language that is used as the main instrument to communicate and learn the target contents. In this context, the aim of learning is to use the language; and its use to learn. This element is fundamental to transfer the knowledge derived from the content of the subject; thus the language needs to be clear and comprehensible for the students (Krashen, 1982). Coyle et al. (2010) suggest that students need to be competent with different facets of the language; these can refer to the language of learning (to access to concepts related to the topic), for learning (to operate in the classroom), and through learning (to face unplanned curricular and extracurricular situations). The third element that needs to be considered is cognition. Learners must develop thinking skills in order to link concepts, understanding and language by using their own interpretation of content. Cognition needs to be introduced through tasks that promote problem-solving and higher order thinking processes as suggested by Banegas (2013). At this stage, teachers are responsible to determine the thinking skills that learners need to develop. Bloom (1956) originally introduced his taxonomy of thinking skills with a list of the cognition demands ordered from lower to higher order. Anderson & Krathwohl (2001) updated this with the use of actions rather than processes, which seems to be more applicable with content and language integrated learning approaches (from lower to higher order thinking skills: remembering, understanding, applying, analyzing, evaluating, and creating).

The triangle formed by content, communication and cognition is complimented with culture. In words of Perez-Gracia (2014), cultural awareness is fundamental in the study of a language. Culture is a valuable source of knowledge to interpret citizenship and to create a feeling of understanding and tolerance among individuals from different backgrounds. It is also used to make students aware of the settings where the target language occurs and they then can extract information about their use in the language natural context.

In addition to the connection among the subject content, cognition, communication and culture, its success may also depend on other aspects that can be either internal or external. Some of the problems that may arise can be the lack of time, students' and teachers' motivation, materials or other resources. In this sense, the use of tailored-made videogames could be a possible solution to some of these problems. Videogames could support students with further content as well as repetitive activities and problem-solving tasks within a playful and engaging atmosphere that would motivate students to continue playing and, consequently, studying. In order to achieve this purpose, the '4 C' framework introduced by Coyle (2005) should be extended with the aim of integrating its components in a videogame. It shall also be noticed that there is a wide variety of videogame genres; each of them offer different ways of playing. However, each of these genres should be based on educational purposes; these are known as 'serious videogames'. Serious videogames are defined as 'a mental contest, played with a computer in accordance with specific rules that uses entertainment to further government or corporate training, education, health, public policy, and strategic communication objectives' (Zyda, 2005, p. 26). In addition to this definition, Malone (1981) had previously appointed a series of characteristics found in serious videogames, features also supported by other more recent authors:

- Clear meaningful learning and playing goals for the students (Gee, 2005; Warren, Scott & Jones, 2008);
- Students' feedback on their progress (Gross, 2009; Van der Kleij, Feskens, & Eggen, 2015);
- Adapted difficulty to the learners' skills (Alexander, Sear & Oikonomou, 2013; O'Brien, Edwards, Maxfield, Peronto, Williams & Lister, 2013);
- (Driskell, 2002; King, Delfabbro, & Griffiths, 2010);
- A suitable and attractive setting and design including the same features of non-educational videogames (Gallego-Durán & Llorens-Largo, 2015).

As it can be observed, there are a series of features that are related to teaching both qualitative and quantitative contents but also to entertaining students.

A videogame cannot be understood as such without the playful factor. This fact is what motivates students to play and consequently to learn (Dondlinger, 2007). In the field of education, fostering motivation among students shall increase their efforts to complete the task and promote their enjoyment during the gaming time (Gros, 2009). However, not all videogames are the same; they can be classified into different categories and these lists usually vary among authors (see Adams, 2013; Nowak, 2011; Rollings & Adams, 2003). For example, Adams (2013) introduced the following nine categories: action, action-adventure, adventure, massive multiple-player online (MMO), role-playing, simulation, strategy, vehicle simulation, and other miscellaneous genres.

Each of these genres contains noticeable differences in the way of playing; thus depending on the educational purposes and field of knowledge, some genres may be more suitable than others. In this sense, teachers should consider first the teaching and learning purposes and then decide how to play those educational purposes and select the most suitable genre for that purpose (Deterding, Dixon, Khaled, & Nacke, 2011). Once these decisions have been taken, the design of the videogame can be started; this is also known as gamification. This term is defined as 'a process of enhancing services with motivational affordances in order to invoke gameful experiences and further behavioral outcomes' (Hamari, Koivisto, & Sarsa, 2014, p. 3025). Similarly, another definition was provided by (Huotari & Hamari, 2011, p. 2); in this case gamification can be understood as 'a form of service packaging where a core service is enhanced by a rules-based service system that provides feedback and interaction mechanisms to the user with an aim to facilitate and support the users' overall value creation'. In the practice, Robson, Plangger, Kietzmann, McCarthy & Pitt (2015) suggested a model of gamification that contains three items: mechanics, dynamics and emotions (see Figure 2).

