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Editorial

Issue 4 of Journal of Language and Education presents a wide range of articles from around the world covering various topics in linguistics and practices of teaching English.

Japhet Akintoye Samson investigates a local implementation of National Policy of Education on the use of mother tongues or the languages of the immediate community in Nigeria. The research, based on a local case study, involved 50 teachers from private and public schools. The results obtained in this study showed that there are certain advantages of Yoruba medium of instruction over English even though most of the teachers preferred to employ a bilingual mode of instruction combining Yoruba with English. This was justified by the fact that English has better educational resources for the subject they were teaching.

The article of Taofeek Dalamu is devoted to a profound linguistic, sociological and semiotic study of the phenomenon of maternal ideology in the light of modern advertising mechanisms in Nigeria. The author of the article claims that the system of images and linguistic clauses used in the analysed 'MTN' adverts demonstrates various aspects of mother-daughter relationship and, therefore, has a positive influence on the corrupt elements of society. The author suggests creating a regulatory policy for professional advertising makers in order to advance positive values in the Nigerian society.

Tatyana Permyakova, Marina Sheveleva and Elizaveta Smirnova examine the motivation of university students to take BEC exams at the Cambridge Exam Preparation Centre located at a Russian university. The research was based on face-to-face interviews of 33 participants and focused on gender

and age distribution, reasons for choosing to prepare for BEC exam and obtain a certificate, candidates' expectations about exam results and perceptions of their degree of preparedness for the exam. The authors claim that candidates' attitude towards BEC exam is positive since it can help them to proceed to Master's programme and build up a successful career in future professional life.

Reuben O. Ikotun studies the expansion of words in Nigerian and also in Greek and Hebrew. The research is done on the basis of evidence obtained from Yorùbá drama books, recorded drama programmes, participant observation, and the New Translation version of the Holy Bible. The results of the study prove that since Yorùbá, Greek and Hebrew people see the world differently from English people there ought to be developed specialised dictionaries in order to facilitate the usage of English by non-native speakers.

In her article, Aida Rodomanchenko focuses on the analysis of roundtable discussions (RTDs) at tertiary level. Materials for discussions were designed for the purpose of evaluating students' subject knowledge and testing EFL/ESL proficiency level in classroom assessment and final examinations. The implementation of classroom discussions involved the development of specific criteria which included scoring of task completion, macro and micro skills in speaking and language components. Results of this research demonstrated that RTDs not only develop necessary language skills and encourage independent learning but also prepare students for their future professional career.

The paper by Julianah Akindele presents an analysis of the extent to which Educated Edo English

Speakers (EEES) stressed and unstressed syllable alternation conforms to the Standard British English (SBE) rhythm. The research is based on 150 EEES and 2 SBE speakers who served as Native Baselines (NB). Findings showed that EEES alternation of stressed and unstressed syllables in rhythm units differs from SBE form. The results are supported by extensive statistical analysis.

This brief synopsis of the papers constituting

this issue of Journal of Language and Education demonstrates a diversity of approaches and topics in the areas of linguistics and practices of teaching English. We hope our readers enjoy the selection of articles chosen for this issue and the book review prepared by Keith Rawson-Jones.

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A Survey of Teachers' Experience in Implementing Yoruba Medium of Instruction in the Lower Primary Schools of Ikire Nigeria

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The paper investigated the local implementation of the National Policy of Education (NPE) on the use of mother tongues or the languages of the immediate community. Using a case study approach of Yoruba medium of instruction in Ikire in the south-western part of Nigeria, data were collected from 50 teachers from both private and public schools. These respondents were selected on being able to satisfy the following conditions: first, they should be able to communicate in Yoruba; second, they should have adequate teaching experience; third, they should have good academic qualifications; and fourth, they should have been teaching, for more than a year, Elementary Science (the particular classroom subject the study examined being taught to the pupils). These conditions ensured the teachers engaged had cognate experience in teaching a science subject that can reveal the level of terminology development within Yoruba as an adequate medium of mother tongue instruction. The result affirmed the advantages of Yoruba medium of instruction over English; however, Yoruba was not exclusively used for the pupils contrary to the expectation in the mother tongue medium of instruction policy. Most of the teachers used in the study preferred to employ a bilingual mode of instruction combining Yoruba with English, claiming that English had better educational resources for the subject they were teaching. This paper, though, based on a local case study, can be used to estimate the expected limitation to be encountered while implementing mother tongue instruction in a similar linguistic domain.

Keywords: education policy, mother tongue instruction, teacher awareness, Yoruba, language in education

While the initial experimental implementation of the Nigerian mother tongue instruction policy in a university in South-West Nigeria recorded some success (Fafunwa, 1989), it is expected that comprehensive demographic information on the policy should have been made available for subsequent appraisal. However, such information is not readily available because the assessment of the implementation of the policy has not been quantified nation-wide. This paper seeks to provide a field-based feedback on which appraisal of a local implementation may be based. Due to limitation in resources, this research employed a local community-focused survey method using basic statistical tools to elucidate data to generate a working hypothesis on which a larger research can be based. This study is therefore a pilot study for researches

employing a wider scope.

National language policies on education are not uncommon in many African countries including Nigeria especially when such policies have to specify the language of instruction in schools and colleges (UNESCO, 1953; Bamgbose, 1991; Fafunwa et al., 1989; Fasold, 1997; Awoniyi, 1980; Alo, 1995).

In Nigerian, the (1989) revision of her 1977 National Policy on Education, (henceforth, NPE) stipulates that pre-primary and lower school instruction should be done mainly in the mother tongue (henceforth, MT) or the language of the immediate community (LIC). The policy requires that the chosen language should be taught as a subject and should be used the medium of instruction through which other subjects shall be taught at the lower primary level of education. The

policy was officially put to test in Ife Project¹ of 1970 with an impressive result (Fafunwa, Macualety and Sokoya, 1989).

However, there has not been any strict compliance with this national policy due to different reasons. On the part of the Government, non-implementation is usually thought to affect the minority languages. Some of the mother tongues are minority languages having less than fifty thousand speakers each. The children having a particular mother tongue may not even be in the same vicinity. They can then become inaccessible to the project. Then the training of teachers that will teach the children can also be difficult to come by. Many of these minority languages have not even been reduced to writing. In order to discuss issues adequately in various fields, it is necessary to have broad literature, textbooks, teaching materials and well-developed terminologies in the mother tongues already codified. The present paper will take a different position on the matter by establishing the fact that non-implementation of the NPE affects both the majority and minority languages as evident in the case of Yoruba discussed in this paper.

The Linguistic situation of Ikire

Ikire is situated at 7.35° North latitude, 4.18° East longitude and 228 metres elevation above the sea level. Ikire, the headquarters town of Irewole Local Government Area in Osun State, has 222,160 inhabitants (Maps-streetview.com, 2011). Yoruba is the language of the immediate community. Although there is a small Hausa community in the Sabo area of the town where Hausa is used strictly among the Hausa-speaking settlers, it is important to note that adults in the Hausa community usually code-mixed between Hausa and Yoruba or sometimes use English pidgin when interacting with their Yoruba neighbors in the town. Currently in Ikire, Yoruba remains dominant, and it is used more than any other language. Although English is the Nigerian official language, it is usually restricted to formal gatherings such as schools and offices. The children generally use Yoruba at home just as expected in any society where English is not the mother tongues of the pupils (García, 2008, p. 189).

Although Ikire hosts one of the campuses of the Osun State University, the town is still by far less prone to the complex linguistic structure that characterizes a typical Nigerian urban city like Lagos. The rural lifestyle and the simple sociolinguistic structure made Ikire town an ideal location to carry out the research currently reported in this paper.

¹ The mother tongue project of 1970 was carried out by the Institute of Education, University of Ife (now Obafemi Awolowo University) in Ile-Ife Osun-state. The outcome proved that the use of mother tongue instruction makes the child to sustain self-confidence and other psycholinguistic benefits needed for learning and development.

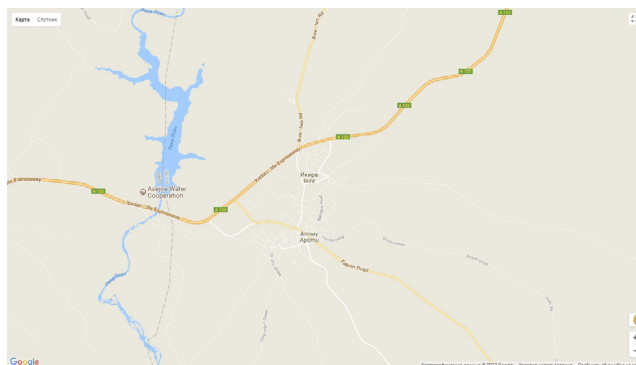


Figure 1. Ikire Map.

Note. Retrieved from <http://www.maps-streetview.com/Nigeria/Ikire/roadmap.php>. © Maps-StreetView.com, 2011.

Materials and Methods

Using questionnaires, the paper employed a case study approach (Baxter & Jack, 2008). The following questions were asked at the beginning of the research. Are the teachers aware of the national policy on education? Which language is used for instruction at the lower primary school level? How easy is it to teach and relate non-language subjects like the various science subjects in Yoruba? Are there specialist teachers in Nigeria language(s) in these schools? Are the teachers aware of any mechanisms set up by the government to monitor the implementation of early mother tongue instruction at the primary school level? What are the challenges facing the teachers in the course of implementing this language policy on education?

The convergence of the questions above put the teachers at the centre of inquiry. They were not the planners, but they were the link between the planners and the pupils. The success of the policy depends on the level of awareness they have on it along with a corresponding out in the implementation. Considering political interests on the part of the government and the naïve status of the children, the researcher focused on the teachers.

A survey of the schools population was done. Although the researcher could not get accurate number of pupils enrolled in all the schools within the study population, an estimated ratio of 2 to 3 was made for private and public schools because there were more pupils and teachers in the public schools than the private ones. Data collection took two stages. First, a pilot study was undertaken to test 10% of the anticipated 50 teachers used as the sampled population for the main study.

The researcher adopted the stratified sampling technique to select the appropriate population for

the case study (see this in Fig. 2). Five strata were identified. Stratum 1 denotes the entire languages in the nation which can be used as media of instruction. Since not all the languages² could be treated within the narrow scope of the research, Yoruba was sampled as a viable candidate³. Stratum 2 represents the setting of location where the policy will be implemented. From this stratum, Ikire was sampled because it is one of the Yoruba towns, where Yoruba still functions as the language of immediate community with minimal a multilingual problem. Stratum 3, which ordinarily would have comprised all the primary schools in Nigeria, was also delimited to the schools in Ikire alone. In this stratum, five schools were sampled which consist of three public schools and two private schools. This distribution is necessary because public schools have more pupils than private schools. Stratum 4 is expected to display all the subjects that should be taught with the chosen medium of instruction. However, Elementary Science was sampled being the best candidate that can easily be assessed across the chosen schools. Stratum 5 comprises the entire population, due to the perspective of the paper, only the teacher sub-set was sampled.

Fifty teachers were selected from five schools distributed based on the population of the pupils they were teaching (as shown in Fig. 3). Across the five primary schools, 6 teachers were contacted from each

of the two selected private schools, and 12 teachers were selected in each of the first two public schools; while 14 teachers were contacted in the third public school, because of its has larger classes with more teachers than the other selected public schools. This gives an estimated sample of 50 subjects. The five schools used in the survey portray a representational 3 to 2 public and private school population ratio (3:2)..

Data were collected using questionnaires. The content of the questionnaire was divided into three sections; first, questions eliciting demographic information such as; age, sex, marital status, work experience and educational background; second, questions that focus on the main goal of the research (close-ended questions); third, questions that expressed the subject's opinion (open-ended questions).

The pilot study conducted actually brought about the validity of the instrument. Out of the 50 questionnaires administered to the contacted teachers, forty (40) were returned. The retrieved questionnaires still displayed a fair representation of the estimated population for analysis. The completed questionnaires were collected and analysed. Data were presented according to research questions using Basic Statistics functions executing the mean, frequency and percentage of the distribution in the value accorded the teachers' views.

sn	Strata	Sampled unit(s) of a stratum	condition for sampling
1	medium	Yoruba	a language of immediate community, already codified, having literatures
2	location	Ikire	linguistic situation
3	schools	3 public + 2 private schools	population ratio between representative
4	subjects	Elementary Science	easily assessed representative
5	respondents	teachers	qualified and experienced candidates

Figure 2. Sampling method.

Schools	no. of questionnaires
Holy Cross Catholic Primary School [school 1](public school)	12
Baptist Day School [school 3] (public school)	12
Answarudeen Primary School, Atile (public school)	14
Amazing Grace Private Academy, Onibembe, Ìkìrè (private school)	6
Labimson Nursery and Primary School Ìkìrè (private school)	6
Total	50

Figure 3. Distribution of the teachers' population across the five schools.

² This is not to say other major Nigerian languages (i.e. Hausa and Igbo) cannot qualify too.

³ The choice of Yoruba can be justified with the various linguistic merits it has over other languages yet to be codified, standardized and enriched

with literatures and texts. But we consider Hausa, Igbo and other developed Nigerian languages as possible candidates, it is important to make it clear here that the choice was based on the fact that this research took place in Yoruba community; hence, Yoruba became the most viable candidate to be used in the study.

Results

This section shows the result of the study. The first part shows the analysis of the competence of the teachers used in the survey. The second part shows the analysis of positive remarks on the use of Yoruba medium of instruction. The third part shows areas where majority of the respondents gave negative responses towards the NPE. It should be noted however, that there is no clear-cut polarity between the two positions. The teachers were favorably disposed to the policy at a point; they also showed disapproval of the same policy at another point.

Analysis of the teachers' competence

About 65 percent of the teachers studied are relatively experienced having spent no less than ten years in the profession. Their age spanned from 21 to 50 years as shown in Fig. 4. Their gender distribution is 72.5% female to 27.5% male. This is just the natural expectation of gender ratio of teachers in Nigeria as documented by World Bank Statistics in Trading Economics (2010).

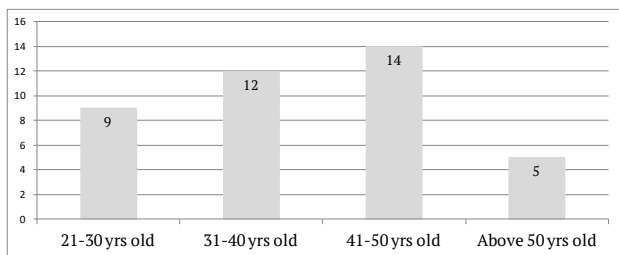


Figure 4. Age distribution of the sampled teachers.

In Fig. 4, only 12.5% of the respondents are above the age of 50. The remaining 87.5%, (35) could be categorized as youth and active minded teachers who can still be highly energetic in discharging their duty.

The respondents also displayed the best expected qualifications. Fig. 5 shows that 97.5% of them have qualification certificates higher than the expected minimum Nigerian Grade II Certificate of Education. Grade II certificate used to be awarded in Teacher Training Colleges before Colleges of Education were established in Nigeria. The National Certificate of Education (NCE) certificates are awarded in Colleges of Education. The Ordinary National Diploma (OND) certificates are awarded to graduates of the first two years programs in the Polytechnics. The Higher National Diploma (HND) certificates, on the other

hand, are awarded to graduates in the Polytechnics who have completed additional two years of higher study subsequent to obtaining the award of initial OND certificate. Nigerian First degree certificates are usually awarded as Bachelor degrees from the universities or other degree-awarding institutions approved by the Nigerian University Commission (NUC).

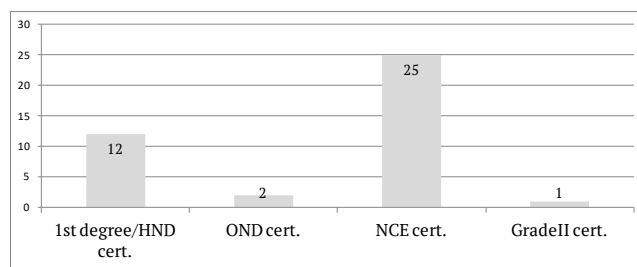


Figure 5. Qualifications of the teachers.

Fig. 5 also shows that most of the respondents were NCE holder with 62.5%; this implies that most of the respondents were trained as teachers and should be well-informed on educational policies.

As shown in Fig. 6, we can see that 52.5%, half of the respondents, had been teaching for more than ten years, 12.5% of which have been in the profession between 7-10 years. This indicates that the respondents are experienced teachers who should be knowledgeable in the subject matter of the research.

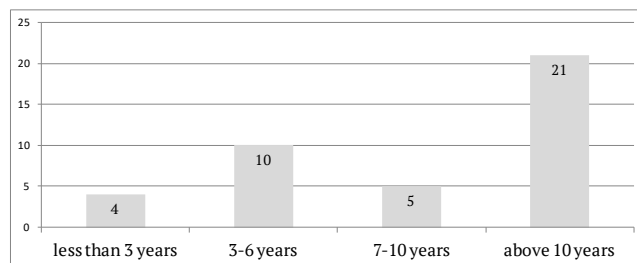


Figure 6. Teachers' years of experience in teaching profession.

Analysis of the positive remarks of the teachers on the medium of instruction policy

Almost all the respondents were aware of the national policy on education, at least 95% did. This is represented in Fig. 7. Majority of the respondents 92.5% (37) were able to identify the objectives of NPE. This result agreed with the ideal level of teachers' awareness (Ellis, 2012).

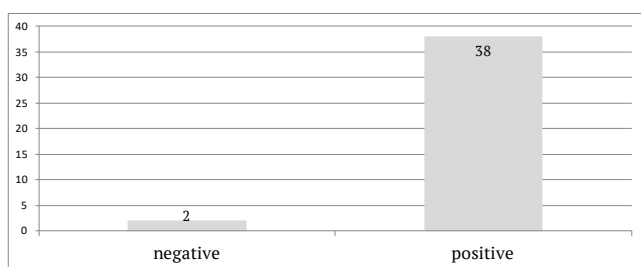


Figure 7. Teachers' awareness on the National Policy of Education (NPE).

Fig. 8 shows that 90% of the teachers 90%, were aware of the national policy on education and were fully detailed with the provisions of the policy on the language of instruction.

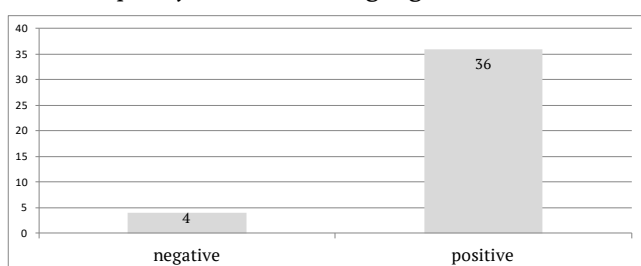


Figure 8. Teachers' awareness of the NPE's condition on the use of the language of immediate environment as the medium of instruction in primary 1-3.

Projecting from their experience, 77.5% of the respondents claim that pupil performs better when instructed in (Yoruba) the language of the immediate environment as shown in Fig 9. It was also observed by 80% (32) of the respondents that pupils understand and perform better when the medium of instruction is in their mother tongue as displayed in Fig. 10.

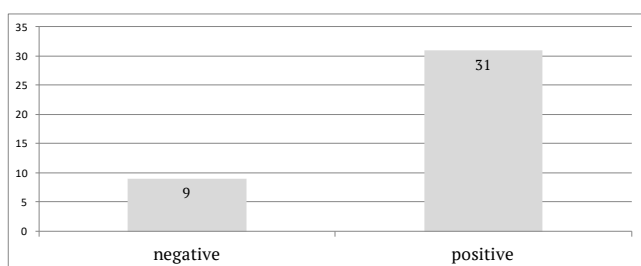


Figure 9. Opinion on Yoruba as a medium of instruction giving the pupils better performance.

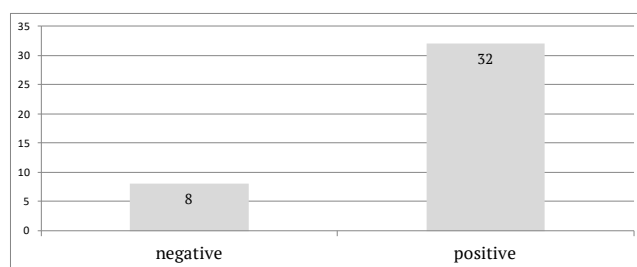


Figure 10. Teachers expecting better performance from pupils taught in Yoruba.

Analysis of the negative remarks of the teachers on the medium of instruction policy

There are aspects of the policy where the teachers' responses are not favorably disposed to the policy. While the previous section of the paper reveals that majority of them appreciated the policy, they expressed apparent difficulties in practicing it. More than half of the respondents claimed that they code-switch using English and Yoruba as media of instruction in their classrooms. The teachers deliberately use both languages rather than keeping to Yoruba as required in the NPE policy.

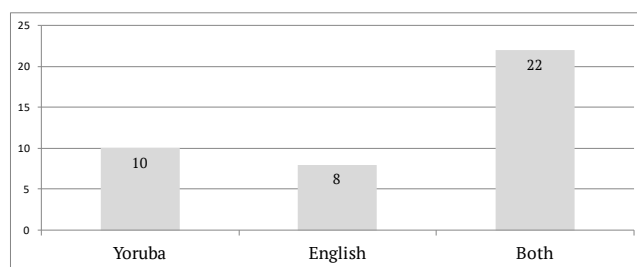


Figure 11. The preferred language of instruction by the teachers in the classroom.

Similarly, Fig. 12 shows that the language situation of most of the classrooms requires the use of both languages by the pupils. A replica of the result in Fig. 7 is also given here in Fig. 8 where 55% of the respondents disclosed that the pupils communicate with one another in English and Yoruba. This is followed by 25% who showed that the pupils communicate in their mother tongue (Yoruba only), while 20% said their pupils communicate solely in English. This is probably due to the teachers' choice of language of instruction. The teachers' adopted language of instruction automatically determines the pupils language of interaction in the classroom.

A SURVEY OF TEACHERS' EXPERIENCE IN IMPLEMENTING YORUBA MEDIUM OF INSTRUCTION

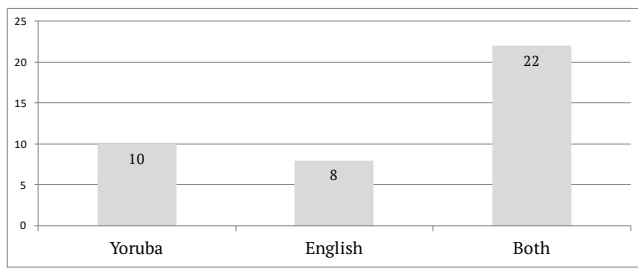


Figure 12. Language used by the pupils in the classroom.

Determining how easy is it to teach pupils elementary science in Yoruba, majority of the respondents 87.5% (35) confessed that the use of Yoruba as a medium of instruction is not easy for them as shown in Tables 13 and 14 below respectively. The teachers linked this to the fact that the available texts in the subject were produced in English (Ogunbiyi, 2013).

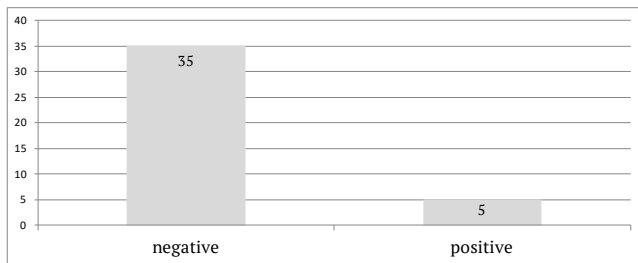


Figure 13. Teachers' awareness of Yoruba metalanguage dealing with the needed scientific terms.