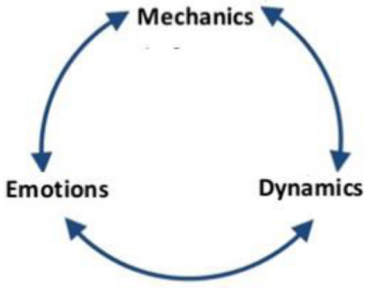

Figure 2. Processing gamification. Adapted from "Is it all a game? Understanding the principles of gamification," by K. Robson, K. Plangger, J. H. Kietzmann, I. McCarthy, & L. Pitt, 2015.

The first item in this model concerns mechanics: it represents the objectives, rules, setting, context, interactions, and boundaries within the game, driving the action forward and generating engagement (Werbach & Hunter, 2012). Mechanics can also be divided into three categories. Firstly, *setup mechanics* determine where it is to be played, what objects are needed for it, and how these are to be distributed. Secondly, *rule mechanics* shape the goals of the gamified experience. And thirdly, *progression mechanics* define the type of standings and rewards the player receives along the game such as badges, trophies, or winnings, amongst others. The following item in the model is dynamics; it configures the behavior of the players that participate in the experience. Werbech & Hunter (2012, p. 93) defined dynamics as, 'the big-picture aspects of the gamified system that you have to consider and manage but which can never directly enter into the game'. In other words, they describe how the rules act in motion, responding to player input and working in concert with other rules (Hunicke, LeBlanc & Zubek, 2004). Finally, the third item concerns the mental affective states and reactions evoked among individual players. Emotions provide the player with curiosity, competitiveness, frustration, or happiness, among other sensations. As result, players feel themselves emotionally engaged with the game and get involved in the story in the same way books or films do with their audience. Hunicke, LeBlanc & Zubek (2004, p. 2) introduced the following taxonomy to classify the type of emotions in the field of videogames:

- Sensation: Game as sense-pleasure
- Fantasy: Game as make-believe
- Narrative: Game as drama
- Challenge: Game as obstacle course
- Fellowship: Game as social framework
- Discovery: Game as uncharted territory
- Expression: Game as self-discovery
- Submission: Game as pastime

In addition to the process of gamification introduced by Robson et al. (2015), there are other elements that should be considered when designing serious games. These items provide the necessary educational items in serious videogames. They are engagement, autonomy, mastery and progression and they were introduced by Butler (2016).

- *Engagement:* Learners better get involved with the games if they provide storytelling, narrative and challenge; consequently they connect with the content. This connection to the content is much stronger when the game is set in a world and is clearly connected to learning. In this sense, students get connected emotionally with the outcome of the game, for example when a player is virtually hurt or their company loses money.
- *Autonomy:* Players are the protagonist and they

can take control and explore the virtual world at their own pace taking their own decisions. This favors an increase of the immersion level in their learning processes. Besides, players are also involved in a scene of mystery and suspense since they do not know what will happen next.

- *Mastery:* Learners gain mastery in both the game and the target content after repeating tasks and mechanizing actions. In turn, students are motivated with a sense of success and enjoyment after completing challenging levels.
- *Progression:* Learners can witness their progression through gaining rewards or points, achieving ranks, or unlocking levels among others. This motivates students to continue playing and learning until they win or fulfill the purpose of the game.

In sum, this section has introduced the steps for gamification following Butler (2016), Malone (1981), and Robson et al. (2015), among other authors as well as the principles of CLIL and the theories to integrate content and language (Cenoz, 2015; Coyle, 2005; Marsh, 2002). Having considered these ideas, this article focuses on the development of a possible model for the gamification of subjects and their materials in which content and language are integrated.

Discussion and Conclusion

As stated previously, education is continuously experimenting changes. In this sense, the integration of content and language subjects as well as the incorporation of serious videogames in the educational field have been some of the research tendencies occurring in the 2010s. It is unquestionable that the theories and implementation of any method or approach could be enhanced through innovative perspectives and tools. Thus, this article focuses on the possibility of combining serious videogames and content and language integrated subjects. To this purpose, this paper has introduced the principles of CLIL and CBI (Cenoz, 2015; Marsh, 2002) and the theory of the '4 C' to integrate content and language (Coyle et al., 2010). On the other hand, the characteristics of serious games and videogame genres have also been introduced (Malone, 1981; Adams, 2013). Lastly, gamification and the elements involved in the process of designing educational videogames have been defined (Butler, 2016; Robson et al., 2015; Webach & Hunter, 2012).