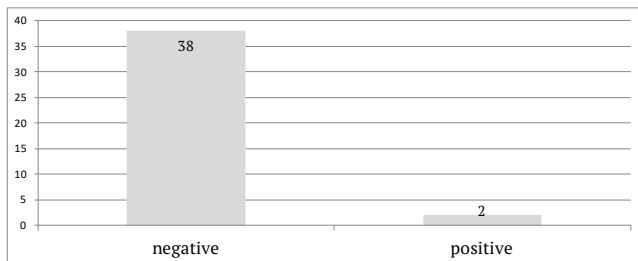


Figure 14. Teachers' remarks on availability of instructional material in Yoruba medium of instruction.

In Fig. 13, it is glaring that using Yoruba to teach science subject is not easy, and almost all the respondents 95% (38) said that science materials and textbooks they used were produced in English only, contrary to the statement of the N.P.E, that study materials will be produced in the language of the immediate community in order to facilitate (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 1981).

On the teachers' awareness of any governmental effort to monitor the implementation of the language of instruction policy at the primary school level, it was discovered that more than half of the respondents 60%

(24) claimed ignorance of such.

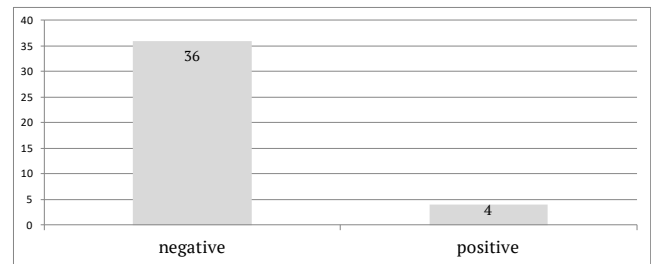


Figure 15. Teachers' remarks on the ease of using Yoruba as a language of instruction.

However, they acknowledge the routine inspections of educational supervisors from both local educational development office and state government ministry of education to assess the general duties rather than to ensure the implementation of the mother tongue (Fig. 16).

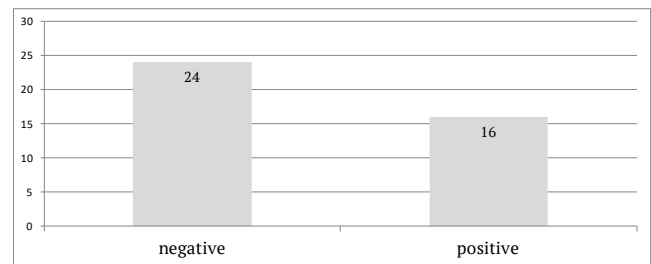


Figure 16. Teachers' awareness on the implementation of the mother tongue policy in Nigeria.

Discussion

The findings show a number of things to be discussed in this section. First, the demographic and academic background of the teachers did not reveal any serious inadequacy that can hinder the positive implementation of the policy. Second, it was discovered that teacher used Yoruba along with English. This implies that the teachers are disposed to the use in class.

While there is on-going terminology development in Yoruba, the teachers did not seem to be aware of such at least in its practical use in implementing the early Mother Tongue instruction. Even when this may not be the only reason for the weak implementation of Mother Tongue instruction policy, this is an indication of the limitation that language development places on education policy. The study also revealed the teachers access to pedagogical texts written in Yoruba. This put more stress on the teachers who have to function as translators as well as teachers. While they read the

textbooks in English, they have to teach the pupils in Yoruba. With the burning desire to use the mother tongue but having limited access to the Yoruba meta-language (i.e., Scientific Yoruba), the teacher resulted into bilingual instruction.

The analysis revealed that the teachers did not respond favorably to some aspects of NPE. They expressed apparent difficulties in implementing the policy. More than half of the respondents claimed that they code-switch using English and Yoruba as media of instruction in their classrooms. The teachers deliberately used both languages rather than keeping to Yoruba as required in NPE. This can easily be traced to the limitation in the teachers' competence in the MT they have to use as a medium of instruction to educate pupils in another subject. The code-switching between English and Yoruba cannot be prevented because the teachers may not readily provide a Yoruba equivalent of every English term used in the classroom.

Although several bilingual education theorists have posited additive bilingualism in the use of mother tongue language education in multilingual communities (Cummins, 1979; Hansegard, 1968; Paulston, 1975; Toukomaa & Skutnabb-Kangas, 1977), it is also important to state that inadequate implementation of multilingualism can result in *semilingualism*, with lack of proficiency in both languages (Hansegard, 1968). The study also reveals other challenges associated with MT education in multilingual environment. These include inadequate linguistic development of the mother-tongue, low investment in its teaching materials and teacher development by the policy maker (Benson, 2014; Kafia, 2014). Unfortunately, policy-based problems can only be solved by the policy makers who have the means and the constitutional power to do so.

Conclusion

The survey has revealed the importance of teachers' in implementing the NPE's medium of instruction policy. As can be seen in Fig. 11 and 12, the teacher's decision automatically determines the pupils' accessibility to the policy. Therefore, teachers have a vital role to play in determining the success of the policy.

As evident in this paper, the level of awareness of the teachers on NPE implementation is inadequate. The teachers did not seem to be properly informed on how NPE could be implemented. If the policy makers ever had any solution to these problems in the past, it was quite clear that the teachers were not aware of such. Second, it is still difficult to use the MT

(Mother Tongue) medium alone due to limitations associated with the teachers' competence and the teaching materials to be used. When this research was undertaken, the teachers could not have access to enough educational materials in mother tongue investigated comparable to the instruction materials being produced for English medium of instruction; hence, using the MT medium is still a great task for teaching subjects other than the MT itself.

Specifically, the Yoruba case study discussed in this paper has exposed some areas of deficiency in the implementation of NPE such as the inadequate instruction materials and the insufficient sensitization on the policy. This setback requires urgent attention because the teachers' experience of NPE implementation reported in this paper is a local indicator of the major problems the policy may encounter nation-wide unless necessary actions are taken to appraise the policy to make the required amendments.

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APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE

DEPARTMENT OF LANGUAGES AND LINGUISTICS, OSUN STATE UNIVERSITY COLLEGE OF HUMANITIES AND CULTURE, IKIRE CAMPUS

Dear respondent,

I would appreciate your help in giving answers to the questions below faithfully.

The information you provide is strictly for the purpose of this research and would therefore be treated with utmost confidentiality.

Thanks for your cooperation.

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION Tick the appropriate options	Tick!
01. Age	21-30
	31-40
	41-50
	above 50
02. Sex	Male
	Female
03. Marital status	Single
	Married
	Divorced
	Widowed
04. Educational Background	GradeII
	NCE
	OND
	HND/Bachelor Degree
05. Work Experience	Less than 3 years
	4-6 years
	7-10 years
	above 10 years

SECTION A

(Tick both right option and both language if both are applicable)	Yoruba	English
06. What language is the medium of communication amidst the pupil in school?		

A SURVEY OF TEACHERS' EXPERIENCE IN IMPLEMENTING YORUBA MEDIUM OF INSTRUCTION

07. Which language do you prefer using for instruction at pry 1-3 level?

SECTION B

(Tick the right option)

True False

08. Are you aware of the national policy on Education?

09. There are specialist teachers in Nigeria language(s) in primary schools.

10. Specialist teachers teach in their specialized field.

11. Yoruba is the language of the immediate environment (Ikire).

12. Science textbooks and materials used at primary 1-3 level are being produced in the Mother tongue.

13. Scientific terms are well expressed in Yoruba, Equivalent to its English and Actual terms.

14. It is very easy using Yoruba to teach science subject.

15. Using Yoruba as a medium of instruction, pupils perform better.

16. Pupils tend to understand well, when instructed in Yoruba language.

17. There are mechanisms set up by the government to monitor the implementation of mother tongue at the primary school.

18. Examination questions are set in Yoruba language i.e. at the primary 1-3 level.

19. One of the objectives of the N.P.E is to lay a sound basis for scientific and reflective thinking.

20. This provision is according to the N.P.E....The medium of instruction in primary school shall be the language of the immediate environment for the first three years. During this period English shall be taught as a subject.

SECTION C

MIND EXPRESSION / INTERVIEW

21. What are the challenges you face applying or not applying the N.P.E in Educational System.

.....

22. How do you think the objectives of the N.P.E could be realized?

.....

23. What would you recommend, concerning the use of Yoruba language of the immediate environment as a medium of instruction in primary 1-3?

.....

.....

Maternal Ideology in an MTN® Advertisement: Analysing Socio-Semiotic Reality as a Campaign for Peace

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It seemed that the issue of maternal ideology as a device to curb social menaces has not attracted scholars. Thus, the study examined the use of maternal ideology in mobile telephone network (MTN®) as a means of influencing recipients against vices instead of the primary assignment of the product advertising. The author utilised an advert of MTN, *Sharing is good*, as an object of analysis. The theoretical underpinning of the investigation was the concept of Theme as a functional approach to social semiotics. Theme interconnects the text with visual images to elucidate the meaning-making potential of the framework. The study revealed that the mother and the daughter operate in the same functional environment without any objections from either. The relationship demonstrates *humility, complementarity, shareability* and *generosity*. The message of the advert could influence corrupt elements of society such as terrorists, kidnappers, and violence campaigners to abandon nefarious acts and to embrace good behaviours. The idea propagated, perhaps, deserves voluntary emulation. Thus, the article argues that national and international stakeholders could make policy to direct advertising professionals to communicate their thoughts with materials that can support peace and harmony in our society. Such an exercise could persuade advertisers to reduce their focus on mental capitalism alone.

Keywords: advertising, ideology, MTN®, social semiotic, social system, thematic system

The mission of persuasion in advertising compels the discipline to function within the parameters of linguistic thoughts. These ideas, most of the times, must not only be new but must also be renewed in a consistent form in order to fulfill the purpose of attracting and influencing the target audience. Carter and Nash (1990, p. 20) recognise that by arguing that “ideas do not merely float in the air; they are produced and reproduced in specific social and cultural context by language users who are positioned in different ways in these contexts.” Users of language create and utilise ideas to pursue certain objectives. The initiatives are not done, Carter and Nash assert, in isolation. The inspirations are executed within the circumference of a particular social system. In other words, a crucial factor in constructing ideas is the circumstance of a social system. One could then suggest that a social system, to a considerable extent, determines the construction of ideas. The consideration given to a social environment is to ensure that the public generate adequate meaning from the ideas generated. So, the construct that works in the situation A might not work in the situation B. It

is also possible that a single idea can be exhibited to portray the entire socio-cultural system of the globe.

Either way, the author could argue that the operational domain of advertising is *octopus* in nature. In a way it is similar to an encyclopedia that touches different spheres of knowledge in society. Advertising appreciates all devices that can contribute and add values to its information and persuasion objectivity (Ogilvy, 2013). This allows advertising, perhaps, to spread its wings across all human ideologies in social systems as the sky covers the earth and seas. The main difference between the extent that the sky covers the earth and the domain of advertising is located in the nature of their beginning and end. The sky has no beginning and no end. Advertising began somewhere according to historical facts (Geiszinger, 2011, p. 6) but it seems to have no end. This remarkable attribute about the domineering operations makes advertising a flair enterprise that connects all possibilities. Advertising is linked to socio-cultural reproduction, psychological rumination, historical emancipation and ideological reality, as the writer has discussed

elsewhere. Advertising goes thus far to associate with several phenomena in the social systems because of the business responsibility that it shoulders. Thus, it plays an interfacing role between a product and consumers.

A chief reason of any advertisement (*henceforth*: advert) is to manipulate people to patronize a particular product. It means that consumers must have enough funds to buy the product. However, the girl child that depends wholly on her parents and guardians is systematically presented along with the mother to propagate the MTN® (i.e. mobile telephone network) advert, *Sharing is good*. Why is the child's picture in the advert? Someone might ask. The child's picture serves as a means of reaching the parents and guardians who love children, take great care of them, provide for all their needs, meet their request and listen to their pieces of advice, at least, once in a while. The child's appearance is a prepared "trap" set on a business track to capture the parents (Dalamu, 2017b). The deployment of the child in the frame can be classified as a sensational strategy. The MTN advert adopts the ideology of mother and child to sell the product to parents, who have affection for children. It seems that the advert explores and campaigns for love that exists between the mother and the child (in homes and virtually in all places) to consumers. For the mother and the child to show mutual love to each other without any restriction; the public should reciprocate, perhaps, not to the mother and the child this time, but to the product that MTN advertises.

The notion of maternal ideology is not a new concept in academics. Its assessment has been on but towards adolescence behaviour (Jessor & Jessor, 1977; Jessor, 1991), motherhood beliefs and practices (Ruzek, 1990), and abortion decision discourse (Fegan, 1996). Steele and Barling (1996) examine beliefs and gender-role satisfaction, while Alazaz (2016) considers subjectivity in maternal concerns as critical. To the best of our knowledge, hardly has one observed studies relating maternal ideology to advertising persuasion. That existing gap is the motivation for this analysis. As an interdisciplinary consideration in linguistics, communication and advertising, the study, on the one hand, explores and explains the application of maternal ideology in the MTN, *Sharing is good*, advert. On the other hand, the article demonstrates the propagation of the mother and the child as a channel used to inform the public to share love one with another. The love propagated in the advert might serve as the interchanged for the nature of love that MTN expects consumers to share with the advertised services. The theoretical slant is predicated on social semiotics reality tacked to the functional thematic concept of visual thoughts.

Ideology and advertising constructs

Reports have shown that Desttut de Tracy, whose writing as far back as the 18th century suggests that a science of idea should be called *idéologie* (Kenedy, 1979). The proposal perhaps stands the test of time. The suggestion seems to have attracted the interest of philosophers, economists, linguists, and others to recast de Tracy's *idéologie* to ideology. However, the constructs of Althusser (1971), Volosinov (1973), and Larrain (1979) further certify the initial efforts that influence general and more meaningful debates on the notion of ideology. Fairclough (1992, p. 86) classifies Volosinov's opinion on the subject as next to Althusser because of the outstanding contributions to ideological expositions. Since that time, van Dijk (1988, p. 3) articulates that economists, psychologists, philosophers and political scientists have embraced ideology as a study (in sophisticated dimensions) of system of belief in a particular social system. Ideology is imprecise and mutable with inherence of all-encompassing terms (Lemke, 1995, p. 2; Carter & Nash, 1990, p. 20). It further elicits to socio-cognitive analysis and discursive-discoursal analysis in order to motivate its rhythms in different spheres (van Dijk 1988, p. 1, 313-318). These remarks characterise the *raison d'être* for diffusion in the manner of its definition. The many spheres of ideology that touch enquiries on cognition discourse and society could have inspired van Dijk to suggest that triangular domain should be considered when describing ideology. It is a perspective that impinges on the system of ideas, the social system and the language use (van Dijk, 1988).

As a practice, Fairclough (1992) argues that, ideologies are significations of reality, which are built into various dimensions of the forms of discursive, and which contribute to the production, reproduction, or transformation of relations of dominion (p. 87). Perhaps, ideology is an artificial device in a society. This is because the people of a social system construct as well as create their model of ideology as events unfold in different dimensions. That behaviour encourages proliferation of different ideological appreciations from one structural domain or class to another. People fabricate the ideology that dominates them, which in-turn becomes a system. In that regard, Hall (1996) offers a cognitive explanation that ideology is a mental framework that connects "languages, the concepts and imagery of thought." These interconnect, Hall exemplifies, with "the system of representation which different classes and social groups deploy in order to make sense of the intelligible manner that the society works" (p. 26). The construction of ideological reality of a society seems to become its tradition in the long run. The representation of thoughts and demonstrations of the internal and physical worlds of

the actors construct ideological devices that the social groups and system operate. However, language serves as the nerve of most ideological practices. This is owing to the fact that language facilitates the intention of a speaker and sows meaningful seeds into the receiver's cognitive hemisphere.

Furthermore, van Dijk (1988) explains that "an ideology is...a shared framework of social beliefs that organise and coordinate the social interpretations and practices of groups and their members, and in particular also power and other relations between groups" (p. 8). The basis of living together and harmoniously co-existing in a society, in the opinion of van Dijk, provide and enhance an ideological interplay in a similar dimension among the people. That is why ideology can be referred to as a shared representation of mental acceptance of a norm among social classes and groups. Before social beliefs are institutionalised, they must first be identified, established, interpreted and properly managed through the authorities that govern the social devices. This is on the ground that "ideology", in Vestergaard's and Schroder's (1985, p.146) perspective, "is a necessary component of human life: if *people* did not cling to certain fundamental attitudes and ways of thinking, our consciousness would be in a total flux which would paralyse us completely." So, ideology defines the paths of the actors in society in terms of dos and don'ts. It shows the individuals the right to protest if the system goes wrong. Ideology is also a probable revelation of the scope of people's behaviours in relation to legality or illegality. Thus, ideology is the measure of values in society. That perhaps, informs the appreciation of ideology in multi-dimensional forms. In Thompson's (1984) sense, "ideology operates...through a complex series of mechanism whereby meaning is mobilised in the discursive practices of everyday life for the maintenance of relations of domination" (p. 64). Advertising is a mechanism that is linked to ideology in the study. Advertising is ephemeral as it is ubiquitous, and penetrates passionately into the fabric of human social activities. Consumers unmask meaning from the plates as advertisers express their intentions through ideology by the way of creative dexterity.

Advertising, as it were, constructs a relationship between a product and the public. It is a domain that generates cognitive and social ideas in order to influence the decisions of consumers. Cook (1992) says that campaigns come up as persuasive devices as a result of creative ideas. The appearance of advertising seems to have incited readers to consider its output as an ideological enterprise. This position projects advertising more of intellectual exercise than a mere element that leads consumers to a product for the purpose of consumption. Though it is that corporate bottom-line that inspires and shapes the expert's

intellectual capacity (Goldman, 1992). Consumers ought to read the adverts in the same way with the assumptions of advertisers. Ordinarily, the public might embrace the adverts as advertising specialists' desire. Another group of adverts' consumption is perhaps the set of people who possess intellectual potency in different disciplines. Such people consume and interpret adverts from a pedagogical perspective. The areas of their discipline inform the translations and meanings decoded from advertising frames. Some analysts might appreciate ideology from interdisciplinary frameworks. Such efforts could be owing to differences in their intellectual rationales. In respect of that, scholars seem to interpret adverts in dissimilar ways in which a combination of ideas at the long run can project wholesome of viable meanings.

The manifestation of the advertising phenomenon seems to have sensitised Leech (1966) to argue that "No one word is more often on the lips of the advertising specialists than *creative*. He works creatively on creative campaigns; when he is not engaged in creative planning, he is thinking up creative ideas" (p. 175). The acts of advertising entwine in ideological creativity; the practices are controlled in order to disperse persuasive intentions to consumers. The messages convey the benefits of the products to consumers. It is in that sense that Goldman (1992) explicates thus, "adverts portray only a fantasy world, providing vicarious satisfaction for people whose circumstances are quite remote from the lifestyles depicted" (p. 35). Imagination in advertising, as Goldman explains, is done within the consumers' ideological perspective as well as a means of appealing to the recipient's greed. It also incites the recipients' enthusiasm to patronize the product in the campaign regime. Sometimes, it could be that the thoughts in the adverts are contradictory to the reality in the social system. It might also be the devices operating in the system, and, yet, the public is not visibly observant of the phenomena. Advertising takes such as an advantage to propagate a product. A similar illustration is the MTN advert, *Sharing is good*, which projects the mother and the child as an allegorical representation of love in the Nigerian society where terrorists (e.g. *Boko Haram*), kidnappers, and snipers attempt to have their dominion. The natural relationship functions as the interface between the Nigerian society and vices experienced. The advert demystifies love to all citizens besides its hegemonic primacy of luring consumers to buy a product.

A brief profile of MTN

MTN Nigeria operates under a subsidiary called MTN International (Mauritius) Limited which in turn manages under the larger umbrella of the MTN Group. As earlier mentioned, MTN refers to mobile telephone

network (Wikipedia, 2016). The group was launched in South Africa in 1994 to function as a mobile operator. The headquarters is located in Johannesburg, South Africa. Besides Nigeria, MTN has its presence felt in some African countries and the Middle East bloc. It functions in places such as Ghana, Ivory Coast, Guinea Republic, Afghanistan, Cyprus and Syria. Significantly, MTN (2016) advocates that the firm is already an advanced communications network which is African oriented. In that respect, it connects globally to more than 203.8 million subscribers in not less than 22 countries.

The incorporation of MTN Nigeria Communications Limited occurred in Nigeria on the 8th of November, 2000 as a private liability company. After about three months the company secured a licence to operate a full-fledge digital telephone system, that is, Global System for Mobile Telecommunications (GSM). The Nigerian Communication Commission (NCC) granted MTN the licence on the 9th of February, 2001. The approval inspired the organisation to emerge as the first GSM operator to make a call on its network on the Nigerian soil beginning from the 16th of May, 2001 (ACL Services Ltd, 2014; Bloomberg, 2017).

On the accounts of MTN's over ten years of operation in Nigeria, HubPages Inc. (2011) argues that MTN 'has ever since been the biggest telecommunications (telecoms) company and one of the largest in Nigeria. The claim rests on the fact that MTN has made a formidable impact on the lives of many Nigerians in so many appreciable ways. Among others, the following highlights are some of the benefits:

- It has invested over \$4 Billion in the Nigerian economy
- It has paid more than \$1.8 Billion to government as levies and duties
- It saves, within one year of its operations, about \$60 Million in potential revenue leakages
- It has provided and created thousands of jobs directly or indirectly to make the socio economic lives of Nigerians much easier
- It has over 35 million subscribers and still winning more customers (HubPages Inc., 2011).

MTN has, however, made a lot of profits as well in Nigeria. That is the compelling reason that MTN can only threaten but cannot pack away from Nigeria when the enterprise violated the guidelines of Nigerian Communication Commission (NCC) that controls the telecoms. The infringement of the regulations attracted a sumptuous amount of fine slammed on the company.

Some of the products and services of MTN are *MTN Happy Hour*, *MTN Bundles*, *MTN Super Saver*, *MTN F@stLink*, *MTN Mobile Internet* and *MTN BlackBerry*

Services. It is on these and other products that MTN places adverts as campaign practices that have the capacity to persuade the Nigerian public in order to patronize the services. Given MTN's contributions to the society and the importance of the adverts, the paper has examined the impacts of one of the adverts, *Sharing is good*, on the Nigerian society.

Theoretical reality

The syntax of the English text is organised in a distinct order. The model of arrangement known as organisation of a message and technically called thematic structure orients from the Prague School (Butler, 1985; Bloor & Bloor, 2004; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014). In the clause communication dynamism, also known as *clause as message* is the structure that indicates how *clause as exchange* and *clause as representation* are organised to make appropriate meanings. Syntactic thematisation contains the structure of clause that begins automatically with Theme and follows with Rheme, which in Halliday's (1994) point of view represents as the point of departure (p. 37). The structure of a clause may be organised and classified in other reliable manners such as Topic and Comment, Given and New, and Subject and Predicate. However, from a functional perspective, Theme and Rheme are a departure from those earlier mentioned and more appropriate for this work.

The functional *grammatics* (i.e. theory) demonstrates Theme as the starting-point of the message, that is, the ground that the clause is taken off from. This characterises Theme not necessarily as a noun group or a subject but can be equal to, or less than, or more than such a structural element. This is because a clause of English has the capacity to depart with adverbial group, nominal group, prepositional group/phrase, etc. In that regard, Rashidi (1992) elucidates that "Theme is the clause-level constituent what the encoder uses as the starting point of the message, the constituent that begins moving the decoder towards the core of the communication" (p. 192; *also in* Thompson, 2014; Dalamu, 2017a). Theme, in Rashidi's sense, is encoder oriented, arbitrary as well as obligatory. The encoder determines the arrangement of the message the way he/she wants. Theme is universally obligatory as it is arbitrary because it provides the clause with the characteristics of message as it takes the speaker's point of view. In the experiential metafunction, that is the content of the message, the decoder construes the goings-on at the wishes of the encoder who tends to augment Theme with the Rheme where the wheel of the message revolves.

One might suggest that the thematic application is not limited to the textual constituent of a clause. It is

a social semiotic device for examining images in visual designs. In that respect, Kress and van Leeuwen (1996) gloss that “visual grammar makes a range of resources available: different compositional arrangements to allow the realisation of different textual meanings” (p. 41). Semiotics is the science that studies sign systems which include text as well as images (Chandler, 2012). It is in that capacity that the application of Theme, in Kress’ and van Leeuwen’s perspectives, is embraced as a tool to appreciate images along with the linguistic structures. The labelling resources that systemic functional *grammatics* adapted to explore textual components may not be fully adopted in visual grammar because texts and images might not have one on one corresponding terminology. For instance, the Theme of a text (clause) begins from left to right, whereas, the thematic analysis of visual images could begin from any portion of the framework. The application of the analytical device could start from left to right, top to bottom, or from the most prominent, pronounced and obvious element of the frame in terms of saliency. The consideration is based on the mechanisms of the visual composition.

On the basis of that multifaceted applications, Kress and van Leeuwen (1996) add that “verbal text becomes just one of the elements integrated by codes of information value, salience and framing, and reading is not necessarily linear, wholly or in part, but may go from center to margin, or in circular fashion, or vertically” (p. 185). Meaning dwells in texts as well as images in the manner that an analyst investigates the structures. The sedimentary meaning inherence discharges through textual theories might not possess enough strength to analyse visual images, which is the basis for applying social semiotics in this study. In a parallel dimension, Lemke (1995) explains that “Language does not operate in isolation. Meanings always get made in contexts where social expectations and non-linguistic symbols play a role” (p. 8; *also in* Hodge & Kress, 1988). One of the benefits of visual image is that both the literate and illiterate can decode meanings from it. Besides, one could argue that it is easy to show socio-cultural ideologies of the people through images than in verbal elements. People easily get influenced through pictures than texts (Hayko, 2010; Zipporah & Nberi, 2014; Pope, n.d.; and Cope, et al, n.d.). Therefore, social semiotics, from the bird-eye view of thematic realisations, provides an all-encompassing analysis for the study by considering the meanings in texts, images, relationships between them and the socio-cultural background of the text-image facilities. As such, as earlier stated, the investigation considers how MTN utilises maternal ideology as a strategy to lure consumers to consumption. The MTN advert of *Sharing is good* reveals contextual relationships in the devices of the communication.

Thus, the study argues, unlike other studies (e.g. Cook, 1992; Geiszinger, 2011; Forceville, 2017), that the emulation of *Sharing is good* advert might stimulate a peaceful coexistence among the citizens to neglect social vices. This is because love is the crux of its message to the Nigerian public.

Method

Participants

The MTN’s *Sharing is good* adverts occupied some signposts across some cities in Nigeria, newspapers and the Internet. Hence, Wumi, a lady of 35 years, and the author moved around the Lagos metropolis with a car to observe the advert variants in order to make the appropriate choice for the analysis.

Research design

The study adopted a sampling (stratified) procedure by collecting and dividing the variants of the MTN’s *Sharing is good* into four sub-groups. One advert was chosen for analysis as a true representative value of other adverts.

Measures

A Samsung WB50F camera assisted in capturing the frames of the MTN’s *Sharing is good* adverts from both signposts and the Punch newspaper for the Punch has a large reading audience. Besides, the Internet was another option where a personal computer as well as a modem assisted in downloading the adverts. The population of the adverts was about 26 pieces. The motive for such data collection process was to ensure accessibility to and the understanding of varieties of the advert which could lead, as previously mentioned, to the appropriate selection of the right choice of the advert.

Procedures

The 26 adverts were grouped into four parts in relation to their pictorial constructions, colour demonstrations and textual contents. Discourse patterns also played a role in the segmentation. Employing Wumi for assistance was not tedious as we have been harvesting together adverts in the Lagos city many times. The choice of Wumi relied solely on her knowledge of the environment of Lagos streets. Any time we went for capturing activities the author paid the individual about ₦10, 000. 00 (₦ = the symbol of the Nigerian currency) for fueling the car and for personal upkeep. The analyst selected the frame illustrated in Figure 1 below from the Internet

as more appropriate among others adverts because it accommodates the features of communicative devices in the other *Sharing is good* advert varieties. Significantly, the selection of one advert out of the 26 adverts rested on the similar information that the MTN's *Sharing is good* adverts provide. Consequently, choosing more than one frame for investigation might be monotonous. Nonetheless, the author considered an advert from the Internet as a viable resource for the reasons of reliability, pictorial clarity, accessibility and 'permanence.' Thus, the choice of the Internet could serve as a reference point for readers.



Figure 1. MTN Advert.

Although, as illustrated in Figure 1, the advertising frame contains both images and texts, the study separates the texts from images and labels the texts as clauses (*henceforth*: CL). It is upon the separation that the Hallidayan clause as message (Theme and Rheme) acts as a tool for processing the texts. The analytical procedure permits technological devices of a table and graph to compute the recurring capacities of the Theme and Rheme on the linguistic organs as shown in Table 1 and Figure 3 respectively. The discussion predicates on these methods providing explanations for the image-textual relationships.

Data analysis

Figure 2 below translates the textual devices in Figure 1 into semiotic slots.

The study has interpreted Figure 2 into a table and graph below in order to show the values of Theme and Rheme operating in the semiotic slots.

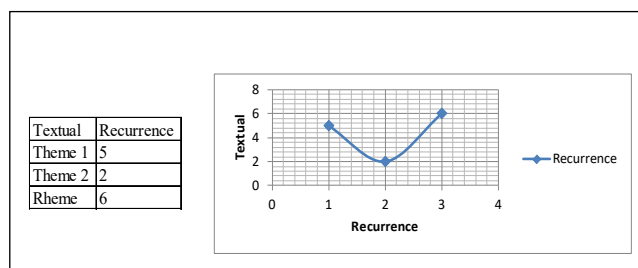
Results and Discussion

Table 1 below represents the syntactic analysis of the text of the MTN advert as a demonstration of the structural patterns.

CL1	Sharing	is good	
	Theme	Rheme	
CL2	All it takes to share		is a generous heart
	Theme		Rheme
CL3	Dial	*133*3* for...Gifting	
	Theme	Rheme	
CL4	or	get	E-Credit from...the MTN retailers
	Theme 1	Theme 2	Rheme
CL5	This	is MTN	
	Theme 1	Rheme	
CL6	Everywhere	you	go
	Theme 1	Theme 2	Rheme

Figure 2. Analysis of the MTN advert's text.

Table 1
Textual analysis of the MTN advert



CL	Textual Structure		
	Theme 1	Theme 2	Rheme
1	1	0	1
2	1	0	1
3	1	0	1
4	1	1	1
5	0	0	1
6	1	1	1
Total	5	2	6

Figure 3. The thematisation structure of the MTN advert.

The paper translates the structures of the advert into the table and graph in Figure 3 to report the structural postures of the texts and for prompt

accessibility. Figure 3 also serves as an indicator of the communication flow.

Significantly, all the clauses shown in the graph in Figure 3 communicate through the rhematic aspect. However, only clauses 4 and 6 inform through Theme 2 as Theme 1 places itself as the point of departure for all clauses except for clause 5. In sum, the heart of the message for the target audience is located in the Rheme. It means that the rheme disseminates persuasive values to advertisers in order to convince consumers, which is in consonance with Rashidi's (1992) remark about the functional domain of Rheme.

This investigation constructs the discussions from two linguistic domains of grammatical structures in relation to clause (Bloor & Bloor, 2004; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014), and of visual grammar in relation to social semiotics (Hodge & Kress, 1988; Kress & van Leeuwen, 1996). Figure 2 indicates the analysis of the structure of texts that are available in the frame. There are six clauses in the advert. They are: (i) *Sharing is good* as in CL 1; (ii) *All it takes to share is a generous heart* as in CL 2, which are declaratives that function as an issuance of statements; (iii) *Dial *133*3* for Data Gifting* as in CL 3; and (iv) *or get E-Credit from the... MTN retailers* as in CL 4, which serve as imperatives that command consumers to act fast, and (v) *MTN* as in CL 5, which is an elliptical statement that operates as the logo of the company in focus. The logo is also accompanied with its shibboleth – *Everywhere you go* as in CL 6. The study analyses the clauses as a vehicle of interpreting the organisation of their structures. *Sharing* in CL 1, *All it takes to share is be generous in heart* in CL 2, *Dial, or get*, and *Everywhere* in CLs 3 and 4 are the Themes of the clauses. A suggested component in the semiotic slot of the Theme is provided for the fifth clause because the author observes that *This is* constituent is a probable element ellipted from the logo, that is, *MTN*. Out of the four declarative clauses, two of them have multiple Themes. They are *or* and *get*; *everywhere* and *you* in clauses 4 and 6 respectively.

The thematic realisation of the MTN advert, *Sharing is good*, seems to be succinctly clear based on the appearance of the recurring points in Figure 3. The advert frame, which seems to follow the structure of a textual organisation, is partitioned into two with a longitudinal line. A top-bottom thematic application illustrates the portion that contains images along with the bold text, *Sharing is good*. *All it takes to share is to be generous in heart*; *Dial *133*3* for Data Gifting*; *or get E-Credit from the... MTN retailers*; *MTN* and *everywhere you go* in the yellow ribbon occupy the Rhematic portion. There are two pictures in the Theme – a mother and a daughter. The images portray maternal relationship, which explains a strong tie that exists between the mother and her daughter. A maternal ideology, perhaps, has been chosen to

perform such a crucial function of agape love because the relationship between a mother and her child is seemingly sound among human beings. Most mother and child relationships seem to endure perhaps till eternity. It appears as a wise strategy for MTN to have propagated the love intention through a mother and her daughter.

Six commonalities establish the thematic images in the framework. They are dressing, eating, drinking from the same cistern, use of the same dining set, reciprocating sharing and focusing of the same flower. These attributes of a mother and child interchangeable components express love, oneness and unity. The individuals wear similar dresses, underwear of off-white colour. The underwear is called *spaghetti* in the Nigerian society because the shoulder anchors appear as strands of *spaghetti* noodles. That appearance shows the mother and daughter as twins who have things in common and do things with the same principle. Similarly, both the mother and the child are eating food, though from different plates of the same off-white colour. The separation of the plates of food may be as a result of cultural embracement or for a purpose of *hygienicity*. Besides, in the eating process, one person may be gluttonous or faster than the other. To avoid fracas, the separation of the plates of food becomes a necessity. Notwithstanding, eating of similar food at the same time and at the dining table terminate the concept of egotism.

In the world routine, egoism operates virtually in all ideological processes regarding groups and institutions in society (Bech & Beck-Gernsheim, 1996; Heelas, 1996; Lash, 1996). The mother-child relationship on the dining platform attempts to nullify pride as experienced in society's ideological systems. The nullification of ego can bring absolute peace to our world. This makes the MTN message sacrosanct in communicating objective messages to the public. Despite that the mother and child do not eat in the same plate for whatever reason, they drink from the same *cistern* into their *cisterna*. This is quite commendable. A glass of water is placed between the two plates of food to be shared at will notably with seemingly unequal distance. To a considerable extent, the drinking of water from the same glass communicates absolute trust to recipients. Drinking water from the same glass cup is more dangerous hygienically or otherwise than eating from the same plate of food.

The study observes the notion of reciprocity in the thematised visual images. Food provision and flower presentation by the mother and child demonstrate *complementarity*. It is obvious that the provision and preparation of food are sole responsibilities of a mother not only to a child but also to the entire family concept. The mother provides the food for her daughter and the daughter reciprocates by presenting a flower

to the beloved mother. The significance of the flower presentation from the child is to show the mother, in the little manner within the child's reach, appreciation to her mother's undying efforts and care. No human being lives in an island of self-sufficiency (Jankowski, 2014). The greatest advantage domain of one person may be the greatest disadvantage domain of the other. Gifts, talents, and skills of individuals are never the same. That is the way that things of life are naturally distributed (Seymour, 1976; Brown, n.d.). As national actors, people have diverse cultural backgrounds, ethnic representations, religious persuasions, professional divisions of labor, socio-political and financial abilities, and different functional domains of excellence. These are applied for the development of the social systems. The viable point is this: people in a society need one another to survive, succeed, develop and progressively advance the environment. The appropriate harmonisation and utilisation of the human potential have the capacity to spark and sustain the above remarks. These are probable reasons for sensitising the society to share love.

The little girl presents a flower to the mother as a proposal. However, the mother does not reject the ideational proposition. She does not underrate the child's submission and throw it away. Actually, there are age differences among the actors in a society, but those distinctions do not indicate that the people who are below someone's cadre are nonentities. It is important to listen, scrutinise an idea whether it is good or bad. The relevance of a thought must also be considered before such is condemned and thrown into the dungeon. The perspective of MTN could imply that a meaningful and workable idea can sprout from any source. The action of the mother to the child demonstrates humility to the entire audience. There is an offer from a lower source and an acceptance from a higher source. The mother seems to abandon the food in order to give the child's offer the needed attention. As a result, the mother's humility demonstrated in one spirit, one mind and one focus dominates the relationship.

The six attributes that characterise the visual images – mother and daughter – portray maternal ideology as exemplified in submissive love. The ideology is an exclusive one. It resides more on societal concern than the goods and services that MTN campaigns for. It seems that the advert is MTN's contribution to stabilise peace in the Nigerian social system. Furthermore, the iconic pictures show that though the mother is almost finishing her food; the daughter is not agitating. Probably, there is nothing the daughter should be bothered about. She is patient because an extra plate of food is still on the table. MTN propagates additional meanings in the *rhetic* signification of the advertising frame

in three distinctions – the background colour of the ribbon, text and logo. The core of the thematisation of visual images does not dwell solely on the Rheme of the advert's visual illustrations as shown in textual organisation. Nonetheless, the advert of this enquiry demonstrates its message to the public in both its Theme and Rheme through the arbitrary signifier, *Sharing is good*. This is on the ground that the text is very pronounced. It also supports and provides clarity to the message of the images. *Sharing is good* is located in the Theme of the advert when appreciating it from top to bottom; textually, it accommodates Theme/Rheme components.

The choice of colour is not necessarily a matter of aesthetic beauty. It is a decision that most times reflects style, emotion, belief and perhaps, symbolises a company's or individual's core values. To MTN, yellow is the most appreciable colour. The MTN yellow personalises and communicates symbolic beliefs and values that the company represents and reflects. According to PPG Industries Inc. (2016), a paint company, yellow is truly a joyous colour that possesses virtue in its warmth form, which discharges warm inspiration and vigorous distinctions. Yellow is the happiest of all colours that portrays perfect communication, enlightenment, sunlight and spirituality. Choosing yellow as a preferred colour means the possession of intellectual, idealistic and highly imaginative potential that perceives and thrives for a brighter future. Yellow colour, the Glidden explains, also leads to a cheerful spirit and greater happiness (PPG Industries Inc., 2016). The decision of MTN team to have chosen yellow as the colour, and propagate yellow as the background of the ribbon of the Rheme signification may not be excluded from the attributive qualities elucidated above.

Apart from the elliptical statement *MTN*, five clauses – *Sharing is good; All it takes to share is to be generous in heart; dial*133*3* for data Gifting; or get the... MTN retailer and everywhere you go* – show the mission of MTN in the advert. *Dial *133*3* for... Gifting* is imperative. The *Shareability* propagates a thought where the individual receives his/her allotted portion. By giving object A what belongs to A; and giving object B the dues will likely bring peace and harmony to the society. From a business point of view, the goodness in *Shareability* is perhaps to buy some services. That is: (i) to buy the MTN recharge card for somebody or (ii) to share the recharge card with someone else that is close to the individual and does not have enough credit on his/her phone (i.e. MTN line). Gift is good; it does not only blind the eyes of a receiver, it does give the individual happiness. *Sharing is good* is an advertising concept. However, its altruism cannot be contradicted or undermined. The terminology sells selflessness to the participants of a social system via

the idea of generosity. The advert points that out by recommending to the audience through a declarative that *All it takes to share is a generous heart*. The acknowledgement is a guiding principle propagated in the form of pleading. That is only a person with a kind heart can give to others. Being a commercial advert, directives on how to patronize the product are not left behind. The structures are highlighted imperative thus: *dial *133*3* for data Gifting; or get the... MTN retailer*. The imperatives refer consumers to the route to enjoy the advertised product. The sentences also command the public to act without any delay.

The third element of the Rheme is the logo, *MTN*, decoratively embroidered below the frame at the right-hand corner of the ribbon. The trademark is the tile that initiates and identifies the MTN's ownership of the advert. The emblem also authenticates MTN's concern for the society and at the same time sanctions MTN's message to the entire public. The catch phrase, *everywhere you go* as an adjunct provides supports for the intention of the advert. The remark is a strategic move to satisfy the yearning of the government – a need for loving and peaceful environment – and also intends to persuade the audience to appreciate and patronize the MTN product. This time around, MTN is not only focusing what the firm can benefit from the society; the institution as well centers what the society can gain from its advert. MTN demonstrates the claim by making sure that the product to be sold is faintly highlighted, yet, campaigns vigorously for love, elucidating through maternal ideology that the society should emulate. The applicability is boldly espoused in the visual images of a mother and her daughter on the platform of a dining table exercises and spirit.

Conclusion

MTN® adopts *shareability* in maternal ideology to educate the public about the virtue of love that benefits the society more than something else. Love is a sustainer of a peaceful society. The evil in the society seems the reality that influences MTN to have propagated such an emotional advert to the entire public domain. The MTN disposition indicates that adverts should not always be for commercialisation alone but to also influence the society in positive ways. Such bearing has the strength to build strong ties among the citizens. The author observes that the mother and the daughter in the visual expression operate understandably in the same level without pride, class segregation, mistrust, rejection, etc. Else, there would have been chaotic demonstrations from one end. The mother needs the child – vice versa – in order to contribute her quota to the social organism because none of the individuals is an island. The individuals are

both depending on each other. The advert enthuses the members of society as containing dependable actors that must play their roles accordingly by contributing different ideas at different given capacities. The individuals are responsible for turning around issues in society for national development. It is then that the society can tremendously experience irresistible growth. This goes along with the saying that it takes two entities to tangle. Every individual needs fellow human beings to succeed in life.

The core of the message of the MTN advert, *Sharing is good*, is abdication of selfishness in which MTN takes the lead by propagating the ideology of love. The message to the society is that all actors should share love one with another without any bias. Individuals should exterminate the spirit of selfishness (self-interest rests on *I* or *me*) to be replaced with the spirit of oneness (integrated with *we* or *us*). Selfless contributions from all domains have the potency to heighten the growth of the society. Conversely, the detrimental thoughts of corruption, terrorism, and kidnapping threatening many countries' wellbeing nowadays could be thrown to the abyss. *Shareability-cum-generosity* as propagated through maternal ideology seems what the citizens need in order to be safe, survive and succeed in the global space. However, as the advert, among numerous ones of MTN communications, promotes love, one would have expected that the *Sharing is good* advert is solely for societal marketing (Kotler, 2003; Jobber, 2004). The campaign for the product's consumption ought to have been totally averted in this very advert. There is no doubt that the *Sharing is good* communication is not a good peace-deal; as a result, the MTN Group could separately sensitise readers with purely commercial adverts and 'humanitarian' adverts in a ratio, perhaps, of one to ten. Such pioneering responsibility to society could be extended to nations where MTN functions.

The study suggests that advertising regulatory bodies should make it mandatory, as a matter of policy, for advertisers to produce adverts that project values that can cleanse the society of social vices. As a matter of importance, advertising professionals should not only concentrate their efforts on how to sell products alone but to make attempts to get rid of nefarious acts from the society that they operate in. The MTN advert is a dramatic episode; in its own capacity, it may influence the society passionately in a number of ways as earlier stated. Most adverts, to be candid, are irresistible in terms of their signification constructivism and strategic places that they are propagated. The author recommends that such an MTN advert and similar ones that reflect social virtues should be produced and displayed in some strategic domains, in a sustainable manner, in Nigeria, and by extension other countries of the world for people to

read, digest and perhaps act upon the information provided. In addition, researchers in communication domains may pride their investigations on advertising campaigns that ideally construct peaceful relationships among the people. After all, recommendations from the knowledge-based enterprise do not only motivate deeds of readers; the suggestions also serve as a compass of directions to societies that worth the salt.

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Test Takers' Perceptions towards BEC Exams: a Case Study of a Russian University

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This is a qualitative study of candidates' motivation to take BEC exams and their expectations toward the exam results, which was conducted at the Cambridge Exam Preparation Center in a Russian university. The research dataset comprised 33 participants who took part in face-to-face, in-depth, semi-structured interviews. Overall, candidates showed a positive attitude to BEC at different exam levels. The main reasons for preparing for and taking the exams were extrinsic and defined by the institutional environment. The respondents opted for BEC exams as they intended to receive an international education (master's level) and/or build a successful career in international organizations. The study also revealed a connection between candidates' expectations toward exam results and their age and level of language proficiency.

Keywords: international English language exams, BEC, qualitative study, Russia, motivation, expectations

Standardised English language tests have expanded phenomenally over the past two decades, with over 5 million Cambridge English exams taken in 130 countries in 2014 according to Cambridge English Annual Review 2014. Globalised Business English proficiency tests such as BEC (Business English Certificates) are increasingly playing the role

of gatekeepers around the world. Leading employers, educational institutions, and governments trust and accept BEC worldwide. Many universities include BEC preparation courses into their curriculum. In Russia, one such university is the National Research University Higher School of Economics (hereafter abbreviated HSE).

Although the literature on standardised English language exams (mainly IELTS and TOEFL) is extensive, candidates' perceptions toward them, namely the reasons for taking the exams and test-takers' expectations toward the exam results, remains understudied. However, the necessity of empirical research investigating this issue is obvious, because the outcomes of such research will not only allow educators to work out some recommendations for the organisation of exam preparation courses but can also provide an adequate basis for practice-based policy-making. In this article, we extend the literature on standardised English language exams by using a dataset from a Russian university (HSE) to investigate candidates' motivation and their predicted BEC performance. In doing so, the current study supplements existing literature in several important ways. First, to our knowledge, there are no papers in which test takers' attitudes toward business-oriented English exams such as BEC were explored. For example, Suryaningsih (2014) considered the perceptions and attitudes of students to the content of IELTS and TOEFL; Cheng and DeLuca (2011) dealt with test takers' perceptions toward the validity of a number of large-scale English language tests, namely TOEFL, IELTS, HKALE (Hong Kong Advanced Level Examination–English Language), and LPAT (Language Proficiency Assessment for Teachers of English), whereas studies of BEC are rather fragmented.

Second, there are no papers studying Russian students' perceptions toward standardised exams in the context of a Russian university. For instance, Gardiner and Howlet (2016) explored students' perceptions of university gateway tests (IELTS, PTE-A, CAE, and TOEFL iBT) in Australia. The participants were from China, Brazil, Saudi Arabia, and Taiwan. He and Shi (2008) investigated Chinese students' perceptions of two standardised English proficiency writing tests at a Canadian university.

Literature Review

Existing literature focuses on various phenomena related to standardised English language exams and a number of researchers have studied the construct validity and reliability of the most widespread exams, namely IELTS and TOEFL (Chalhoub-Deville & Turner, 2000; Zahedi & Shamsaee, 2012). Construct validity relates to meaningfulness and appropriacy of the test score interpretation (Bachman & Palmer, 1996). Chalhoub-Deville and Turner (2000) claimed that the validation process of IELTS, which is a research-based test, is not a single action but an ongoing process. However, the study also call attention to the fact that initially IELTS was created to be used in the United Kingdom and Australia, but since IELTS is now being

more extensively used in the USA and Canada, the adequacy of the test to the language differences in North America may become a matter for discussion. Zahedi and Shamsaee (2012) in their work compared IELTS candidates' speaking test scores with their scores in the other three tests (reading, listening and writing), as well as with their overall result. The analysis showed a strong correlation between them, which proves meaningfulness and appropriacy of IELTS speaking test. The authors conclude that the construct validity of the IELTS speaking test almost never causes doubt.