In this sense, considering all the ideas stated previously, this paper introduces a model that aims at integrating content and language learning with serious videogames. In other words, this paper focuses on the possibility to gamify content and language integrated learning (G-CLIL). This proposal could be used as a means of support to the in-class sessions, with the videogame used like a workbook. The use of serious games would increase the time of exposure to the language and content in an entertaining way out of school and it would also provide further opportunities to practice. Our model is divided into four stages and they are presented as a circle covered by three different layers and four additional items that are necessary for designing videogames (see Figure 3). This model must be interpreted from the inner circle to the outer layers.

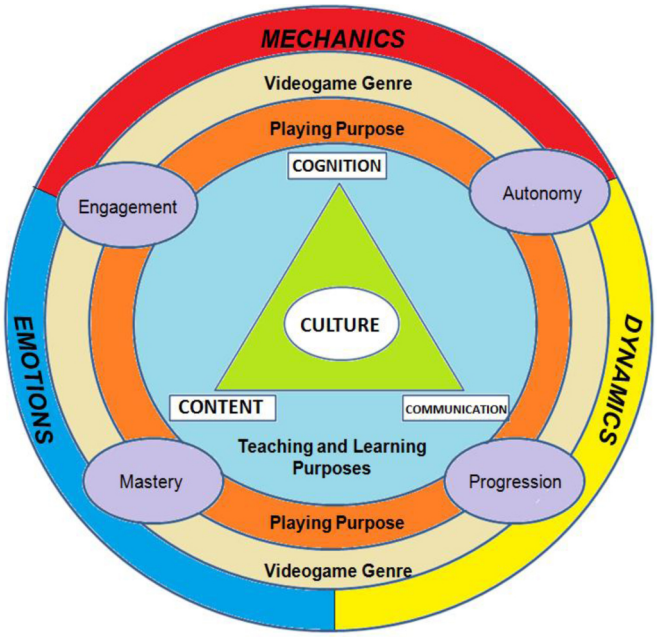

Figure 3. Gamification of content and language integrated learning (G-CLIL).

The first stage towards the gamification of subjects integrating content and language is the analysis of the '4 C'. This stage does not differ from the way in which these four items are integrated in CLIL and CBI for developing content and language subjects, as suggested by Coyle et al. (2010). This integration process concerns the determination of the teaching and learning purposes in which educators plan and arrange the type of contents and the language they want to teach. Once this stage has been completed, it is necessary to analyze how the subject (content and language) can be played. It is not the same to play math, history, music, or chemistry. Thus, it shall be necessary to do research on suitable games that can be applied to particular types of contents or language forms. For example, games about the subject of history can be based on adventures as well as in strategy or role games; whereas math can be played with operation or geographical puzzles, and physical education must

focus on sports or related material.

Once teaching and learning and playing purposes are defined, it is necessary to choose a videogame genre that can be suitable and adaptable to them. To this purpose, the list provided by Adams (2013) can be used; besides any sub-genre derived from the original ones or any combination of these can be also selected. For example, graphic adventures usually combine puzzles and ability. Next, it is necessary to develop the videogame mechanics, dynamics and emotions in order to continue with the gamification process, as suggested by Robson et al. (2015). In this case, this stage involves the development of the videogame itself: scenario, characters, goals, or awards, among others. In addition to these items, the final aim of a videogame is that this will be effective for learning and motivating to continue playing. To fulfill this goal, the four principles introduced by Butler (2016) must be considered for the design of serious videogames with pedagogical purposes. Consequently, autonomy would provide learners with opportunities to learn how to manage and problems individually. In addition, the repetition of tasks would help students to interiorize and master content and language forms. This learning purpose will be fulfilled if the videogame engages the students to continue playing; thus it is necessary to provide storytelling, narrative and challenge that connect with the content and the language that is targeted. This motivation is also related to the learners' progression along the videogame; setting objectives, goals and rewards is fundamental to create addiction.

With the implementation of this model for the Gamification of Content and Language Integrated Learning (G-CLIL), educators may find an interactive, entertaining, and engaging tool to support their students' learning. Through the use of videogames as support to their learning process, the time of exposure will increase, including further repetition of task and activities and it will help to motivate learners in their learning. Lastly, it shall be stated that the main limitation of this research is the actual complexity to design tailored videogames since they require work and collaboration among hybrid groups of researchers including language and content teaching experts as well as videogame ones. To this purpose, universities could offer their support to and coordination among experienced researchers in the field of foreign language and content learning and teaching as well as videogames with the goal of developing serious videogames aimed at supporting teaching materials. At the same time, further research on this topic could lead to determine the benefits of using videogames in content and language integrated learning and to assess its efficiency among learners.

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Second and Foreign Language Education is one of the ten volumes of the *Encyclopedia of Language and Education* published by Springer International AG in 2017. The volume is part of the third edition of the Encyclopedia and describes recent developments in language and education. Those reflect the internationalism and versatility of the field, according to the late David Corson who became the first editor-in-chief of the initially eight-volume Encyclopedia in 1997. With the 2nd edition in 2008, it expanded to ten volumes by adding new books on language ecology and language socialization.

The current 3rd edition overviews a wide scope of topics, including new trends such as the influence of migration, modification processes across the globe, the emergence of multilingualism, its educational implications and consequences, academic approaches to technology, virtual environments, multimodality, etc. The new edition aims to provide a most impressive outline, with authors contributing to the volume from all over the world.

The *Second and Foreign Language Education* volume (3rd ed.) has been thoroughly revised and updated to cover major themes, which are organized into four parts of the book: Part One. *Theoretical Underpinnings*. Part Two. *Current Approaches to Second and Foreign Language Education*. Part Three. *International Perspectives on Second and Foreign Language Education*. Part Four. *Teacher Preparation and Professional Development*.

Part One sets the stage for an exploration of theoretical base for second and foreign language education. In Part One headlined *Theoretical Underpinnings,* readers may find a chapter authored by Claire Kramsch and devoted to applied linguistics as a multidisciplinary field of research and the ways it explains the processes of acquiring, learning, studying foreign languages as well as the principles of foreign language education in our globalized world.

Sandra Lee McKay in the chapter *Socioliguistics and Language Education* shows the major strands of investigation in sociolinguistics (language variation, language contract, and language change) and discusses their pedagogical implications in the light of different language resources, different pragmatic norms, and linguistic diversity.

The next three chapters deal with varied theories related to second language (L2) learning (by Rebecca L.Oxford); potential relationships between bilingualism and the process of L2 acquisition (by Andrew Lynch); and the application of Vygotskyan and neo-Vygotskyan understandings of sociocultural theory approaches to various areas of L2 acquisition (by Amy Snyder Ohta).

Part Two *Current Approaches to Second and Foreign Language Education* comprises ten chapters and starts with the chapter, in which Friedericka L. Stoller and Shannon Fitzsimmons-Doolan dwell upon content-based instruction, an umbrella term, which refers to the multiplicity of learning objectives. The authors consider the spread of content and language integrated learning (CLIL) programs in various countries.

Martin East contributed a chapter on task-based language teaching (TBLT) and its evolution since the 1980s. Aimed at fostering real language use in L2 classrooms via learners' engagement in tasks, TBLT has yielded positive and consistent results in second language acquisition.

The chapter entitled *Professional Communication* by Britt-Louise Gunnarsson scrutinizes language for

specific purposes (LSP), which today is considered as a wide field, covering the general language system in response to specific professional needs and is often referred to as *professional discourse* or *professional communication*.

The reviewed book weighs up the advantages and disadvantages of CLIL in the chapter *CLIL: A European Approach to Bilingual Education* by Tarja Nikula. CLIL is regarded as a key element in the European Union multilingualism policy for bilingual education in Europe, with English or sometimes other languages serving as the language of instruction in non-language subjects. The contributor indicates that CLIL encourages a truly integrated view on language and content.

The chapter *Second Language Learning in a Study Abroad Context* by Celeste Kinginger outlines research into the phenomenon of studying abroad, which is widely explored in terms of holistic constructs (proficiency, fluency, skills). The author draws readers' attention to the key approaches to language acquisition while studying abroad and looks into potential future directions for research in this area.

The chapter entitled *Second Language Literacy Research and Curriculum Transformation in US Postsecondary Foreign Language Education* by Per Urlaub is concerned with switching the focus from oral proficiency to the development of literacy competencies. The contributor puts emphasis on the impact on curricula at the postsecondary level in the United States.

The subject of electronic portfolios in foreign language learning is widely explored in the chapter written by Mary Toulouse and Michelle Geoffrion-Vinci, who present its underpinnings coming from theory and methodology. The chapter brings to the fore the evolution of e-portfolio as a powerful and efficient tool in language study in the historical context over the past 20 years and suggests e-portfolios for assessment practices. The key challenges in e-portfolio implementation are outlined, including necessary changes in the current educational landscape, development of innovative technologies that facilitate portfolio distribution, the need for new pedagogical approaches and methodology based on e-portfolio as an alternative assessment tool.