Another aspect being researched is test reliability which is understood as consistency of measurement (Bachman & Palmer, 1996). Chalhoub-Deville and Turner (2000) explored the reliability of the IELTS speaking test, and concluded that all variables that affect test scores, except the language itself, should be seen as measurement error. Zahedi and Shamsaee (2012) note that problems arise if an interviewer applies subjective ratings when assessing candidates' skills. Furthermore, different interviewers may use different questioning styles and approaches, which can influence the way candidates respond at the exam (Brown, 2003). Nevertheless, reliability is considered positive with respect to consistency of assessment according to the rating scale provided that all interviewers use open-ended items in interviews (Chalhoub-Deville & Turner, 2000).

Ockey, Kayama, Setoguchi, and Sun's study (2015) was set out to determine how much Japanese university students' performance on the TOEFL iBT speaking section is associated with other indicators of their abilities to communicate orally in an academic English environment. The authors found strong relationships between TOEFL iBT speaking scores and university tasks; the correlations between TOEFL iBT speaking scores and components of oral ability were found to be high or moderate.

Standardised English language exams (mainly IELTS and TOEFL) were also investigated as predictors of future academic performance (Graham, 1987) and academic language performance (Bayliss & Ingram, 2006; Kokhan, 2013). Although these exams were found to have some predictive value, the prediction of long-term academic performance on the basis of the language exams results alone remains a difficult task (Permyakova & Sheveleva, 2013).

Despite the fact that motivation is considered to be one of the most significant and well-studied determinants of second language learners' performance, research on motivation in the context of standardised English language exams seems to be quite scarce. Cheng et al. (2014) studied the motivation of test-takers in connection with test anxiety and test performance. The data comprised

responses of candidates taking Canadian Academic English Language (CAEL) Assessment in Canada, the College English Test (CET) in the People's Republic of China, and the General English Proficiency Test (GEPT) in Taiwan. The authors concluded that there are a number of personal and social contextual factors which affect motivation and test anxiety, leading to performance differences across the three testing contexts. Zheng and Wei (2014) who also investigated the interconnection between students' performance on the Pearson Test of English Academic (PTE Academic) and their motivation and anxiety-related factors, came to similar conclusions. They found that the observed score differences between Chinese and Indian test takers may be partially explained by the variance in their affective factors in English learning and testing.

Test-takers' expectations have been studied in terms of motivation, in the framework of expectancy-value motivation theory which posits that learners' "choice, persistence, and performance can be explained by their beliefs about how well they will do on the activity and the extent to which they value the activity" (Wigfield & Eccles, 2000, p. 68). According to expectancy-value theory, when dealing with a task and making related choices, students tend to ask themselves two questions: "Do I want to do it?" and "Can I do it?" (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002). If they answer in the positive to both, they are more likely to become involved in the task and cope with it successfully (Xie & Andrews, 2013, p. 53).

Gosa (2004) studied Romanian students and found that their expectations of assessment was the single most crucial factor that explains students' perspectives on teaching and learning activities. The author concluded that learners' expectations of assessment not only affected their attitudes toward teaching, but also their own learning. Nine out of the 10 respondents chose not to prepare for the test at all because they expected the test to be too easy. Likewise, Green (2007), having compared an IELTS preparation course with university language courses, concluded that individual learners' goals and their "understanding of test demand" (p. 93) had a larger influence on their learning outcomes than their choice of a course and its content.

In Russia, the demand for specialists having a good command of Business English is increasing each year. It is connected with the rise in the number of multinational companies operating in Russia and the desire of students and professionals to improve their career opportunities. Developed in the 1990's to be suitable for Chinese test-takers with a low language level, today the BEC examination is considered globally to be the best choice for proving business-related language skills. The exam is a set of three

tests, each of which targets a distinct level of ability. Like the Cambridge ESOL Main Suite examinations, the BEC exams have been linked to the Common European and ALTE frameworks. All three levels of the BEC suite comprise papers aimed to assess candidates' proficiency in the four skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Additionally, the different papers offer a wide variety of response formats via the inclusion of different tasks and item types within each skill's paper. This whole approach allows educators to view the three examinations not simply as unique measures, or even as a set of interconnected measures which cover a broad range of language abilities within a business context, but essentially as a single unit, with individual elements focused on particular criterion levels of proficiency (O'Sullivan, 2006, p. 84-85).

The current article is intended to contribute to making standardised English language exams an object of systematic theoretical and empirical study, and to fill the gap in research by investigating candidates' attitudes to Business English exams, specifically professional exams offered by Cambridge English Language Assessment.

Method

The study addressed the following research questions.

Research questions

1. What motivates the candidates to take the exam?
2. What shapes their expectations towards the exam?

Procedure

This research was carried out at the Perm campus of the National Research University – Higher School of Economics (HSE) which is one of the leading Russian higher educational institutions. It offers bachelor's and master's degree programmes in economics and management, IT and social sciences. As the HSE preparation center organises preparatory courses for all three levels of BEC exams: BEC Preliminary, BEC Vantage, and BEC Higher, three groups of students were interviewed.

The research was conducted in two stages and employed the following methods and techniques.

In Stage 1 (November-December 2013) a questionnaire was developed to investigate what had motivated students to choose these professional exams and their expectations toward the exam results. This allowed the authors to explore the benefits attributable

to BEC and the perception of the preparatory courses' value.

The questions in the questionnaire aimed at learning about candidates' motivation were:

- *Why did you decide to prepare for and take a BEC exam?*
- *Why do you want to get a Business English Certificate?*
- *Do you agree with the statement that preparing for the BEC you feel more motivated to study English?*

The question about test-takers' expectations towards the exam was formulated as follows:

- *What are your expectations towards your exam results?*

In Stage 2, after an official exam (May-July 2014), a semi-structured interview was performed with all of the candidates in order to find out how they felt during the exam, whether their expectations met performance, whether they felt prepared, and what their expectations toward the result were.

Stage 2 questions regarding expectations were:

- *Do you think you are prepared for the exam?*
- *Why do you think so?*
- *What are your expectations towards your exam results?*

Participants

The dataset included: 1) 33 candidates in Stage 1 attending BEC preparation courses at HSE-Perm Cambridge Exam Preparation Centre; 2) 33 candidates in Stage 2 who took the exam at the same site. The sample consisted of HSE students and employees of different enterprises in the Perm region. Table 1 shows the sample composition by gender and age.

Table 1
Gender and age distribution of the sample

	Number of respondents		Age	
	Stage 1	Stage 2	Range	Average
BEC Preliminary	10 (5F, 5M)	10 (5F, 5M)	22-58	39
BEC Vantage	12 (10F, 2M)	15 (12F, 3M)	21-37	23
BEC Higher	11 (7F, 4M)	8 (6F, 2M)	20-22	21
Total	33 (22F, 11M)	33 (23F, 10M)	20-58	27,6

Results

Motivation

The reasons for choosing to prepare for a BEC exam that respondents gave were mainly extrinsic and defined by the institutional environment. They can be

divided into four groups:

1. career-related, such as employer's requirements and the need to have proof of their English language abilities or the necessity of having the certificate "for future employment", "to get a job abroad";
2. studies-related, namely, plans to continue their studies and get a master's degree where a BEC certificate is one of the requirements;
3. intrinsic motivation to improve their language skills;
4. convenience – the preparation takes place in their university.

The respondents' answers are summarised in Table 2.

Table 2
Reasons for choosing to prepare for a BEC exam

Reasons	BEC Preliminary	BEC Vantage	BEC Higher	Total
Career-related	7	3	5	15
Studies-related	-	5	8	13
Intrinsic motivation	3	4	2	9
Convenience	-	2	-	2

As can be seen from the table, test takers mainly chose to prepare for a BEC exam for career-related reasons – this option was chosen by almost half of all respondents and was the most popular reason among BEC Preliminary test takers. Studies-related reasons were mentioned only by BEC Vantage and BEC Higher candidates. This can be explained by the fact that all of the candidates were bachelor-level students. Intrinsic motivation is present in the answers of all of the groups of test takers but it is weaker among BEC Higher candidates (approximately one fifth gave this reason compared to about a third among BEC Preliminary and BEC Vantage test takers). This can probably be explained by the high level of language proficiency BEC Higher candidates already have so that by the time they started exam preparation they had set other goals to achieve.

The respondents' reasons for their desire to get a BEC certificate were fivefold:

1. career-related reasons, i.e. employer's requirements or future employment in Russia or abroad;
2. studies-related reasons: intention to continue studies for a master's degree in Russia or abroad;
3. non-specified personal reasons;
4. the certificate is a good proof of their English language skills;
5. "because it is for life", i.e. there is no expiration

date.

The candidates' answers to the second question are summarised in Table 3.

Table 3
Reasons for the intention to get a BEC certificate

Reasons	BEC Preliminary	BEC Vantage	BEC Higher	Total
Career-related	5	3	4	12
Studies-related	-	5	8	13
Personal reasons	5	-	-	5
Proof of language skills	-	3	1	4
"For life"	-	2	1	3

The table shows that career and studies-related reasons dominated the answers. Personal reasons were given only by BEC Preliminary test takers who did not mention that the certificate is a proof of language skills or that it is "for life" like BEC Vantage and BEC Higher candidates did.

Table 4 summarises the respondents' answers to the question about the candidates' motivation to study English that was triggered by the preparation for the exam.

Table 4
Perceptions of BEC exams influence on motivation to study English

	Agree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree
BEC Preliminary	10	-	-
BEC Vantage	11	1	-
BEC Higher	9	2	-
Total	30	3	-

All BEC Preliminary students and a vast majority of BEC Vantage and BEC Higher candidates agree that they felt more motivated to study English while preparing for the exam. Investigating the reasons why three respondents disagreed with this statement was a perspective for the second stage of the research

Candidates' expectations towards the exam.

Stage 1. Table 5 presents expected exam grades with the number of answers marked by respondents. It should be mentioned that the percentage range for expected exam results was given in the questionnaire for the respondents' convenience:

- BEC Preliminary: below C – less than 40 %; C – 40-64 %; B – 65-79 %; A – more than 80 %;
- BEC Vantage: below C – less than 60 %; C – 60-74 %; B – 75-79 %; A – 80-100 %;
- BEC Higher: below C – less than 60 %; C – 60-74 %; B – 75-79 %; A – 80-100 %.

Table 5
Candidates' expectations about the exams results

		Below C	C	B	A
Speaking	BEC Preliminary	1	5	4	-
	BEC Vantage	2	7	1	2
	BEC Higher	-	6	2	3
	Total	3	18	7	5
Writing	BEC Preliminary	-	6	4	-
	BEC Vantage	2	4	4	2
	BEC Higher	-	4	5	2
	Total	2	14	13	4
Listening	BEC Preliminary	-	4	5	1
	BEC Vantage	2	4	4	2
	BEC Higher	1	4	2	4
	Total	3	12	11	7
Reading	BEC Preliminary	-	2	7	1
	BEC Vantage	2	4	4	2
	BEC Higher	-	2	7	2
	Total	2	8	18	5

The data reveal that in the majority of cases students expected B and C grades. Overall, the reading section is perceived to be the easiest one where candidates expected to get more A and B grades; while listening is seen as the most challenging section where only a few students expected to get A or B grades.

Stage 2. The candidates' perceptions of their preparedness for the exam are reflected in Table 6.

Table 6
Students' perceptions of their preparedness for the exam

	Yes	No	Neither yes nor no
BEC Preliminary	6	2	2
BEC Vantage	9	3	3
BEC Higher	5	1	2
Total	20	6	7

Overall, most test takers felt that they were ready for the exam; about a fifth thought they were not well prepared, and about a fifth of the respondents found it difficult to answer this question.

Reasons for feeling ready for the exam were twofold. Some candidates mentioned that either they had been studying hard to prepare for it, putting a lot of effort into preparation or the preparation courses were very helpful and well structured.

The test takers who considered themselves not ready said that it was difficult to combine exam preparation and other things (work or studies) and they did not have enough time for preparation or lacked some necessary skills (range of vocabulary, listening skills).

Those who could not give a definite answer to this question said they did not have enough time for preparation or they had missed a lot of classes.

Table 7 gives information about expected exam grades with the number of answers marked by candidates. Like in Stage 1, the percentage range for expected exam results was given in the questionnaire for the respondents' convenience:

- BEC Preliminary: below C – less than 40 %; C – 40-64 %; B – 65-79 %; A – more than 80 %;
- BEC Vantage: below C – less than 60 %; C – 60-74 %; B – 75-79 %; A – 80-100 %;
- BEC Higher: below C – less than 60 %; C – 60-74 %; B – 75-79 %; A – 80-100 %.

Table 7
Candidates' expectations about the exams results

		Below C	C	B	A
Speaking	BEC Preliminary	1	3	6	-
	BEC Vantage	3	8	1	3
	BEC Higher	1	2	3	2
	Total	4	13	10	5
Writing	BEC Preliminary	1	5	3	1
	BEC Vantage	1	9	4	1
	BEC Higher	1	4	2	1
	Total	3	18	9	3
Listening	BEC Preliminary	3	6	1	-
	BEC Vantage	3	7	5	-
	BEC Higher	3	-	5	-
	Total	9	13	11	0
Reading	BEC Preliminary	-	2	8	-
	BEC Vantage	4	8	3	-
	BEC Higher	1	3	4	-
	Total	5	13	15	0

The largest number of candidates expected to receive a C grade for all of the test sections except Reading for which almost a half chose a B grade. Overall, BEC Preliminary candidates seemed to be the most optimistic marking B grades more frequently than others (almost half of the responses).

The reasons for preparing for and taking a BEC exam identified in the survey were mainly extrinsic and defined by the institutional environment, the most frequent ones being career-related and studies-related, i.e. requirements for getting a master's degree.

There is universal agreement among the three groups about the increase in their motivation to study English caused by exam preparation.

According to the results of the survey, there was a positive dependence of candidates' expectations about the exam results and the exam level, i.e. expectations toward the exam results grew with increases in the

exam's level of difficulty. This tendency might be explained by the average age in three groups in this research context – the average age decreased with the level of exam. This finding supports Bordia, Wales, Pittam, and Gallois' claim (2006) that younger age groups are characterised with less critical perceptions of their abilities and demonstrate higher ambitions overall.

Respondents regarded exam preparation as advantageous because it helps to support and improve their English language proficiency, and obtaining a Business English certificate as useful because it will improve their career prospects or educational opportunities.

Respondents either did not report any disadvantages in preparing for BEC exams or complained about the lack of preparation time. A large majority of students did not name any disadvantages in obtaining a Business English Certificate.

Most candidates felt prepared for the exam due to their personal efforts and regular course attendance. Those test takers who could not give a definite answer about their preparedness referred to non-exam-dependent reasons such as time constraints, inability to combine work and study, and missing classes. The most frequently mentioned problems during the exam were the perceived lack of time for completing all the tasks, noise interference during listening, tiredness by the end of the written part, and vocabulary difficulties.

Expectations for exam performance were as follows: the most frequently expected grade for BEC Preliminary and BEC Higher candidates was a B; BEC Vantage candidates chose Cs. The Listening section of the exams seemed to be the most difficult because almost a third of test takers expect to get a grade below a C.

BEC exam-takers might take another international English-language exam for such reasons as job requirements, positive feedback on the current exam, educational and career opportunities, and for language practice.

Discussion

Research question 1. What motivates the candidates to take the exam?

Throughout all three levels, test takers displayed obvious dominance of extrinsic motivation when preparing for and taking BEC exams ("employer's requirements", "to get a master's degree", "for career"). This fact coincides with the reasons for their intention to obtain BEC certificates, where the most common ones were international education or employment. This trend is linked with the candidates' age and

institutional university requirements at the HSE.

Almost all candidates reported increased motivation to study English during their preparation for BEC exams. It can be put down to clear and structured short-term goals as opposed to life-long language learning where progress might be hard to gauge.

Respondents at the two higher levels (Vantage, Higher) also expressed the opinion that preparation for the exam helps to support and enhance their language skills especially in terms of vocabulary. These findings could be considered further evidence that exam content and exam level correspond to respondents' needs in terms of both language and professional development. Moreover, candidates at all three levels placed a high value on Business English certificates as they are believed to be "good official proof" of students' English language proficiency levels.

Table 8
Expectation toward BEC Preliminary results in Stage 1, Stage 2 and certificate results

	Below C (less than 40 %)	C (40–64%)	B (65–79%)	A (more than 80%)
Speaking				
Stage 1	1	5	4	
Stage 2	1	3	6	
Certificate			8	2
Writing				
Stage 1		6	4	
Stage 2	1	5	3	1
Certificate		5	5	
Listening				
Stage1		4	5	1
Stage2	3	6	1	
Certificate	5	4		1
Reading				
Stage 1		2	7	1
Stage2		2	8	
Certificate		2	5	3

Research question 2. What shapes the candidates' expectations towards the exam results?

BEC Preliminary. Table 8 below summarises changes in expectations toward BEC Preliminary results in Stage 1, Stage 2, and actual results (certificates).

In Stage 1, expectations toward exam results leaned toward the average for all sections. Test takers

expected to receive slightly lower marks for productive skills than for receptive ones – Listening, and especially Reading. However, after the exam, students' expectations were higher for Speaking and Reading and lower for Listening; expectations for Writing stayed almost the same, with individuals showing the lowest and highest performance.

Certificate results show that the candidates' expectations for Writing and Listening were met, whereas actual results exceeded expectations for Reading and even more noticeably for Speaking. Overall, in Stage 2, after the exam, predictions in this group were almost correct, except for Speaking.

The fact that the results were justified and even surpassed expectations might lead to an enhanced positive image of exam preparation and the exam itself, hence, more sustained motivation for study. This conclusion is also aligned with the finding that many BEC Preliminary test takers expressed a willingness to continue the course of study.

BEC Vantage. Table 9 summarises changes in candidates' expectations toward BEC Vantage results in Stage 1, Stage 2, and certificate results..

Table 9
Expectations toward BEC Vantage results in Stage 1, Stage 2 and certificate results

	Below C (less than 60%)	C (60–74%)	B (75–79%)	A (80–100%)
Speaking				
Stage 1	2	7	1	2
Stage 2	3	8	1	3
Certificate		10	5	
Writing				
Stage 1	2	4	4	2
Stage 2	1	9	4	1
Certificate	1	14		
Listening				
Stage 1	2	4	4	2
Stage 2	3	7	5	
Certificate	4	7	4	
Reading				
Stage 1	2	4	4	2
Stage 2	3	7	5	
Certificate	4	7	4	

The table shows that in Stage 1 expectations tend toward the middle of the scale except for Speaking where expectations are lower. Expectations after the exam decreased for all four parts despite the fact that

the students said they felt prepared for the exam. [Note: we take into account the increased number of samples for the second part of the research]. In regard to the comparison with the actual exam results, the majority of expectations for Speaking were fulfilled, with the exception of the highest and lowest expectations. All higher expectations for Writing were not met as well as the highest grade expectations for Listening. By contrast, the highest initial expectations for Reading were rewarded while the other expected grades were justified accordingly.

BEC Higher. Table 10 below summarises changes in expectations toward BEC Higher results in Stage 1, Stage 2, and certificate results.

Table 10
Expectations toward BEC Higher results in Stage 1, Stage 2 and certificate results

	Below C (less than 60%)	C (60–74%)	B (75–79%)	A (80–100%)
Speaking				
Stage 1		6	2	3
Stage 2	1	2	3	2
Certificate		4	3	1
Writing				
Stage 1		4	5	2
Stage 2	1	4	2	1
Certificate	6	1	1	
Listening				
Stage 1	1	4	2	4
Stage 2	3		5	
Certificate	6	1		1
Reading				
Stage 1		2	7	2
Stage 2	1	3	4	
Certificate	5	2		1

The table above shows that initial expectations for Speaking were changed to more evenly distributed ones after the exam in Stage 2, and were finally matched by actual results. This means that generally positive expectations for Speaking at the BEC Higher level led to a generally successful performance. However, regarding Writing, the first two sets of expectations followed the same pattern as with Speaking, but the results were quite the opposite since the majority of candidates (6 out of 8) did not achieve the borderline level of 60%. As for Listening, in Stage 1 candidates' expectations were high as well, but were lowered after the exam, yet the performance was low, well below the expectations of the two stages. The same pattern is

observed in Reading.

To sum up, there is a connection between expectations toward exam performance and candidates' age and level of proficiency. For older candidates and lower levels of the exam, more realistic expectations were formed. For younger candidates and higher levels of the exam, more unjustifiable expectations were created, especially before the preparation course. In the meanwhile, the preparation course and exam situation built up more realistic expectations, with the exception of younger candidates at the BEC Higher level.

Conclusion

The research delivers outcomes in three areas: 1) candidate profiles; 2) factors influencing BEC exam perceptions, 3) implications for organizational educational policies in English teaching and learning.

The evidence gathered indicates that in the HSE institutional setting BEC exams appeal to young, ambitious, goal-oriented candidates who aim to receive an international education (master's level) and/or build a successful career in international organizations. The overwhelming majority of test takers were extrinsically motivated by organizational standards and requirements. Candidates were determined to enhance their English language proficiency by preparing for and taking other international English language examinations.

Expectations toward exams depended on age, professional background, and level of language proficiency. Candidates regarded obtaining BEC certificates as rewarding.

Students placed a high value on getting a BEC certificate while in university, which adds to the status of the organisation in the competitive environment. Therefore, considering the increased motivation of students learning English for BEC exams and the perceived language progress through obtaining BEC certificates, it would be reasonable to conclude that the incorporation of official BEC exams into the main university curriculum would be an advantageous administrative top-level decision at the HSE.

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The Semantic Expansion of 'Wife' and 'Husband' among the Yorùbá of Southwestern Nigeria

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Although one of the existing studies on Nigerian or African kinship terms has argued that semantic expansion of such words constitutes an absurdity to the English society, none has argued for the necessity of a specialized dictionary to address the problem of absurdity to the English society, the custodian of the English language. This is important especially now that the language has become an invaluable legacy which non-native speakers of the language use to express their culture as well as the fact that the English people now accept the Greek and Hebrew world-views through Christianity. This paper provides additional evidence in support of semantic expansion of kinship terms like 'wife' and 'husband' not only in a Nigerian or an African language but also in Greek and Hebrew languages. The paper argues that if English is to play its role as an international language, it will be desirable if our lexicographers can publish a specialized dictionary that will take care of kinship terms, as it is the case in some other specialized dictionaries on the different professions such as medicine, nursing, linguistics and agriculture, to mention but a few, so as to guide against ambiguity or absurdity that may arise in language use in social interactions.

Keywords: culture, language, interpretation, society, specialized dictionary

One conclusion that can be drawn from studies conducted on kinship terms is that although kinship terms are products of a family relationship or a close feeling between people that develops as a result of common origins or attitudes, the cultural norms or world-views that guide the use vary from one ethnic group to another (Evans-Pritchard, 1948; Oyèádé, 1995; Abíódún, 2000; Igboanusi, 2004; Ìkotún, 2009). For example, Igboanusi (2004, p. 223) claims that while the word 'mother' may be used to refer to any female friend or relation of one's own mother, one may have several 'mothers' in the Nigerian or African world-view but not in the English society because the use of such words may appear or sound ridiculous to the English-speaking society. As Igboanusi (Igboanusi, 2004, p. 223) rightly says, there are several Nigerian or African words that have semantic expansion or extended meanings when used in social interactions and the use of such words may sound unintelligible to the English society when English is used to express such Nigerian or African world-views or culture. In this paper also, our concern is on the semantic expansion or extended meanings of some kinship words in Yorùbá, Greek and Hebrew and areas that will be covered will include:

1. focus on the Yorùbá words 'o'ko' (henceforth husband) and 'iyawó' (henceforth wife) and

it will be shown that the extended meanings they have in Yorùbá, Greek and Hebrew may appear or sound ridiculous to non-African, non-Greek and non-Hebrew.

2. it will also be shown that any of the kinship terms or words, when used, must co-occur with any of the possessive pronoun qualifiers such as 'mi' (my), 'wa' (our), 're' (your (sgl)), 'yín' (your (pl)), 're' (his/her (sgl)) and 'won' (their/his/her (pl)) before the kinship words or terms can be better understood.
3. finally, it will be the submission of this researcher that if English is to be fully accepted as an international language, it is important that the English lexicographers with the assistance of culture translators must be prepared to re-work the dictionary entries to also include African, Greek and Hebrew world-views or cultural aspects of word or language use that are devoid of current grammatical or conventional usage since English is now used to express cultural norms of several or almost all ethnic groups in the world today as well as the fact that the Christian culture is now shared or endorsed by the English-speaking Christians.

At least, four perspectives on semantics have been identified by linguists (Katz and Postal, 1964; Chomsky, 1965; Bierwisch, 1970; Halliday, 1985; Mey, 2001). But, the perspective of semantics we agree with and which is of interest to us in this paper is the one that recognizes the combination of the context of culture and the context of situation in language study (Malinowsky, 1923; Firth, 1962; Brown and Gilman, 1968; Fasold, 1990). Several studies that have been carried out in African and non-African languages attest to the fact that the knowledge of a language is a composite of the knowledge of structure and use in the socio-cultural context (Abíóḍún 1992; Oyètádé, 1995; Ìkòtún, 2010a, 2010b, 2013). Our position that the knowledge of a language is a function of the knowledge of structure and use in the socio-cultural context is further supported by Mey (2000), Igboanusi (2004) and Adégbìtẹ́ (2005). For example, Mey (2000, p. 7) says, among others, that not even the smallest utterance or a single word can be understood in isolation. She argues further that it is the user and his or her conditions of production and consumption of language that, in the final analysis, determine the way his or her words are understood. Studies carried out by Malinowsky (1923), Firth (1962) and Adégbìtẹ́ (2005, p. 54) too claim that two kinds of context are associated with contextual meaning namely, the context of culture and the context of situation. Similarly, Adégbìtẹ́ (2005, p. 54) argues that the conditions of meaning in a context of culture (or social context) must specify the conventional (socio-cultural) rules of behaviour which participants must share before they can effectively or successfully communicate with each other. Adégbìtẹ́ (2005, p. 54) further adds that the conditions of meaning in a situational context must also specify relevant features of immediate and wider experiences of the specific participants in addition to the conventional rules.

However, before Adégbìtẹ́ (2005, p. 54), Igboanusi (2004, p. 223) argues that in semantic expansion, English words are made to acquire extended meanings. According to him, African writers often reflect African contexts in the use of certain English items so that such items now acquire extended meanings in the novel. He says that semantic expansion is, therefore, a good source of difficulty for the non-African reader. One of the examples of language use that inform Igboanusi's (2004, p. 223) position is the use of the word 'mother' or 'mothers' among Africans. As already shown in the introductory section of this paper, while the word 'mother' may be used to refer to any female friend or relation of one's own mother, one may have other senses of the word 'mother' in the Nigerian or African world-view but not in the English society. Although Igboanusi's (2004) position is very valid, it can be further argued that the extended meanings from 'mother' or 'mothers' can be better or correctly

drawn when such words are used in conjunction with possessive pronoun qualifiers in social interactions. For example, it is not unlikely that there is a difference between the word 'mother' and the noun phrase 'my mother'. While the use of the word 'mother' may not necessarily refer to the speaker's biological mother, the use of the noun phrase 'my mother' by the speaker may. So, what may be a source of ambiguity to the non-African is the use of the noun phrase 'my mother' when the use does not refer to the speaker's biological mother but to any female person even when the addressee is still a baby girl. Therefore, to address the issue of cultural misunderstandings in culture-dependent language use, a specialized dictionary with the translators' commentary is suggested. However, in this paper, in further support of Igboanusi's (2004) claim, extended meanings of 'wife' and 'husband' in Yorùbá, Hebrew and Greek, especially when they are used with possessive pronoun qualifiers, are examined.

Method

Data collection

The Yorùbá data for this descriptive work were drawn from four sources. Some data were taken from some Yorùbá drama books. The drama books entitled *Ìyàwó Alárédè* and *Orogún Òḍájú* were written by Èṣò-Olúbòròḍé (1993) and Tẹ̀là (2008) respectively. Some data were drawn from some Yorùbá plays that were shown or staged on DSTV Yorùbá Channel 157. Participant observation was also considered to complement the data drawn from Yorùbá drama books and DSTV Yorùbá Channel 157 programmes. The participant observation used in this paper involved the presence and participation of the researcher in linguistic interactions with native speakers of Yorùbá on the focus of this paper. The Yorùbá native speakers comprised some Yorùbá sub-ethnic group members namely, Ègbá, Ìjẹ̀sà, Èkítì, Àkúrẹ́, Oṅḍó, Àkókó, Ìjẹ̀bú, Óyó and Èkó. The research covered a period of three years namely 2013, 2014 and 2015 and the conversations were recorded without the knowledge of the co-participants. It will also be recalled that participant observation guarantees natural language use or unguided language use in social interactions. The data that will be considered for Hebrew and Greek were drawn from the New World Translation version of the Holy Bible. The data that will be analyzed were drawn from Psalms 45: 14-15, Revelation 14: 3-4, 2 Corinthians 11: 2 and Isaiah 54: 5. Our choice of examples from Hebrew and Greek languages is meant to confirm our position that the use of kinship terms is almost a global phenomenon especially with the spread of Christianity.

Results and Discussion

The findings and the analysis of this research are shown in sub-sections 4.1, 4.2 and 4.3 below. The different senses the words ‘wife’ and ‘husband’ can have when used among the Yorùbá people are presented in sub-sections 4.1 and 4.2. The information used in these sub-sections was drawn from participant observation. However, as the discussion progresses, the excerpts that were drawn from some Yorùbá textbooks and recorded speeches in support of the information from participant observation by the researcher will be used. The discussion on the data drawn from the New World Translation version of the Holy Bible will form the focus of 4.3 sub-section.

4.1 The semantic expansion or meanings of ‘wife’ in Yorùbá

In Figure 1 below, the various uses or meanings of the word ‘wife’ among the Yorùbá people are presented. In English, however, the word ‘wife’ is semantically realized as [+female, +woman, +married].

Again, four excerpts that explicate evidence of language use in support of the information drawn from participant observation shown in the figure above are

presented. Two of the data were taken from a Yorùbá textbook while the remaining two were drawn from recorded speeches. For example, the information in the introductory section to language use in the data shown below exemplifies a discussion between a real wife and a real husband.

(Nínú ilé Odéjòbí, òrẹ̀ Bàbá oḍe, Wọ̀n seṣe jeun ọ̀sán tán ni. Odéjòbí àti iyawó rẹ̀, Àdùfẹ̀, wà lẹ̀hìnkùlẹ̀, wọ̀n n nájú. Odéjòbí ló bèrẹ̀ ọ̀rò,...)

Odéjòbí: Olódùmarẹ̀, íbo lojú Re wà? Ìwọ l’Ọ̀ba adédaá, Ọ̀ba aṣẹ̀daá. Ìwọ nìkan soṣo l’Ọ̀ba asekanmáku Àwọ̀n tí kò mò Ọ̀ kò moyi Re, Gbogbo ohun tí O se ló gún régé... (Tẹ̀lẹ̀, 2008, p. 23)

Translation

(In Odéjòbí’s house, a friend to Bàbá Oḍe, They have just had lunch. Odéjòbí and his wife Àdùfẹ̀ are at the back of his house. Odéjòbí starts to speak...)

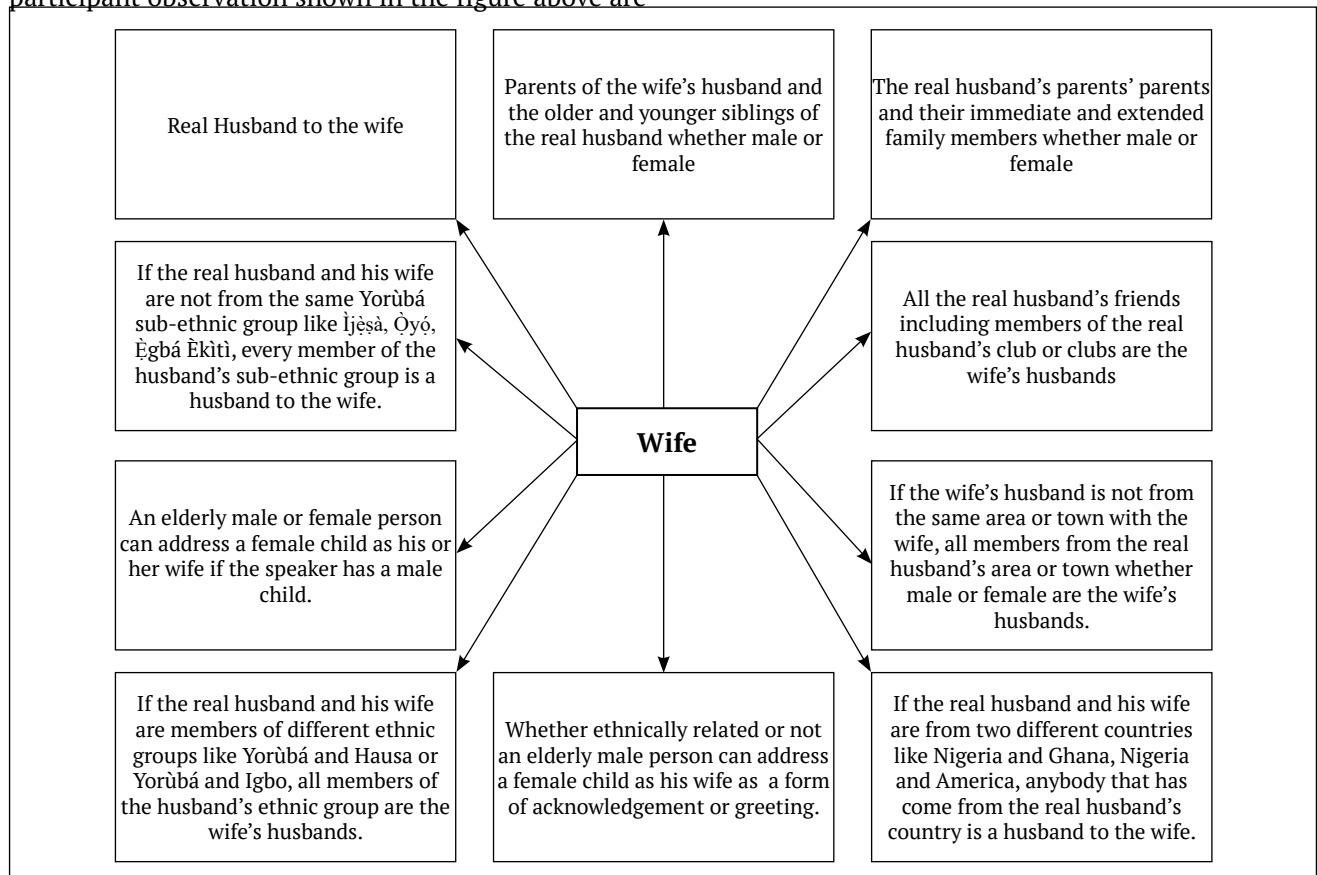


Figure 1. The Various Uses of the word ‘Wife’ among the Yorùbá People.

THE SEMANTIC EXPANSION OF 'WIFE' AND 'HUSBAND'

<p>Odejobi: Olódùmarè, where is your face? You're the King, Creator; the King, Maker of all. You are the only King who never leaves a thing unfinished. Those who do not know You do not know Your worth. Everything You do is perfect.</p>	<p>Bride: Hope all is well. Father-in-law: Hello ma. All is well. She is Şolá's wife, your son...</p>
---	---

It is also possible for a man to address his friend's wife as his wife as shown in line 4 of the data below.

Friend A:	Kèmi wù mí lòmọ, mo fẹ fẹ ẹ.
Friend B:	Kèmi èwo?
Friend A:	Èyí tó şẹşẹ jáde ilé-ìwé gíga.
Friend B:	Ah! Má dé bè rára; iyawó wa ni o. Ìyawó ọmọ ẹgbẹ ẹ wa ni.

In the excerpt below also, a man that has more than a wife is shown in the introductory section of the excerpt as well as in line 1 of the excerpt.

(Ilé Bàbá ọde, àwoṣon iyawó rẹ ti tójú gbogbo ẹran tó pa bo, láti ọru. Woṣon ti gúnyán fẹlẹ fọko, woṣon je...)

<p>Bàbá Ọde: (ó n pe iyawó rẹ àgbà, Ọşúnwenú...) Ọşúnwenú, Ọşúnwenú ọ. Sé etí re di ni tabí o n gbó àgbóya? Bóyá o sì n kà mí lóhun? (Telà, 2008, p. 17)</p>
--

Translation

(Bàbá Ọde's house, where his wives have been busy preparing all the game he brought home from his night hunting. They have also prepared a sumptuous pounded yam meal for him...)

<p>Bàbá Ọde: (Calling his most senior wife, Ọşúnwenú...) Ọşúnwenú, Ọşúnwenú... Are you deaf? Or you deliberately refuse to respond? Or are you counting the number of times I call you?</p>

Among the Yorùbá people, a female relative can address a lady that is married to her relative as her wife as shown in lines 2 and 3 of the data below.

<p>Female relative: (In company of the father-in-law, taking notice of the presence of a young woman and greeting). Pèlẹ o, sisí mi.</p>
--

Father-in-law: Ìyawó ẹ mà niyẹn

Female relative: Ìyawó mi, pèlẹ o.
Sé àlàáfíà ni?

Bride: Ẹ pèlẹ mà. Àlàáfíà ni.

Father-in-law: Ìyawó Şolá, ọmọ rẹ ni...

Translation

Female relative:	Hello, my dear.
Father-in-law:	That is your wife.
Female relative:	My wife, you are welcome.

Translation

Friend A:	Kèmi is so beautiful, I will like to marry her.
Friend B:	Which Kèmi?
Friend A:	The one who recently finished from the university.
Friend A:	Do not even go there; she is our wife. She is the wife of one of our members.

4.2 The semantic expansion or meanings of 'husband' in Yorùbá

The different senses which the word 'husband' in Figure 2 connotes are also presented in this subsection. The word 'husband' in English is [+male, +man, +married].

Two excerpts and one data in support of the information in Figure 2 above are presented as follows. For example, as shown in lines 1 and 4 in the excerpt below, a female person can address another female person as 'okò mi' (my husband).

Mojèrè: Ọgá dẹrẹbà, ẹ dákun, tí a bá dé Ọfà, mo fẹ ra búrédi dání fún ará ilé. N ó ti mú owó sí tòsí.

Dẹrẹbà: Tí ẹ bá ti mò pé ẹ kò ní dá wa dúró. Sé ẹ mò pé alẹ ti lẹ.

Ìyá-àgbà: Okò mi, ò bá sì ti ra búrédi rẹ ní Ìlọrin... (Ẹşọ-Olúbòròdé, 1993, p. 7)

Translation

Mojèrè: Mr driver, please, when we get to Offa, I will like to buy bread for the people at home. I would have brought out the money (before we get to the bread seller's stand).

Driver: If you know you won't waste our time. It is already night.

Ìyá-àgbà: My husband, you ought to have bought the bread way back in Ìlọrin.

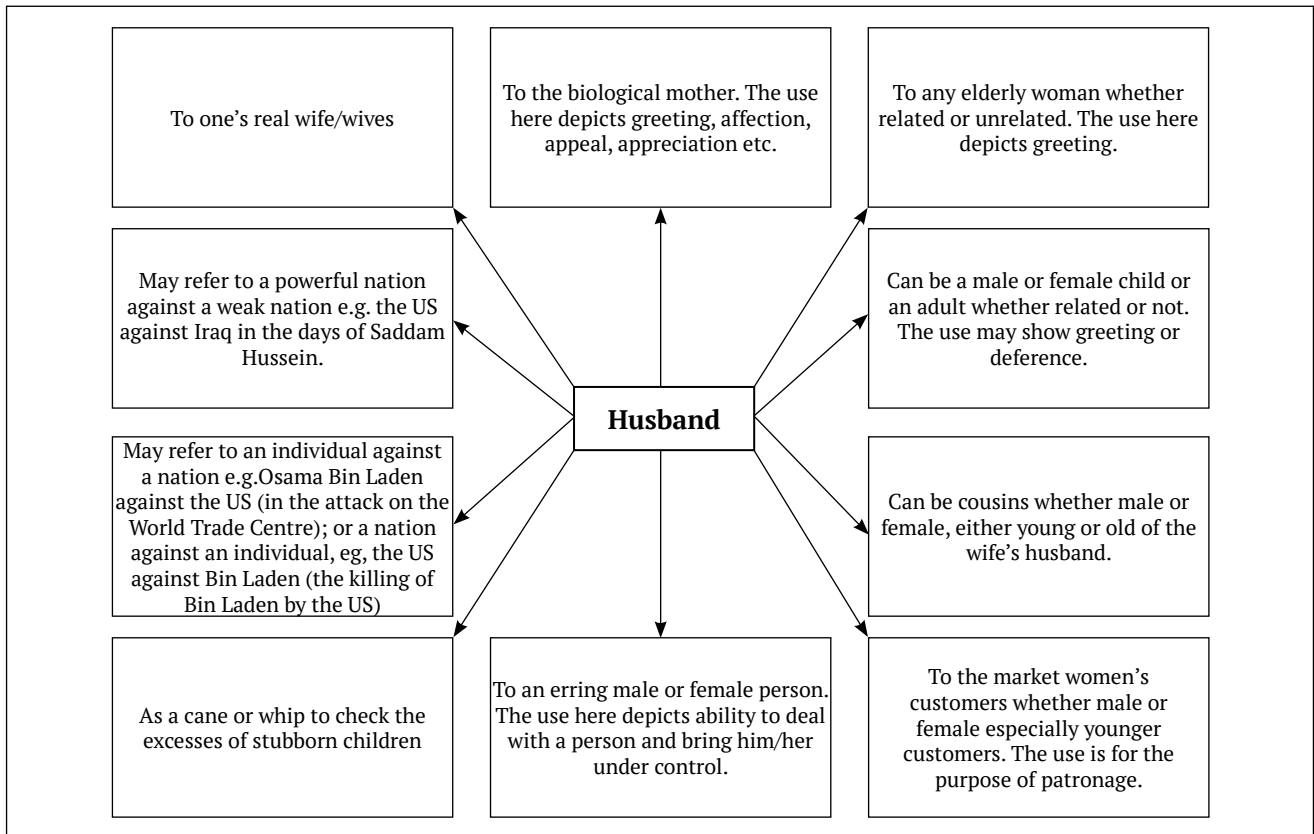


Figure 2. The Various Uses of the word 'Husband' among the Yorùbá People.

However, in the excerpt below, language use by Àdùfẹ́, a woman, shows a discussion between a real wife and her husband as shown in line 1 of the excerpt. The phrase 'baálé mi' can also be realized as 'ọkọ mi' (my husband).

Àdùfẹ́: Baálé mi, ó tó rò, ó yẹ ní síso.
 Sùgbón irú ìpẹ wo la á se
 Fẹni tí ìkòkò pa ìyá rẹ je?
 Se bẹẹ ló pa tirẹ lẹgàn ni?
 Èdùmàrè kó kó wa mò ọn se. (Tẹlà, 2008, p. 25)

Translation

Àdùfẹ́: My husband, it is worth ruminating over, it is enough a topic for discussion. What manner of consolation do you offer someone whose mother was killed by a lion? Do you maintain your own mother was killed in a similar way? May the Almighty God direct our ways.

The information drawn from participant observation in Figure 2 that if the husband is not from the same area or town with the wife, all members from the

real husband's area/town are the wife's husband is supported by the data drawn from the recorded speeches shown below.

Speaker A: Hìn pẹlẹ n'ibe é o.
 Speaker B: E pẹlẹ o. Ìjẹsà ni yín?
 Speaker A: Ìjẹsà ni mètè.
 Speaker B: Àh, èyin ọkọ mi niyẹn!
 Speaker A: Ìjẹsà ọkọ yín?
 Speaker B: Bẹ̀ni...

Translation

Speaker A: (Greeting in Ìjẹsà dialect) Hello, here.
 Speaker B: Greetings. Are you an Ìjẹsà person?
 Speaker A: I am an Ìjẹsà person.
 Speaker B: Ah, you (pl) are my husband!
 Speaker A: Is your husband Ìjẹsà?
 Speaker B: Yes...

However, the various uses which a good Yorùbá dictionary should have for the word 'wife' do not mean that the Yorùbá culture encourages wife-swapping or that the 'wife' plays wifely duties to any of the 'men' whether male or female, young or old

apart from the real husband that the English society understands. The Yorùbá culture simply encourages oneness, harmonious communal living, love and good neighbourliness. This means that the information in the two figures above should be divided into two categories. The information in the first category deals with the real 'wife' or 'wives' and the real 'husband' which usage can easily be understood or be intelligible to the English society. The information in the second category may be a source of confusion to the English society because the use is culture-dependent.

4.3. The uses of 'Wife' and 'Husband' among Greek and Hebrew

It is not only in Yorùbá or African languages that reference is made to culture for word or language interpretation. As already shown in the introductory section of this paper, what is true of African languages is also true of some other world languages. Some of these world languages include Greek¹ and Hebrew². Our discussion below highlights how 'wife' and 'husband' are used in Greek and Hebrew. Earlier, it was mentioned that our data would be drawn from the New World Translation version of the Holy Bible. The data include information drawn from Psalms 45: 14-15, Revelation 14: 3-4, 2 Corinthians 11: 2 and Isaiah 54: 5. For example, the study draws our readers' attention to the word 'virgins' in Psalms 45: 14-15 and Revelation 14: 3-4. In Psalms, it is stated:

In woven apparel she will be brought to the king. The virgins in her train as her companions are being brought in to you. They will be brought with rejoicing and joyfulness. They will enter into the palace of the king.

The book of Revelation also says (see also 2 Corinthians 11: 2):

And they are singing as if a new song before the throne and before the four living creatures and the elders; and no one was able to master that song but the hundred and forty-four thousand, who have been brought from the earth. These are the ones that did not defile themselves with women; in fact, they are virgins. These are the ones that keep following the Lamb no matter where he goes. These were bought from among mankind as first fruits to God and to the Lamb.

¹ Information in the books of Matthew to Revelation was written in Greek.

² Information in the books of Genesis to Malachi was written in Hebrew.

The use of the word 'virgins' as shown in the verses above may be a source of inappropriateness to the owners of the English language because the word, as contained in the English dictionary, can be semantically realized as [+human -sex i.e a human being who has not had any sexual relationship with any person]. But, by our knowledge of the Bible, the list of those who will be followers of Christ will include people like Peter, John and several others who married and gave birth to children (Mark 1: 30; John 10: 16). Similarly, in English society, the word 'husband' connotes a man who is married to a wife or wives and the wife or wives must be female and not male. But, what is true of the English society is at variance with what is true of Greek and Hebrew societies as shown in 2 Corinthians 11: 2 and Isaiah 54: 5 below.

For I am jealous over you with a godly jealousy, for I personally promised you in marriage to one husband that I might present you as a chaste virgin to the Christ (2 Corinthians 11: 2).

For your Grand Maker is your husbandly owner, Jehovah of armies being his name; and the Holy One of Israel is your Repurchaser. The God of the whole earth he will be called (Isaiah 54: 5).

In Corinthians also, it is stated that Christ is the 'husband' of the Church and the Church comprises both male and female worshippers while the nation of Israel is given unto God as a wife and the nation too consists of male and female. It can be argued that the way the English people see the world around them is different from the way the Yorùbá, Greek and Hebrew people see the world around them. Therefore, since English is now used to express several cultural systems that are not native to it and since the English people now accept the Greek and Hebrew world-views through Christianity, it may be necessary for the language to incorporate the non-native cultural systems into its linguistic analysis. Our position is in tandem with an earlier study carried out by Akíndélé and Adégbíté (2000, p. 46) in which they claim that:

There is no gainsaying the fact that English has become a Nigerian language. The language has become an invaluable legacy of the British which has provided Nigerians with yet another means of expressing their culture.