The next chapter authored by Chantelle Warner touches upon foreign language education in the context of institutional globalization. The author makes a point about an all-rounded and far-fetching influence of globalization on foreign language education. The article provides a detailed account of key issues facing foreign language education at globalized institutions. Among those are the Culture and Language Across the Curriculum (CLAL) movement, the study-abroad practices, the information technologies in foreign language instruction, and the new literacy practices.

The chapter headlined *The Role of the National Standards in Second/ Foreign Language Education* is written by Sally Sieloff Mangan. The author is concerned with the theme of the goals for language learning set forth by the World-Readiness Standards for Learning Languages, which are known as the 5 Cs: Communication, Cultures, Connections, Comparisons, and Communities. The standards lay foundations for foreign language instruction in the USA. The article overviews issues resulting from over-emphasis on Communication and Cultures in instruction, a tendency for goal-oriented teaching, a limited range of assessment tools and others.

The chapter *Network-Based Language Teaching* (NBLT) authored by Richard Kern, Paige Ware, and Mark Warschauer outlines two trends in research on NBLT (interactionist second language acquisition models and sociocultural and socio-cognitive theories in NBLT). The article maintains that structure and goals of NBLT are rapidly changing. The research is also focused on online learning in non-classroom contexts and multimodality.

Part Two is extremely interesting and practical, since it sums up the changes brought about by the recent developments in second and foreign language education.

Part Three *International Perspectives on Second and Foreign Language Education* is organised into eleven chapters and provides a panoramic analysis of second and foreign language education in Australia (by Suzanne Fernandez and Margaret Gearon), in South Africa (by Nikonko M. Kamwangamalu), in the Middle East and North Africa (Mahmoud A. Al-Khatib), in Japan (by Ryuko Kubota), in Canada (by Margaret Early, Diane Dagenais, and Wendy Carr), in the Asia-Pacific Region (by Yuko Goto Butler), in the United States (by Olga Kagan and Kathleen Dillon; by Myriam Met and Adriana Melnyk Brandt).

Part Three starts with the chapter on *Learning and Teaching Endangered Indigenous Languages* by Leanne Hinton. The author argues that as globalization effects on languages and cultures are getting more pervasive, languages spoken by smaller populations are likely to become extinct. The author states that there is a counter-trend of language revitalization, which is spurred by bilingual education, immersion schooling and adult education programs.

Anne Holmen authored the chapter entitled *Parallel Language Strategy*. With globalization, researcher and student mobility, many universities in non-English speaking countries have extended the use of English as a medium of instruction and research cooperation. To avoid academic field loss in the national languages, universities seek to strengthen English as well as the national languages for academic purposes through so-

called 'parallel language strategy'.

Part Four entitled *Teacher Preparation and Professional Development* starts with the chapter *Overseas Training of Chinese Secondary Teachers of English* by Daguo Li and Viv Edwards. The authors describe continuing professional development for Chinese teachers of English under the current educational reform.

The Professional Development of Foreign Language Instructors in Postsecondary Education is a chapter by Linda von Hoene. As the title suggests, it highlights the trends and reforms in the field of professional development of teachers of English.

Virginia Zavala authored the chapter *Teacher Training in Bilinguial Education in Peru*, a country with 49 indigenous languages. The article outlines the ways of preserving an indigenous identity as well as a sense of community in this country.

The next chapter is of special interest to many researchers and teachers of English all over the world. It is headlined *Nonnative-Speaking Teachers of English as a Foreign Language* and written by Oleg Tarnopolsky. The chapter weighs up the advantages and disadvantages of non-native speakers as teachers of English. The author suggests ways of overcoming disadvantages, discussing how to make best use of all strengths of non-native English teachers.

The basic issues of *Task-Based Instruction and Teacher Training* are overviewed in the chapter with the same title by Klaus Brandl. The author takes a fresh look at some guidelines for teacher educators regarding the best teacher training practices.

The final chapter of Part Four and the volume is related to *Developing Instructor Proficiency in Oral Language Assessment* written by Margaret E. Malone. Drawing on examples of a changing language education paradigm, the author highlights that it is crucial to train teachers and refresh their knowledge and skills in language assessment.

Given its wide-ranging and rich content, the volume should therefore prove to be an invaluable and authoritative resource of professional information on various aspects of language education. The writing is clear and fluid, thus facilitating easy understanding of the content. The inclusion of a subject index would help the readers to locate issues of specific interest more easily.

Overall, the third edition of *Second and Foreign Language Education* is a comprehensive and valuable volume with substantial augmentations over the first edition that would certainly enhance the library of any linguist, university professor, language instructor and student of English.

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