Our argument here is that it is not only Nigerians that use English to express their culture; citizens of other countries also use it. It is even reported in

some Nigerian dailies or Newspapers that the use of English is now a serious threat to the survival of many indigenous languages that are used in British colonies (The Nation of May 17, 2016, p. 4 and July 24, 2016, p. 50; The Sunday Tribune of April 10, 2013, p. 22; The Nigerian Tribune of October 9, 2014, p. 27 and March 6, 2016, p. 3&10). However, one question that has not been addressed in this paper is: are there other ways through which kin address each other or one another among the Yorùbá of Southwestern Nigeria? The answer to this question can form the focus of another paper.

Conclusion

Attempts have been made in this paper to provide evidence in support of semantic expansion of the use of 'wife' and 'husband' not only in a Nigerian or an African language, but also in Greek and Hebrew languages. It has been argued that the use of 'wife' and 'husband' by Yorùbá, Greek and Hebrew people indicates that the way the Yorùbá, Greek and Hebrew see the world around them is different from the way the English society sees the world around it. It is also our position in this paper that the various uses which a good Yorùbá, Greek or Hebrew dictionary should have do not mean that the Yorùbá, Greek or Hebrew culture encourages wife-swapping or that the 'wife' plays wifely duties to any of the 'men' whether male or female, young or old apart from the real husband that the English society understands. Our conclusion, therefore, is that English lexicographers with the assistance of culture translators should publish a specialized dictionary that will take care of kinship terms as it is the case in other specialized dictionaries on the different professions like medicine, linguistics and agriculture, to mention but a few. This suggestion is necessary especially now that the English language has become an invaluable legacy which non-native speakers of the language use to express their culture as well as the fact that many English people now accept the Greek and Hebrew world-views through Christianity.

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Roundtable Discussion in Language Teaching: Assessing Subject Knowledge and Language Skills

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Roundtable discussions have been effectively used for educational purposes for years. However, being widely used in an academic environment as a tool for education, roundtable discussions remain under-investigated as a form of summative and formative assessment. The purpose of this research was to determine the efficiency of a roundtable discussion to evaluate subject knowledge and to test EFL/ESL proficiency level both during the classroom assessment and final examination. To use a roundtable discussion as an objective assessment tool, clear criteria were developed. They included but were not limited to scoring the task completion, macro and micro skills in speaking and language components, which were assessed according to the CEFR descriptor bands appropriate to the students' level of learning. Being crucial to the development of general communicative competence, macro and micro skills in speaking were also taken into account during the assessment stage. Results of the research showed that roundtable discussions were clearly advantageous to face-to-face interviews in honing general academic skills, assessing subject knowledge of the course and students' EFL/ESL language skills. This suggests that the use of roundtable discussions can be recommended as a form of summative and formative assessment.

Keywords: roundtable discussion, macro- and micro skills in speaking, evaluation criteria, summative and formative assessment, CEFR, EFL/ESL, communicative competence

The aim of this article is to provide an example of the use of a roundtable discussion (RTD) as an effective assessment tool. Not only are roundtable discussions highly relevant to tertiary education programmes where they are used in a variety of subjects to raise questions and share views on dubious issues, but they are also an effective and efficient means of assessment.

Nowadays more and more schools in Russia and all over the world rely on the standardised testing as the most objective assessment tool. They assess knowledge with a test and as a consequence start teaching to the test which, in its turn, leads to a vicious circle. There is no place for variety and critical thinking in "teaching to the test" methodology. There is no doubt that students tend to pay more attention and devote more time to a particular subject or issue if they know that what they do is closely connected with an exam. However positive as it may seem, testing shouldn't be

the only technique in education and assessment.

Language testing today is mostly associated with the assessment of listening, writing and reading skills; nevertheless, it is also widely used in speaking evaluation. Standardised face-to-face exams imply the use of a prompt, either written or visual, by a candidate and a set of criteria to be used by an examiner. Without doubts a student might be trained to answer successfully nearly any question by juggling the information given in the prompt and a number of clichés and set phrases learned by heart. Such examinations will reflect neither the true depth of a candidate's knowledge nor his/her language proficiency level. This situation might change if we combine different types of evaluation incorporating new forms to summative and formative assessment e.g., forms of alternative assessment.

According to Brown and Hudson (1998), teachers

have always used various forms of assessment in the classroom, and such alternatives in assessment as portfolios, conferences, diaries, self-assessments, etc. are just new developments in that long tradition. By all odds, there are many academic works dedicated to standardised and alternative assessment (Buhagiar, 2007; Sandrarajun, Kiely, 2009; Brown, 1998; Walvoord, 1998; Bachman, 2002; Richards and Renandya, 2011; Jacobs, 2001; etc.), but only a few of them touch upon the issue of the use of particular forms of alternative assessment as a substitute to standardised exams (Tatter, 2012) and none of them explores the use of roundtable discussions as an alternative to summative and formative assessment both in subject matters and ELT.

Preliminary research has shown that there are some institutions where alternative assessment is widely used. For instance, there is a consortium of public high schools in the US which allows their students not to sit traditional exams but to be assessed on the ground of a portfolio review (Tatter, 2012). However, even though some of them use roundtable discussions as a part of this portfolio, they do not intend it to substitute assessment or to test students' knowledge of specific facts (Sokoloff-Rubin, 2013; Maio, 2002).

This article, in its turn, argues that a roundtable discussion might be used as an effective tool of summative and formative assessment which allows both to assess subject knowledge and to test students' EFL proficiency level. Moreover, not only does a roundtable discussion enable to evaluate students' subject knowledge of the course material and their foreign language skills, but it also prepares students for their further academic and professional life. This article will look into both theoretical base of the use of RTD and will provide a detailed plan of the roundtable discussion and evaluation criteria.

Alternative assessment

Alternative assessment includes, but is not limited to such tasks as journals, logs, audio- and videotaping, self-evaluation (Huerta-Macias, 1995), portfolios and projects (Dikli, 2003; Padilla, 1996; Short, 1993; Nunes, 2004). Two major concepts are associated with alternative assessment: authentic assessment (Lewkowicz, 2000; Wu and Stansfield, 2001; Joy, 2011; Aksu Atac, 2012, Wiggins, 1998) and portfolio assessment (Reeves, 2000; Padilla, 1996; Short, 1993; Nunes, 2004). Portfolio assessment involves evaluation of a collection of student works created with a particular aim at hand, whereas, authentic assessment aims at evaluation of a student's general performance level in a task which reflects a real world issue (Elliott, 1995). This is what makes alternative assessment meaningful, as the skills acquired, developed or

evaluated through it are the ones that urge students to use higher order thinking skills needed in real-life (Nasab, 2015). So, what makes alternative assessment truly alternative?

There is a set of common characteristics provided by different researchers (Aschbacher, 1991; Herman, Aschbacher and Winters, 1992; Huerta-Macias, 1995; Brown and Hudson, 1998; Short, 1991; Crandall, 1987; Semple, 1992). In their view, alternative assessment requires students to create, perform or produce something; focuses on both a process and a result; involves authentic or semi-authentic task types; taps into higher level problem-solving and critical thinking skills; evaluates skills needed in real life; is multiculturally sensitive when administered in a proper way; ensures that the scoring is administered by people, not automatically; encourages transparent set of scoring criteria available to both teachers and students well in advance; and motivates teachers to perform new instructional and assessment roles.

Talking about the use of alternative assessment in language teaching, it should be noted that it aims at the integrative evaluation of such skills as listening for detail: i.e., ability to listen to the required information and understand it; organising a large unit of oral discourse, using various oral techniques (describe, compare, express personal opinion, speculate); involving an interlocutor in a conversation and keeping the ball of the conversation rolling; expressing ideas, giving personal opinion, expanding and supporting it with relevant examples; and jotting down keywords, sequencing ideas and talking on the subject using the notes made.

Taking into consideration all of the above, the following forms of oral communication, which are widely used in language teaching in an academic environment, fit into the category of alternative assessment: roundtable discussions, debates, oral presentations, conference talks and roleplays.

Talking about the strengths of alternative assessment (as stated above) it is worth mentioning some disadvantages typically associated with it. For example, all the material should be profoundly studied both by the student and the teacher; enough time should be allocated for the assessment; if more than 8 people are to be assessed 2 or more examiners are required; raters should be properly trained; strict and transparent assessment criteria are crucial for objective scoring; moreover, the use of alternative assessment task types as a form of summative and formative assessment is generally considered as non-standardised.

Yet, these disadvantages are typical of all forms of assessment, notwithstanding its form. It takes time and labor to design valid materials which will document attainment of students' learning outcomes.

The ratings might be subjective if raters are not trained and/or strict rating rubrics are not used. To be administered properly they require time and efficient coordination. Moreover, they are vulnerable to student cheating.

In a nutshell, given that various assessment types have similar drawbacks, the use of RTD as a form of formative (classroom assessment, mid-term assessment) and summative (final examination) might be justified.

Method

Research background

Before considering the use of RTD exam itself, it is necessary to give an overview of the teaching context in which it was initially created and used. The author has been engaged in teaching the British Studies CLIL course for more than five years to the first and third year students at the Lomonosov Moscow State University (MSU) and to bachelor (BA) and master (MA) students at National Research University Higher School of Economics (HSE). After graduation, MSU BA students were supposed to work as translators, interpreters, and/or specialists in cross-cultural communication and HSE BA and MA students were getting ready to become teachers of English. The British-studies course itself was designed to assist both categories of students with subject knowledge about the country and the language needed both for their BA and MA studies and their future professional life. Considering the fact that in real life most of the issues are usually discussed and solved during the roundtable discussions, it seemed instrumental to give students an input on RTD and numerous opportunities to practise it throughout the course instead of using a far-from-real-world form of assessment.

For the purpose of this study, data was collected from 90 students all together: 50 students at MSU and 40 at HSE.

Traditional approach to formative and summative assessment

Today in Russia, two forms of summative and formative assessment co-exist. The first one is an oral test or exam with question cards (an interview type personal-response assessment), and the second one is a written test with selected-response questions and, sometimes, with constructed-response questions. Tests and essays are more common in language courses while oral exams, the interview type (face-to-face with an examiner), are widely used in all the humanities subjects.

The roundtable assessment procedure

The roundtable procedure is different. Students are examined simultaneously in groups (up to 15 people). They are required to give a 2-3 minute presentation of their positions, which is followed by a 3-4 minute question phase when students have to defend their positions by providing further evidence and arguments to support them. This is done to provide students with the insight into the world of real professional RTDs. Two examiners are present: the interlocutor, who is responsible for the timing of the exam and for interaction, and the assessor, who completes the score sheet. The interlocutor role is essential because when there are more than 3 people in a group a personality becomes an issue and the interlocutor should monitor the time and make sure that every participant has an opportunity to speak¹.

Roundtables in summative and formative assessment

Throughout the course, RTDs were used both as a summative and a formative assessment tool. The main difference was in the width of the subject knowledge tested, speaking micro- and macro skills evaluated (e.g. ability to express ideas, ability to ask and answer questions, ability to weigh advantages and disadvantages, ability to speculate about causes and consequences) and RTD timing, as shown in Table 1.

An RTD as classroom assessment was used mostly to discuss historical questions and took not more than 20 minutes. The main emphasis was made on the assessment of the understanding of key concepts devoted to one theme and the development of particular micro skills in speaking. Students based their answers on the material presented in the course book chapter. Students' participation was not compulsory; no extra preparation, apart from reading a chapter of the course book, was required.

As a midterm assessment, the RTD was used to discuss an issue which linked more than two themes; for example, the role of Henry VIII's reforms in Britain then and now. To take part in the RTD students had to find information relevant to their role. During the RTD, they had to speak as if they were a real historical person: Henry VIII, or a member of Parliament, or a merchant or a member of the gentry, etc. Their answer was based on the course book chapters and on the analysis of other historical materials. Students could choose a person they wanted to represent. Roles and RTD theme were known four weeks in advance, so students had time to prepare for the assessment. The emphasis was on the subject knowledge but more

¹ If RTD is used as a classroom assessment tool then the interlocutor role should be given to one of the students.

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Table 1
RTD in summative and formative assessment

	Classroom assessment	Midterm assessment	Final examination	
Theme	Problem / Issue	A problem / issue inside one theme	A problem / issue, linking more than two themes	All themes covered during the course
	Known / Unknown prior to RTD	Unknown	Known	Known
	Participation	Not obligatory	Obligatory	Obligatory
Roles	Role	Personal opinion expressed	Specific historical person	General role (e.g., educator, politician...)
	Distribution	N/a	Might be chosen by a student	Assigned randomly
	Known / unknown prior to RTD	N/a	Known	Unknown
Supporting material	Course book chapter	Course book chapter/s, additional sources	Course book, additional sources	
Macro- and micro skills tested	A few micro skills	A number of micro skills and / or one macro skill	All backbone micro skills in speaking, a number of macro skills	
Subject knowledge tested	An issue on one topic/theme	One / two themes	All themes covered during the course	
Prior preparation	Not required	Required	Required	
Timing	20 minutes	60 minutes	90-120 minutes	

micro skills and even a number of macro skills in speaking were assessed.

A roundtable was also used as a final examination and aimed mostly at assessment and evaluation of the subject knowledge covered during the course together with speaking skills. It lasted 90 minutes and 15 students participated in RTD. This time was enough for each of them both to share their own point of view and to ask questions to other participants. The RTD theme was known in advance but the roles were assigned randomly at the beginning of the examination. Students had to present an opinion of the person, connected with a particular field: i.e., politics, education, food and drinks, transport and so on. No written follow-up task was given this time.

Measures

To make RTD a real objective assessment tool and use it as an alternative to an oral examination with question cards it was crucial to develop clear criteria. Table 2 shows the score chart that was used throughout the course.

In respect of the task, separate marks were given for the task understanding and compliance with the role given. As for the content, students were assessed on their ability to defend their own point of view providing arguments, supported by facts and references to authorities, without unnecessary repetitions. They also had to interact with other participants by asking and answering questions. Students' general presentation style was also evaluated.

Table 2
Score chart

Criteria	Classroom assessment	Midterm assessment	Final examination
Task	15 %	20 %	20 %
Content	25%	30 %	30 %
Participation and presentation	25%	20 %	20 %
Language components	15 %	30 %	30 %
Follow-up writing task	20%	n/a	n/a

For the assessment of the language components (grammar and vocabulary), CEFR descriptor bands appropriate to the students' level of learning were used, and both range and accuracy were taken into account.

The weighting was calculated on the basis of points assigned for particular criterion and divided by the total number of grade points: 27 and 22 points respectfully for classroom assessment and midterm assessment / final examination. The total number of grade points varied, as the follow-up writing task was not used during the midterm assessment and final examination. The detailed score chart used throughout the course is shown in Table 3.

As it was a CLIL course, the RTD was used for the assessment of subject knowledge and language proficiency. So a number of micro- and macro skills in speaking were also evaluated and a separate score chart was used for classroom, mid-term and final

Table 3
Roundtable score chart

Criteria	Points			Max	Comments
	0	1	2		
TASK				Max 4	
Task understanding	No	Not entirely	Yes		
Compliance with the role	No	Not entirely	Yes		
CONTENT				Max 7	
Level/quality of the information given				Max 3	
Number of references to authorities	No	Yes (1-2)	Yes (>2)		
Personal opinion	No	Yes			
Arguments: use of facts and support material				Max 4	
Number of arguments	No	Yes (1-2)	Yes (>2)		
Repetitions	-1 if there are any				
Answering questions (defending personal position)	No	Yes (1-2)	Yes (>2)		
PRESENTATION AND PARTICIPATION				Max 7	
Presentation style				Max 4	
Logic	No	Yes			
Clarity and perspicuity	No	Yes			
Interest of the audience	No	Yes			
Interaction with the audience	No	Yes			
Questions to other participants				Max 3	
Number of questions	No	Yes (1-2)	Yes (>2)		
Repetitions	-1 if there are any				
Different participants were asked	No	Yes			
LANGUAGE COMPONENTS				Max 4	
Vocabulary	>B2	B2			
Grammar	>B2	B2			
Micro- and macro skills in speaking	No	Not entirely	Yes		
FOLLOW-UP WRITING TASK				Max 5	
Structure	No	Yes			
Logic	No	Yes			
Compliance with the role	No	Yes			
Vocabulary	>B2	B2			
Grammar	>B2	B2			
TOTAL				Max 27	

assessment. They varied from classroom assessment to final examination but were known to students prior to RTDs. Among those evaluated were the 10 backbone microskills in speaking which underlay the majority of macroskills and are crucial for the development of general communicative skills (Rodomanchenko, 2014), such as, ability to express ideas, ability to provide relevant explanations, ability to express an opinion, ability to weigh advantages and disadvantages, ability to speculate about causes and consequences, ability

to summarize given information, ability to answer questions, ability to report back to what was said to confirm or reject, ability to handle interjections, and ability to use appropriate register.

Apart from the discussion itself, students were asked to complete a follow-up writing task, which included an overview of what they presented during the RTD. This overview was published on the course page on wikispaces.com and was evaluated both by the teacher and peers. Because of the written task itself

and the strict rating rubrics, students changed tactics while preparing for RTD. At the beginning of the course, they participated in RTD with a pile of unstructured printed material from the Internet in front of them. It negatively influenced the structure of their oral speech and later led to a very time-consuming writing task. Having analysed written overviews published by their peers on the wiki, students devoted more time to the analysis of resources: they started highlighting arguments and counterarguments, the most important and the least important; they began structuring their oral presentation beforehand. All in all, this written task had a very positive effect both on oral and written presentations and a reduction in the preparation time.

The students’ opinions

After the RTD exam, 90 students were asked to provide feedback on the use of RTD in the classroom by answering the following questions:

1. In your opinion, is RTD an alternative to a traditional oral examination? (yes/no) (as shown in figure 1)
2. What are the advantages and disadvantages of RTD examination? (short answer) (as shown in figure 2)

Students also had an opportunity to comment on the use of RTD. The results of the questionnaire are presented in the Figures 1 and 2 together with the most vivid comments given below.

Students’ feedback

Students offered feedback on various aspects of roundtable discussion. The quotes below represent them.

“This type of assessment is optimal for the acquisition of an oral model of a foreign language.”

“I think that RTD might be effectively used as an exam because it:

- reduces general stress level;
- gives an opportunity to show my knowledge in many areas;
- is just an interesting form of communication;
- allows to share my personal point of view.”

“I think that RTD is an effective form of assessment. To prepare for an exam I had to review all the material covered during the year as if I was preparing for an ordinary exam with question cards. However, the RTD form itself is unusual and comfortable. First of all, during such kind of exam students worry less. I personally wasn’t stressed at all. Secondly, we had an opportunity to discuss a topic, which is important for the development of a person as a whole, share our personal point of view and listen to the opinion of others. The last, but not the least, it was very useful

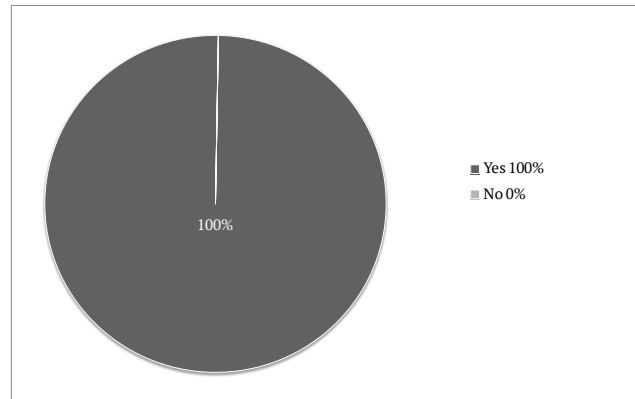


Figure 1. Is RTD an alternative to a traditional oral examination?

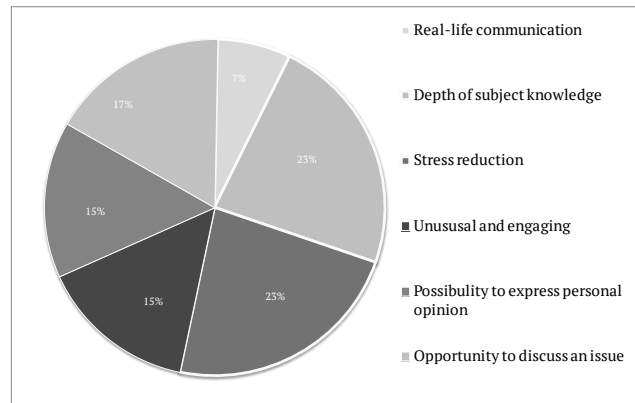


Figure 2. The advantages and disadvantages of an RTD examination.

as I think that during this exam, just in 90 minutes we acquired and honed skills that we will definitely use in future.”

“I think that RTD is the best form of an exam. When we have exams with question cards, it is impossible to show all that we’ve learned during the course, because when we get a question card we have to speak on one, rarely two themes, which are sometimes our weakest ones. RTD shows all breadth of knowledge as a teacher may see that a student knows the topic not only when he/she is talking on behalf of his/her role, but during the question stage or general discussion as well. Moreover, students are not that frustrated and stressed as they are during the normal exam. Moreover, students may argue and even debate with other RTD participants, which is a big plus. It’d be really good if we had such types of exams in all our courses.”

Results and Discussion

In a nutshell, roundtable discussions might be an alternative to a traditional oral examination with

question cards as they assess and evaluate subject knowledge; are held orally and thus, a foreign language is used throughout RTDs and might be evaluated as well; provide an invaluable opportunity to assess subject knowledge and foreign language speaking skills simultaneously.

Moreover, roundtable discussions have some advantages over traditional forms of assessment as they create a semi-authentic atmosphere of the natural flow of communication with a native speaker; test knowledge of all themes covered during the course, not just one or two; allow students to stop being nervous, but concentrate on the issue at hand and feel confident, because they are not in the spotlight all the time; and assist students with practising their RTD skills which are needed both for their BA studies, post-graduate studies and their future professional life.

Roundtable discussions have been used for educational purposes in an academic environment for years. The author herself has been using RTDs for more than five years and found them to be an efficient and effective means of education and assessment. The research showed that RTDs develop important language skills and promote independent learning. Not only do RTDs involve speaking skills, but also reading (to prepare for the discussion and find relevant supporting material), listening (to the other members of the discussion and to the questions asked) and writing (to complete the follow-up writing task). What is more, roundtable discussions enable teachers to evaluate students' subject knowledge of a course and their foreign language skills, and prepare students for their further academic and professional life.

The expedience of the use of RTDs should be taken into consideration both by tertiary educators and secondary school teachers as RTDs have proved to be an efficient tool for education while the evaluation criteria described in the article promote reliable scoring of the exam.

This study would enhance with further research and analysis on the use of RTDs as a form of summative and formative assessment in different educational contexts. It would be instrumental to encourage educators from various institutions throughout the world to use RTDs as an assessment tool in order to see if their use might be justified in every sphere and whether the perception of students towards this form of evaluation would differ depending on their cultural background and the subject taught.

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Stressed and Unstressed Syllable Alternation in Educated Edo (Nigerian) English

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Standard British English (SBE) rhythm is characterised by stressed and unstressed syllable alternation. Phonological investigations from non-native English such as Nigerian English (NE) have claimed that NE differs remarkably from SBE, especially in the area of rhythm. Existing phonological studies on Educated Edo English (EEE) – a sub-variety of NE – have been on word and variable stress while studies on stressed and unstressed syllable alternation have been rare. This study, therefore, investigated the extent to which Educated Edo English Speakers (EES) stressed and unstressed syllable alternation conforms to SBE rhythm. Prince and Liberman's (1977) metrical theory, which explains the alternation of strong and weak constituents in SBE rhythm units, served as a theoretical framework. A purposive sampling technique was used to select 150 (75 males and 75 females) EES while 2 SBE speakers served as Native Baselines (NB). Speech Filing System (SFS) version 1.41 was used to record the production of a validated instrument of 40 rhythm units, with stressed and unstressed syllable alternation. The recordings were transcribed and subjected to a perceptual analysis (frequency and percentages). Out of 6000 expected instances of stressed and unstressed syllable alternation, the participants had 694 (11.6%), while inappropriate use was higher, with 5,306 (88.4%). The performance of EES males showed 5.7% and the females 5.9%. The grids of EES showed proliferation of Strong/Strong (S/S) juxtaposition of stressed and unstressed syllables in rhythm units, compared to the NB alternation of Weak/Strong (W/S) or Strong/Weak (S/W). Results confirmed that EES alternation of stressed and unstressed syllables in rhythm units differ 'markedly' from those of the SBE form.

Keywords: educated Edo English, stressed and unstressed syllable alternation, rhythm units, Standard British English, NE

Every human language has its own characteristic rhythm. One of the most difficult areas to master in the spoken form of a foreign language is its rhythm. Rhythm in English is not just something extra, it is not something that is added to the basic sequence of consonants and vowels, it is the guide to the structure of information in the spoken message (Odujibe, 2015). In Nigerian English (NE), rhythm is a major area where Nigerian spoken English has been observed to deviate from Received Pronunciation (RP). Various nomenclatures have been used to describe NE rhythm. Some linguists say NE is syllable timing (Akinjobi, 2004; Iloilo, 2013; Akindele, 2015; Akinjobi & Akindele, 2016) while others are of the opinion that it is full-vowel timing (Udofot, 1997, 2003) or in-elastic-timing

(Eka, 1993).

Eka (1993) argues that NE rhythm is in-elastic-timed due to NE speakers' use of prominent syllables and inability to 'squeeze-in' or 'stretch-out' the syllables in a rhythm unit as RP speakers do. However, NE has been observed to have many sub-varieties, with over 250 ethnic groups and 522 languages attested for Nigeria (Lewis et al., 2013).

The periodic recurrence of movement between stressed and unstressed syllables in connected speech constitutes the stress-timing rhythm of SBE (Abercrombie, 1967; Roach, 2010). Stress-timing rhythm implies that the time to produce each foot in a sentence is expected to be equal, regardless of the numbers of unstressed syllables in the foot. In other

words, in stress-timing rhythm, time is based on each foot while in syllable-timing rhythm; time is based on each syllable. For example, in the following sentence “father has bought a ‘car”. The sentence has three feet. The first foot has three syllables, the second has two syllables and the last foot has one syllable; despite the fact that the number of syllables in each foot is unequal (Roach, 2000; Osisanwo, 2012). This means that stressed syllables tend to occur at relatively regular intervals of time whether or not they are separated by unstressed syllables. It takes roughly the same amount of time to produce one stressed syllable to another. There is a tendency to rush over the stressed syllables because of the need to maintain a kind of time regularity. As a rule, English stress avoids having stresses close together (Osisanwo, 2012. Odujebi, 2015).

Lubega (1989) and Katsiavriades (2002, p. 1) note that the English language is accepted and used in all the corners of the globe in a linguistically and culturally diverse communities where it serves a wide range of functions. It is estimated that there are over 300 million native speakers, and 300 million use English as a second language (L2) while about 100 million use it as a foreign language. It is listed as the official and co-official language of over forty-five countries and it is spoken in other countries where it has no official status. Davidson (2007) remarks that 90% of the world’s 6,000 languages are currently threatened by the domination of English. Below is a brief analysis of the status of the English language in the world:

Table 1.1
The Status of the English Language in the World

	ENL	ESL	EFL	TOTAL
BC: E 2000	350	350	100	800m
Crystal	320-380	150-300	100-1000	570-160m
Graddol	375	375	750	1,500m

Sources: (McArthur, 2006 and Akindele, 2015)

Table 1 overleaf, apparently shows that different roles have been assigned to English in the different nations in which it is used. Some nations use the English language as their mother tongue, that is, the native speakers while the non-native speakers use it either as a second language or as a foreign language. In Nigeria for instance, it is assigned the role of an official language and second language (McArthur, 1999; Katsiavriades, 2002, p. 2; Oyeniyi, 2006; Davidson, 2007). The term “non-native English”, therefore, reflects the existence of observable variation in the use of the language by its non-native users as a result of its contact with various indigenous languages. The origin of the term “non-native English” can be traced to two

conferences on English as a world language which took place in 1978 in Haiti, and the second which took place in June-July at the University of Illinois, Urbana Champaign, where Kachru and Larry played a major role in the conferences (Smith, 1981; Kachru, 1982, 2008; Bolton, 2004). Kachru’s model of ‘non-native Englishes’ identified three concentric circles: The Inner Circle, the Outer (or Extended) Circle and the Expanding Circle. These circles represent the types of spread, the patterns of acquisition, the range of functional domains, and the social penetration of the language. Hence, the term ‘non-native English(es)’ is presently seen as a reality, as varieties of Englishes have been noticed in the various fields of language study - grammar, morphology, lexis, semantics, discourse, syntax and phonology. Therefore, we can talk of Indian English, Ghanaian English, Nigerian English, of which Educated Edo English is a sub-variety, and lots of other non-native Englishes (Kachru, 2008).

Earlier studies investigated Nigerian English rhythm from the perspective of reduction in the quality of English vowels but this research intends to find out whether Educated Edo English Speakers alternate stressed and unstressed syllables in a rhythm unit from the practical sense. Moreover, the study considers Edo spoken English from a ‘geo-ethnic approach’ - an ethnic minority group of South West Nigeria, out of the multifarious linguistic groups in Nigeria - since there could be areas of convergence and divergence within a language variety.

This paper aims to address the following research questions:

- Do Educated Edo English Speakers appropriately alternate stressed and unstressed syllables in rhythm units?
- Is there any significant difference in the conformity of Edo males and females to Standard British English in stressed and unstressed syllable alternation of English rhythm units?
- To what extent does Educated Edo English Speakers’ rhythm pattern conform to earlier description of other Nigerian English sub-varieties rhythm description as syllable or inelastic timed?

Method

University undergraduates who are assumed to have relative proficiency in spoken English, due to years of training and exposure to spoken English in ESL environment were purposively sampled for this research. A short English passage segmented into forty rhythm units of 150 stressed and unstressed syllables in alternation as typically used in SBE constituted

the instrument, while Prince and Liberman's (1977) metrical grid which explains strong and weak alternation in rhythm unit in a hierarchical order was adopted as the theoretical framework. Segmentation of passage was made into phrases of 40 rhythm units in order to provide a solid scientific platform for studying rhythm, stress and the peculiar patterns of Educated Edo English speakers, as remarkably different from SBE form. The informants comprised one hundred and fifty (75 males and 75 females) were asked to produce each English rhythm unit into a computerized speech laboratory (SFS), version 1.41. Speech production of each of the informants was later played back and transcribed. Frequency count of the appropriate alternation of stressed and unstressed syllables of each rhythm group of each of the informants was tracked; with each rhythm unit allotted 1 mark and converted to simple percentages. To determine the extent to which Educated Edo English Speakers alternation of stressed and unstressed syllables of English rhythm unit conform to Standard British English form, the number of correctly alternated stressed and unstressed syllables of the rhythm group was reckoned as a percentage of the total frequency of the occurrence of correctly alternated forms. That is, the number of

correctly alternated stressed and unstressed syllables in each rhythm units is divided by the total items in instrument, and multiplied by 100.

Results

Table 1 represents the performance of EEES in the appropriate alternation of stressed and unstressed syllables in English rhythm units. Out of 6,000 expected instances of occurrence, the participants alternated stressed and unstressed syllables of the English rhythm units appropriately in 694 (11.6%) instances, while inappropriate use was higher, with 5,306 (88.4%).

Table 2 depicts the performance of EEES in the appropriate alternation of stressed and unstressed syllables by sex. The male participants alternated stressed and unstressed syllables appropriately in 344 (5.7%) instances, with inappropriate use of 2,576 (44.3%) while EEES females' appropriate use was higher, with 351 (5.9%) instances, and inappropriate use of 2,649 (44.1%). Figure 2 below further gives this illustration:

Table 1
Educated Edo English Speakers alternation of stressed and unstressed syllables

S/N	English Rhythm units	Participants	Appropriate Alternation	% of Appropriate Alternation	Inappropriate Alternation	% of Inappropriate Alternation
Native Baselines 1			100	100%	0	0%
Native Baselines 2			100	100%	0	0%
1.	it has been said that several // it həsbɪ:nseɪdðætEsevrəl//	150	0	0%	150	100%
2.	educated // 'edʒʊkətɪd//	150	79	52.7%	71	47.3%
3.	as well as parents and em //əsweləs'peərəntsəndɪm//	150	0	0%	150	100%
4.	ployers of // 'plɔɪəzəv//	150	0	0%	150	0%
5.	labour are be // 'leɪbərəbɪ//	150	0	0%	150	100%
6.	ginning to // ɡɪnɪŋtə//	150	0	0%	150	100%
7.	get // get//	150	150	100%	0	0%
8.	worried a // 'wʌrɪdə//	150	0	0%	150	100%
9.	bout the// 'baʊtðə//	150	0	0%	150	100%
10.	quality of // 'kwɒlɪtiəv//	150	0	0%	150	150%
11.	graduates from these // 'grædʒʊeɪtsfrəmði:z//	150	0	0%	150	100%
12.	universities. the // ,ju:nɪ'vɜ:sɪtɪzðə//	150	0	0%	150	100%
13.	fact re// 'fæktɪr//	150	150	100%	0	0%
14.	mains that the // meɪnzðætði//	150	0	0%	150	100%
15.	issue of // 'ɪʃu:əv//	150	0	0%	150	100%
16.	quality// 'kwɒlɪti//	150	150	100%	0	0%

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17.	cannot be de// 'kænətbið//	150	0	0%	150	100%
18.	terminated by the // 'tɜ:mɪndbaɪðə//	150	0	0%	150	62%
19.	universities a // ,ju:nɪ'vɜ:sɪtɪə//	150	0	0%	150	100%
20.	lone. it // 'ləʊnɪt	150	0	0%	150	100%
21.	also de // 'ɔ:lsoʊdɪ//	150	0	0%	150	100%
22.	pend on a // 'pendzənə//	150	0	0%	150	100%
23.	/number of // 'nʌmbərəv//	150	0	0%	150	100%
24.	factors which in // 'fæktəzwtʃɪn//	150	0	0%	150	100%
25.	include the a // 'klu:dɪə//	150	0	0%	150	100%
26.	bility of the // 'bɪlətɪəvðə//	150	0	0%	150	100%
27.	student, the // 'stju:dntðə//	150	0	0%	150	100%
28.	level of // 'levləvəkə//	150	0	0%	150	100%
29.	mmitment to// 'mɪtmənttə//	150	0	0%	150	100%
30.	reading, as well as the // 'ri:dɪŋzweɪləzðə//	150	0	0%	150	100%
31.	physical, // 'fɪzɪkl//	150	15	10%	135	90%
32.	psychological and e // ,saɪkə'lɒdʒɪkəlndɪ //	150	0	0%	150	100%
33.	motional// 'məʊʃnəl//	150	0	0%	150	100%
34.	factors. // 'fæktəz//	150	0	0%	150	100%
35.	all these help to de // 'ɔ:lði:zhelpɪtədi//	150	0	0%	150	100%
36.	termine, fa //tɜ: mɪnfə//	150	0	0%	150	100%
37.	silitate and en // 'sɪlɪteɪtəndɪn//	150	0	0%	150	100%
38.	hance the/ 'hɑ:nsðə//	150	0	0%	150	100%
39.	quality of a // 'kwɒlɪtɪəvə//	150	0	0%	150	100%
40.	graduate. // 'grædʒoʊɪt//	150	150	100%	0	0%
Total		6,000	694	11.6%	5,306	88.4%

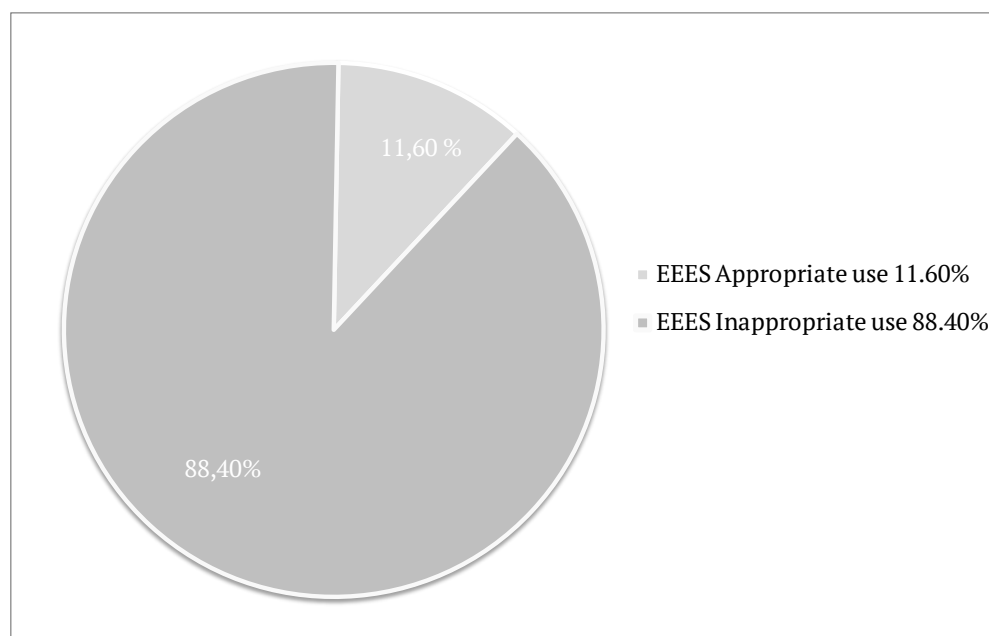


Figure 1. Educated Edo English Speakers alternation of stressed and unstressed syllables in Rhythm Units.

Table 2

Male and Female Educated Edo English Speakers' alternation of stressed and unstressed syllables in Rhythm Units

S/N	English Rhythm units	Participants		Appropriate Alternation				Inappropriate Alternation			
		M	F	M	%	F	%	M	%	F	%
1.	it has been said that several // it həsbi:nseɪət@sevɾəl//	75	75	0	0	0	0	75	50	75	50
2.	educated // 'edʒəkertɪd//	75	75	35	23.3	44	29.3	36	24	35	23.3
3.	as well as parents and em // əsweləs'peərəntsəndɪm//	75	75	0	0	0	0	75	50	75	50
4.	ployers of // 'plɔɪəzəv//	75	75	0	0	0	0	75	50	75	50
5.	labour are be // 'leɪbərəbɪ//	75	75	0	0	0	0	75	50	75	50
6.	ginning to // ɡɪnɪŋtə//	75	75	0	0	0	0	75	50	75	50
7.	get // 'get//	75	75	75	50	75	50	0	0	0	0
8.	worried a // 'wʌrɪdə//	75	75	0	0	0	0	75	50	75	50
9.	bout the// 'baʊtðə//	75	75	0	0	0	0	75	50	75	50
10.	quality of // 'kwɒlɪtiəv//	75	75	0	0	0	0	75	50	75	50
11.	graduates from these // 'grædʒʊeɪtsfrəmði:z//	75	75	0	0	0	0	75	50	75	50
12.	universities. the // ,ju:nɪ'vɜ:sɪtɪzðə//	75	75	0	0	0	0	75	50	75	50
13.	fact re// 'fæktɪ//	75	75	75	50	75	50	0	0	0	0
14.	mains that the // 'meɪnzðətði//	75	75	0	0	0	0	75	50	75	50
15.	issue of // 'ɪʃu:əv//	75	75	0	0	0	0	75	50	75	50
16.	quality// 'kwɒlɪti//	75	75	75	50	75	50	0	0	0	0
17.	cannot be de// 'kænətbɪdɪ//	75	75	0	0	0	0	75	50	75	50
18.	terminated by the // 'tɜ:mɪndbaɪðə//	75	75	0	0	0	0	75	50	75	50
19.	universities a // ,ju:nɪ'vɜ:sɪtɪə//	75	75	0	0	0	0	75	50	75	50
20.	lone. it // 'ləʊntɪt	75	75	0	0	0	0	75	50	75	50
21.	also de // 'ɔ:lsoʊdɪ//	75	75	0	0	0	0	75	50	75	50
22.	pend on a // 'pendzənə//	75	75	0	0	0	0	75	50	75	50
23.	/number of // 'nʌmbərəv//	75	75	0	0	0	0	75	50	75	50
24.	factors which in // 'fæktəzwtɪʃɪn//	75	75	0	0	0	0	75	50	75	50
25.	include the a // 'klu:dðiə//	75	75	0	0	0	0	75	50	75	50
26.	bility of the // 'bɪlɪtɪəvðə//	75	75	0	0	0	0	75	50	75	50
27.	student, the // 'stju:dntðə//	75	75	0	0	0	0	75	50	75	50
28.	level of // 'levləvke//	75	75	0	0	0	0	75	50	75	50
29.	mmitment to// 'mɪtmənttə//	75	75	0	0	0	0	75	50	75	50
30.	reading, as well as the // 'ri:dɪŋəzweɪzðə//	75	75	0	0	0	0	75	50	75	50
31.	physical, // 'fɪzɪkl//	75	75	8	5.3	7	4.7	71	47.3	64	42.7
32.	psychological and e // ,saɪkə'lɒdʒɪkələndɪ //	75	75	0	0	0	0	75	50	75	50
33.	motional// 'məʊʃnəl//	75	75	0	0	0	0	75	50	75	50
34.	factors. // 'fæktəz//	75	75	0	0	0	0	75	50	75	50
35.	all these help to de // 'ɔ:lði:zhelptədɪ//	75	75	0	0	0	0	75	50	75	50
36.	termine, fa // 'tɜ: mɪnfə//	75	75	0	0	0	0	75	50	75	50
37.	silitatate and en // sɪlɪteɪtəndɪm//	75	75	0	0	0	0	75	50	75	50
38.	hance the/ 'hɑ:nsðə//	75	75	0	0	0	0	75	50	75	50
39.	quality of a // 'kwɒlɪtɪəvə//	75	75	0	0	0	0	75	50	75	50
40.	graduate. // 'grædʒʊeɪt//	75	75	75	50	75	50	0	0	0	0
Total		3000	3000	344	5.7	351	5.9	2657	44.3	2649	44.1

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Table 2 depicts the performance of EEES in the appropriate alternation of stressed and unstressed syllables by sex. The male participants alternated stressed and unstressed syllables appropriately in 344 (5.7%) instances, with inappropriate use of 2,576 (44.3%) while EEES females' appropriate use was higher, with 351 (5.9%) instances, and inappropriate use of 2,649 (44.1%). Figure 2 below further gives this illustration:

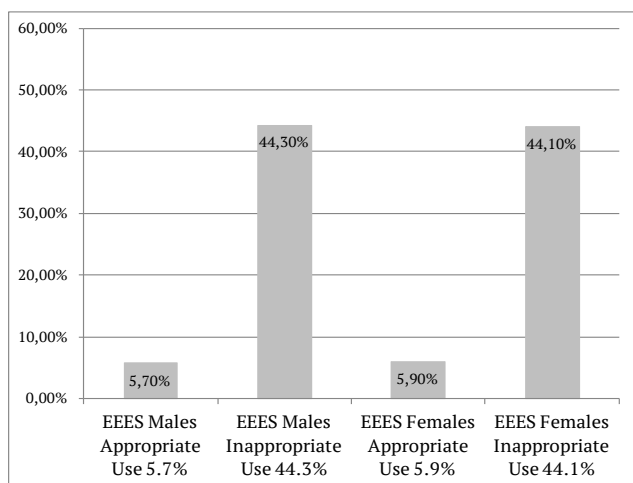


Figure 2. Male and Female Educated Edo English Speakers' alternation of stressed and unstressed syllables in English rhythm groups.

7 Metrical Grid Analysis of Native baselines and EEES stressed and unstressed syllable alternation

NB I
 X
 X X X X
 // 'e dʒʊkɛrtɪd//
 'Educated'

NB II
 X
 X
 X X X X
 // 'e dʒʊkɛrtɪd//
 'Educated'

From the native baselines' grids above, the first syllable of the English rhythm group // 'e dʒʊkɛrtɪd// is more prominent than the other syllables. This is because in SBE, a polysyllabic English word such as the one above is expected to have one of the syllables carrying the primary stress.

EEES I
 x* x* x* x*
 X X X X
 // 'ɛ du kɛrtɪd//
 ' Educated'

EEES II
 x* x* x* x*
 X X X X
 // 'ɛ du kɛrtɪd//
 ' Educated'

EEES III
 x* x* x* x*
 X X X X
 // 'ɛ du kɛrtɪd//
 ' Educated'

EEES IV
 x* x* x* x*
 X X X X
 // 'ɛ du kɛrtɪd//
 ' Educated'

EEES V
 x* x* x* x*
 X X X X
 // 'ɛ du kɛrtɪd//
 ' Educated'

The grids of Educated Edo English Speakers differ completely from that of the Native Baselines. All the syllables of the English rhythm group // 'ɛ du kɛrtɪd// were made prominent with indication of x* clashes. This account for why earlier scholars (Eka, 1993; Akinjobi, 2004; Iloilo, 2013) claim NE rhythm should be best described as syllable-timed.

NB I
 X
 X X X X
 // 'peərəntsændɪm//
 'Parents and em'

NB I

NB II
 X
 X X X X
 // 'peərəntsændɪm//
 'Parents and em'

The Native Baselines' grids // 'peərəntsændɪm// recognised the Lexical Category Prominence Rule (LCRP), where prominent nodes are allowed to swap in a bi-direction manner, once the branching does not lead to a strong node. Only the first syllable /'peə/ of the rhythm group receives more prominence as shown through the height in the grid above, which is in accordance with Standard British English rhythm.

EEES I
 x* x* x* x*
 X X X X
 // 'peɪrɛntsændɛm//
 'Parents and em'

EEES II
 x* x* x* x*
 X X X X
 // 'peɪrɛntsændɛm//
 'Parents and em'

EEES III
 x* x* x* x*
 X X X X
 // 'peɪrɛntsændɛm//
 'Parents and em'

EEES IV	x* x* x* x* X X X X //peirɛntsændɛm// 'Parents and em'
EEES V	x* x* x* x* X X X X //peirɛntsændɛm// 'parents and em'

EEES grids //peirɛntsændɛm// differ from those of the native baselines. There is a proliferation of strong syllables as shown by the x* in the syllables of the rhythm group with unresolved clashes for stressed and unstressed syllables in the rhythm units as compared to the native baselines' metrical grids, where alternation of stressed and unstressed syllables was observed.

Discussion

For English rhythm units with stressed and unstressed syllable alternation, the statistical analysis of Educated English Speakers' utterances revealed that the participants' alternated stressed and unstressed syllables appropriately in 694 (11.6%) instances, bringing inappropriate use to 5,306 (88.4%). More so, Educated Edo English Speakers' performance by sex revealed males' appropriate use of stressed and unstressed syllables at 344 (5.7%) and the females' at 351 (5.9%). Sex performance in stressed and unstressed syllable alternation of EEES does not show any significant difference, as the difference was very negligible (2%). Succinctly, Educated Edo English Speakers' statistical and metrical findings for stressed and unstressed syllables of English rhythm units showed that EEES stressed and unstressed syllable alternation does not conform to Standard British English form. The grids of the participants revealed a proliferation of strong syllables (x*), indicating unresolved clashes for both the supposedly stressed and unstressed syllables in the rhythm units as opposed to the native baselines' metrical grids where alternation of stressed and unstressed syllables was eminent; with strict adherence to Nuclear Stress Rule (NSR) and Lexical Category Prominence Rule (LCPR) of SBE rhythm. The results re-confirm earlier scholars' (Akinjobi, 2004; Iloilo, 2013) claim that Nigerian English is syllable-timed and not stress-timed.

Conclusion

Educated Edo English stressed and unstressed syllable alternation statistical and metrical findings established inability to appropriately alternate

stressed and unstressed syllables in English rhythm units; thereby making it different from SBE forms. Like other L2 speakers of English, stressed and unstressed syllable alternation is not a phonological feature of Educated Edo English Speakers. The "marked" difference in stressed and unstressed syllable alternation of the informants, compared to SBE form could be as a result of the linguistic background of the participants. Most of the participants' came in contact with English in the formal setting as confirmed through oral interview. Therefore, the fact that the informants were already exposed to their mother tongue - Edo language, could clearly account for the reason why variation exists in Edo English stressed and unstressed syllable alternation as compared to the Standard British English form. It is therefore important to note that proficiency in English rhythm in L2 context may depend greatly not only on educational attainment but early exposure to good and Standard English. Since, the English language is used as a medium of instruction in Nigerian schools (i.e. upper primary to tertiary), L2 users should be made to understand that if stressed and unstressed syllables are not applied appropriately, the rhythm of English utterance would be distorted and comprehension becomes difficult. Therefore, it is very crucial for language teachers to pay special attention to learners from tone language backgrounds, especially Edo English speakers.

This study sampled one hundred and fifty Educated Edo English Speakers, a sub-variety of Nigerian English speakers. This purposive sampling method was carried on university undergraduates who are assumed to have relative proficiency in spoken English, due to years of training and exposure to English in the second language (L2) context. It is, however, assumed that there could be some variations for Educated Edo English Speakers' who are professionals (language teachers, broadcasters, lawyers, academics). Hence, other aspects of English suprasegmentals especially intonation, could be investigated in the light of their usage in Edo English. Furthermore, investigations on Edo English rhythm can be extended to other Educated Edo English speakers who are professionals like English language teachers, academics and broadcasters.

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Vocabulary Strategies to Bridge the Gap from Learning to Read to Reading to Learn

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The present study offers a solution to students' difficulties in reading by examining the effect of two instructional strategies for teaching reading: semantic mapping and morphological analysis, using multimedia as a vehicle for achieving the desired goals. Technology in the present study incorporates fun, meaningful resources that enhance the experimental group students' vocabulary, and allow the reading instructor to assess the students' progress in reading. 58 EFL university students enrolled in the first year of the English Department at Al-Imam University, Riyadh, Saudi Arabia participated in the present study. They were chosen randomly and were divided into two groups; an experimental group and a control one. Each group had 29 participants aged between twenty and twenty one years old. A pre-test was applied to check out their standard in comprehending the reading texts before the inauguration of the experiment. During the time of the experiment, the control group was taught by the traditional method which focuses on relying on their memorization of long lists of vocabulary, rote learning, reading aloud, repetition and the translation of the new vocabulary. Participants of the experimental group were taught by semantic mapping and morphological analysis that focus on the comprehension of the key vocabulary and concepts included in the reading texts. The experimental group only was taught in the reading classes by implementing the semantic mapping and morphological analysis strategies while the control group was taught by the traditional previously mentioned way. The post-test was applied on both groups of the study at the end of the experiment to check out the students' reading comprehension standard. The experiment lasted for three months' time during the first semester of the year 2015. The findings revealed that teaching reading by semantic mapping and morphological analysis strategies improved experimental group students' comprehension of the reading texts.

Keywords: vocabulary teaching strategies, reading comprehension, semantic mapping, morphological analysis

In our age of information explosion, the need is urgent to teach our students not only to read lines but also to read between the lines to understand the hidden meanings and implied messages. This is a very challenging task as it requires investigation into the strategies that help the teacher to fulfill this crucial task.

Teaching reading effectively implies implementing effective strategies that tend to enhance students' enthusiasm for learning, develop students' skills, foster critical and creative thinking, keep students engaged inside the classroom, encourage interaction and participation, and create a comfortable learning

environment with less anxiety (Alqahtani, 2015; Buis, 2004; Middleton, 2011; Yan, 2008). These desired goals can be achieved by implementing two suggested strategies for comprehending the reading texts: semantic mapping and morphological analysis strategies. To this end, the present study investigates the impact of using two vocabulary teaching strategies on developing students' reading comprehension.

Thus it focuses on two dimensions: the first investigates the field of vocabulary strategies while the second focuses on the reading comprehension; what it entails and how to develop it.

Baleghizadeh and Naeim (2011) and Muhtar

(2010) and Sadeghi and Taghavi (2014) clarified that the semantic mapping strategy improves students' reading skills as they learn to brainstorm a topic by thinking about words related to a certain concept. Moreover, they learn to classify words under their appropriate concepts, which lead to improving their reading comprehension skills

As for the morphological analysis strategy, many previous studies in this field illustrate that it fosters the students' skills in analyzing, recalling, decoding, and breaking down complex words into their parts, so their comprehension of the reading texts is improved (Bellomo, 2009; Hickey & Lewis, 2013; Mahdalena, et al., 2015; Roth, 2014).

Regarding the second dimension, Jarolimek (as cited in Muhtar, 2010), illustrates that the comprehension of a reading passage implies "(1) Getting the literal meaning or general understanding of what is being communicated, (2) Understanding and remembering facts and details that support the idea, (3) Recognizing and remembering the sequence of ideas or event presented, (4) Following directions in the reading texts" (p. 8).

Furthermore, Chou (2011) and Basaraba, et al, (2013) confirmed that when readers infer something, they base their conclusion on information that is implied, but not explicitly stated in the text they read. Readers make inferences from clues within a reading text that lead them to draw certain conclusions.

To take this issue a step forward, Tennent (2015) emphasized the idea by clarifying that if a student does not know the meanings of a sufficient proportion of the words in the text, comprehension is impossible. In addition, Rasinski & Brassell (2008) asserted that good vocabulary knowledge enables good comprehension. Thus, the vital teaching strategy that the reading teacher implements in his or her class is what makes the difference. Buis (2004) confirmed that teachers need to be aware of the vocabulary strategies and apply them successfully during instruction as they help words to stick in their students' minds and constitute their background which leads to a more comprehension of the various reading texts.

To shed light on the problem of teaching reading, Richardson (2010) clarified that there are many studies concerning vocabulary learning strategies of learners, but there is not much research on vocabulary teaching strategies, relatively.

The present study is an attempt to investigate the impact of implementing two instructional vocabulary strategies: semantic mapping and morphological analysis on developing students' comprehension of the reading texts.

Definition of terms. Semantic Mapping Strategy.

The present study adopts the definition of Estes

(1999) who defined semantic mapping as "a strategy for graphically representing concepts. Semantic maps portray the schematic relations that compose a concept. It assumes that there are multiple relations between a concept and the knowledge that is associated with it" (p. 1).

The semantic mapping strategy is an important strategy that facilitates the reading comprehension process. When students learn to think and categorize words under a certain concept, they start to remember the meaning of the words.

Morphological Analysis Strategy

The present study adopts the definition of Roth (2014) who defined it as "a strategy that helps students learn vocabulary by parsing words for familiar morphemes to infer the word's meaning" (p. 1).

Reading comprehension is "a process of information search involving interaction between reader and text, of actively constructing a meaningful representation of the writer's written message, and of building a representation of text meaning" (Dechant, 1991 p. 341).

Statement of the Problem

Many female Saudi students majoring in English at Al-Imam Muhammad Ibn Saud University in Riyadh complain about their inability to comprehend the reading texts which are covered in their reading lectures. That is due to their limited vocabulary, which stands against their comprehension of the reading texts. Moreover, their final exams results of the reading courses prove these students' weakness in reading and their inability to comprehend the reading texts.

In addition, interviews with the reading course instructors confirm their students' weakness in reading. Thinking of the reasons behind this phenomena regarding students' weakness in comprehending the reading texts, Al-Darayseh (2014) stated that "Unknown words hinder students from understanding the reading texts" (p. 1110).

On the other hand, those university students complain about the boring, ineffective, and traditional methods of teaching reading by which they are taught and attribute the weakness in comprehending the reading texts to those ineffective methods of teaching reading. In best cases, they clarified that they memorized long lists of vocabulary with their Arabic equivalents to help them comprehend the reading texts. They expressed their wish to learn these vocabulary lists in a more active and enjoyable ways and noted that these boring and ineffective methods applied for teaching reading resulted in their inability to remember the vocabulary taught in class which

undoubtedly led to their weakness in comprehending the reading texts.

It can be concluded that despite the importance of vocabulary teaching strategies, many teachers still adopt the traditional methods while teaching vocabulary by their relying on forcing their students to memorize long lists of vocabulary with their Arabic equivalents, and ordering them to read aloud the texts in class and rely on rote learning. Moreover, these procedures made the teaching process tedious, ineffective.

Al-Darayseh (2014) and Alqahtani (2015) emphasized the need for a research which investigates the effectiveness of vocabulary teaching strategies to determine the effective ones that might contribute to the development of students' vocabulary and the improvement of their reading comprehension. The present study is an attempt to achieve these desired goals.

In sum, teaching vocabulary cannot be left to chance; the present study investigates the effectiveness of implementing semantic mapping and morphological awareness strategies while teaching reading to examine their effect on enhancing students' reading comprehension.

Research Questions

The main question of the study is:

What is the effect of semantic mapping and morphological analysis strategies on enhancing students' comprehension of the reading texts?

The following sub questions can be derived from the main question:

Does morphological analysis strategy enhance students' comprehension of the reading texts?

To examine the effect of the morphological analysis strategy on enhancing the experimental group students' comprehension skills, the researcher derived the following sub question from the previous question:

- Is there a statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the pre-test and post-test of the experimental group morphological awareness test?
- Does the semantic mapping strategy enhance students' comprehension of the reading texts ?

To examine the effect of the semantic mapping strategy more on enhancing the experimental group students' comprehension skills, the researcher derived the following sub question from the previous question:

Is there a statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the pre-test and post-test of the experimental group semantic mapping awareness test?

Vocabulary Teaching Strategies

Teaching strategies has been defined differently. Blachowicz and Watts-Taff (2005) noted that teaching strategies are the plan by which teachers design their teaching.

Richardson (2010) takes it to a deeper level when he asserted that teaching strategies refer to those procedures whose aim is to get learners to review lexical items. Tennent (2015) defined it as being a complex educational behavior of a teacher in using methods, techniques, tools, disciplines, and communications in order to achieve the desired goals.

It is worth mentioning teaching strategies should be implemented while teaching as they tend to enhance students' enthusiasm for learning, develop students' skills, foster critical and creative thinking, keep students engaged inside the classroom, encourage interaction and participation, and create a comfortable environment with less anxiety (Middleton, 2011; Rasinski & Brassell, 2008).

Teaching strategies involve more than merely giving boring lectures as the task of the teacher who implement the teaching strategies becomes directing students to achieve certain educational aims and involving these students in the educational process in accordance with the strategies that suit them (Muhtar, 2010; Naeimi & Foo, 2013).

As for teaching vocabulary, the strategies used in this respect imply adopting techniques to help students acquire vocabulary. Tennent (2015) asserted that teachers who teach vocabulary must be knowledgeable of the necessary word learning and vocabulary strategies, and implement them during instruction.

Also, Sadeghi and Taghavi (2014) and Richardson (2010) confirmed that if language teachers can understand more about vocabulary teaching strategies and the suitable ways to teach vocabulary to a particular level of students, they definitely enhance the learning effectiveness of their students.

To this end, two recommended vocabulary teaching strategies are investigated to determine their impact on improving students' comprehension of the reading texts.

The semantic mapping strategy

The semantic mapping strategy is an important strategy that facilitates the reading comprehension process. When students learn to think and categorize words under a certain concept, they start to remember the meaning of the words (Baleghizadeh & Naeim, 2011; Basaraba et al., 2013).

Muhtar (2010) clarified semantic mapping is a strategy for representing concepts. Semantic maps sketches the schematic relations that compose

a concept and assumes that there are multiple relations between a concept and the knowledge that it represents. Moreover, Baleghizadeh and Naeim (2011) clarified that “semantic mapping is introduced as a vocabulary presentation technique, which is believed to help learners remember words better as they see the connections among them in a map” (p. 11). In addition, Muhtar (2010) sketches it out as being beneficial for “... introducing the important vocabulary in a selection to be read. It shows students how the terms are interrelated. Teachers can use semantic mapping to activate and tap student’s background knowledge. Also, it can be a helpful reference for students to use in clarifying confusing points as they are reading” (p. 4).

Similarly, Sadeghi and Taghavi (2014) confirmed that “semantic mapping as a teaching technique helps students to increase comprehension because of its multiple advantages in reading comprehension” (p. 12).

To implement this strategy in the reading classes, the reading teachers should present the main concepts included in the reading texts. Their students are instructed to list a number of words related to each concept by referring back to their previous knowledge. The teacher who implements semantic mapping strategy chooses a concept and writes it in the middle of the blackboard to be in front of students. Then, s/he circles this concept. After that, the teacher asks the students to think about words that are related to this concept. All the students’ responses are listed under this concept. The teacher works with students to categorize some of the words under a certain subheading (Baleghizadeh & Naeim, 2011; Muhtar, 2010; Sadeghi & Taghavi, 2014).

This way, semantic mapping helps students to brainstorm, recall, and categorize words in their attempts to comprehend the reading texts.

The morphological analysis strategy

This strategy is closely linked to reading comprehension. When students are taught the basic morphemes, roots, and affixes, the process of understanding vocabulary meaning is facilitated (Hickey & Lewis, 2013; Mahdalena, et al., 2015; Roth, 2014).

Bellomo (2009) analyzed it more clarifying that “Morphological, or structural, analysis is the process of breaking down morphologically complex words into their constituent morphemes (word meaning parts)” (p. 45). He noted that the word (worker) is comprised of two meaning units; the base is the word work, and the inclusion of (er), which conveys the meaning of an agent (person or thing).

According to him, the key to comprehend a reading text relies on understanding the key vocabulary it includes.

Mahdalena, Nurweni, and Suparman (2015) asserted that “morphological analysis may turn to be one of the most fruitful strategies to uncover the meaning of new words for promoting learners’ vocabulary knowledge and reading abilities” (p. 4).

To this end, a deeper investigation in the field of «morphological analysis» is discussed in the following part to shed light on the different types of morphemes since they constitute the tools by which the morphological analysis strategy can be implemented in the present study.

They are as follows:

a. Free morphemes

Hickey and Lewis (2013) defined a free morpheme as “a morpheme that can be used alone, as a word, without additional affixes” (p. 80). For example, in the word “rewrite,” the free morpheme is “write.” It can stand alone and can be independent.

b. Bound morphemes

Hickey and Lewis (2013) defined a bound morpheme as “a morpheme that cannot stand on its own. It must be attached to other morphemes to construct a word” (p. 80). For example, in the word “rewrite,” the bound morpheme is “re.” It cannot be independent. Bound morphemes give meaning to words.

This takes us to the following part about the types of bound morphemes:

I. Inflectional morphemes

Hickey and Lewis (2013) defined an inflectional morpheme as “a bound morpheme that adjusts the meaning of a root word without changing its part of speech, such as pluralizing nouns or changing verb tense. Furthermore, inflectional morphemes do not change the base meaning of the word” (p. 80).

II. Derivational morphemes

Hickey and Lewis (2013) defined a derivational morpheme as “a bound morpheme that adjusts the meaning of the root word. Re- in rewrite is a derivational morpheme, as is -ness, in happiness” (p. 80).

In sum, since the instructors who teach reading seek to improve their students’ comprehension of the reading texts, it is crucial that they rely on the morphological analysis strategy while teaching reading. In this respect, Mahdalena, Nurweni, and Suparman (2015) asserted that there is a positive relationship between morphological analysis and reading comprehension; the students who are more aware of morphology in complex words tend to be better readers.

The following part investigates this issue.

Vocabulary teaching strategies and reading comprehension

Many researchers have investigated the relationship between vocabulary and other skills in

general and with reading comprehension in particular. Blachowicz, Fisher, and Watts-Taff (2005) agreed that “one area of particular significance to the curriculum is that of vocabulary and reading comprehension” (p. 1). Vocabulary teaching strategies have a meaningful impact on reading comprehension, as they enhance learners’ reading comprehension skills (Alqahtani, 2015; Anjomshoa, & Zamanian, 2014).

Al Qahtani (2015) defined vocabulary as the number of words that are necessary for us to communicate and convey meaning and Wilkins (as cited in Çetin, 2009) noted that “Without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed...You will see most improvement if you learn more words and expressions. You can say very little with grammar, but you can say almost anything with words” (p. 73).

In short, both vocabulary and grammar are necessary in the process of comprehending reading texts. Thus, the instructional strategies adopting them are recommended to be implemented in the reading classes.

Reading comprehension is regarded this way as a hierarchical structure which is based on certain levels of understanding. In this respect, Richardson (2010) stated that “Comprehension is an integral part of learning; it is also a multifaceted process with many levels of understanding” (p. 3).

The following is an illustration of the levels of reading comprehension.

Literal comprehension

Davis (2006) defined literal comprehension as “the lowest level of understanding. It involves reading the lines, or reading and understanding exactly what is on the page. Students may give back facts or details directly from the passages as they read” (p. 65). In doing so “The reader has the access to the surface details of the text, and can recall details which have been directly related” (Tennent, 2015, p. 28).

Interpretive comprehension.

Davis (2006) defined interpretive comprehension as “the second highest level of understanding, requires students to read between the lines. At this level, students must explain figurative language, define terms and answer interpretative or inferential questions” (p. 65).

Critical comprehension.

Davis (2006) stated that “critical comprehension requires a high level of understanding. The students must judge the passage they have read. The critical level is one of the two highest of the levels of understanding; it requires students to read beyond the lines” (p. 66).

Based on the previous definitions, reading comprehension implies hierarchal levels where

readers can end up with the level in which s/he makes judgments and reads not only the lines but also between lines.

The main aim of the present study is to investigate the effectiveness of implementing the morphological analysis strategy and semantic mapping strategy on developing the university students’ reading comprehension.

The present study was constrained by the following limitations:

1. The present study was limited only on 58 female Saudi students who were studying in the Reading Course of the Preparatory Year in the College of Languages and Translation at Al-Imam Muhammad Ibn Saud Islamic University.
2. This study was conducted in the second semester of the year 1436–1437 H., which lasted for three months’ time.
3. This study was limited to implementing semantic mapping and morphological analysis strategies in teaching reading to examine their effect on the Saudi female university students reading comprehension.

Methodology

The present study examined the effect of adopting the semantic mapping strategy and morphological analysis one on enhancing the Saudi female university students’ reading comprehension.

It tended to show the students’ ability to comprehend multi-morphemic words and semantics while reading adopting an experimental design.

Participants

A quasi-experimental design was conducted on 58 female students who were distributed into two groups: an experimental group and a control one. They were all enrolled in the first year of the English Department at Al-Imam Mohamed Ibn Saud University, Riyadh, KSA. They aged between 20 and 21 years old. They were taught reading by the traditional way which focuses on memorization of long lists of vocabulary, rote learning and reading aloud, repetition and the translation of the new vocabulary.

Design of the Study

1. Reviewing the literature and previous studies in the field of morphological analysis strategy, semantic mapping strategy and reading comprehension.
2. Preparing the tools of the present study.
3. Applying the pre-posttest on the sample of the study; experimental and control (see Appendix 1).
4. Conducting the experiment on the experimental group student only in their reading lectures.

Being the coordinator of the skills courses, I had the chance to meet the skills teachers, discuss with them

their problems and how to overcome the difficulties they face while teaching. This gave me the chance to train the experimental group teacher to teach in her reading class by adopting the morphological analysis strategy and the semantic mapping one. Moreover, I attended the reading lectures with her and gave her my comments regarding her performance and how to improve it while adopting the suggested strategies for teaching reading.

5. Applying the pre-post test on the sample of the study after the experiment.
6. Analyzing and calculating the results.
7. Discussing the results and writing the conclusion and the pedagogical implications.

The tools

The same test is used before the inauguration of the experiment of the study and also after it to determine the effect of the semantic mapping and morphological analysis strategies, implemented in the experiment, on enhancing the students' comprehension of the reading texts.

The pre- posttest consisted of three sections: the morphological awareness test, and the reading comprehension passages test and the semantic mapping test. The pre-posttest was designed to assess the students' awareness of morphological analysis and semantic mapping and their effect on the experimental group students' reading comprehension.

The first section is the morphological awareness test. It was divided into three parts: derivational, decomposition, and prefix morphological awareness tests. The derivational and decomposition tasks were based on those used by Carlisle (2010). They were designed to measure students' awareness of the relationships of base and derived words.

In the decomposition test, students were asked to decompose derived words to finish sentences. The decomposition task consisted of ten test items and 2 practice items. In contrast, in the derivational test, the students were directed to produce derived words to complete sentences. This assessment also consisted of ten test items and two practice items.

The third task of the first section is the prefix morphological awareness task. It was applied to assess the students' awareness of prefixed words. It was prepared by the researcher to match the students' age and level. It was designed to assess students' awareness of prefix forms by asking students to choose the correct meaning of the bold words.

The second section, the reading comprehension passage test, was prepared by the researcher. The test is composed of three short passages differing in difficulty, followed by multiple-choice questions to assess the students' reading comprehension skills.

Both the experimental and the control groups

were asked to read the passages silently then, choose the correct answer in the questions that follow the passages.

The pre- posttest was designed to determine if the students improved in the following comprehension skills: guessing the meaning of unknown vocabulary from context, applying the skim-and-scan technique, and identifying the most common prefixes and suffixes. The test was comprised of 15 multiple-choice questions. Each question involved four-options for the students to choose one right answer from them.

The third section was designed to determine if the students' comprehension improved by implementing the semantic mapping strategy. This section consisted of ten items and required the students to fill in the blanks with the suitable word that completes the meaning of the sentence.

Validity of the test

The pre- posttest was validated by TEFL specialists in Al-Imam University, Riyadh and Alexandria University, Egypt. The test items were modified according to their feedback and comments.

Reliability of the test

The reliability of the pre- posttest was computed by using the test-retest method. The researcher applied the pre-posttest on a pilot sample of forty students. After two weeks, the researcher applied the pre- and post-tests on the same sample. The next step was the computation of the correlation between the scores of students on the two applications. For the morphological awareness test, the correlation coefficient (reliability coefficient) (r) was (0.87), which indicated an accepted value of reliability. For the semantic mapping test, the correlation coefficient (reliability coefficient) (r) was (0.88), which indicated an accepted value of reliability. As for the reading comprehension test, the correlation coefficient (reliability coefficient) (r) was (0.92) which indicated an accepted value of reliability.

Data Collection and Analysis

The data was obtained from the pre- and posttest of morphological awareness, semantic mapping and reading comprehension skills.

The study adopted many statistical procedures to examine the effects of morphological awareness and semantic mapping on students' reading comprehension skills of Saudi female university students. The Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS) was used in analyzing the collected data. The independent sample t-test and the paired sample t-test showed the differences between the experimental and control groups. Furthermore, it was used to compare the differences of the mean scores between the pre- and posttests of the experimental group to assert the effectiveness of the suggested teaching strategies on enhancing the experimental group sample comprehension skills.

Results

To answer the main question of the study:

What is the effect of the suggested vocabulary teaching strategies on enhancing students' comprehension of the reading texts?

The independent samples T-test of the significance of the difference between the average of the pre-test scores in the reading comprehension skills test of both the experimental and control groups was calculated.

The following Table illustrates the results

Table 1
Results of the pre-test

Group	N	Mean	Standard deviation	T Value	Df.	Sig
Control	29	3.04	0.78	0.96	44	No significance
Experimental	29	2.79	0.99			

Note. Sig when Sig. (2-tailed) < 0.05

The null hypothesis indicates that there was no significant difference between the experimental group and their peer of the control group in the pre-test. The previous table reveals no statistically significant difference between the mean scores of both groups: T = 0.96 and P = no sign. Thus, there was homogeneity between the experimental and control groups in the pre-measure of the test before the experiment.

After applying the experiment, which is teaching the experimental group reading by implementing semantic mapping and morphological analysis strategies while teaching the control group reading by the traditional way previously mentioned, the post-test was applied on both groups of the study.

The independent sample T-test for the significance of the difference between the averages of the post-test scores of both groups of the study was calculated.

Table 2 indicates the results of the experimental group students and their peers of the control one in the post- test.

Table 2
Results of the post-test

Group	N	Mean	Standard deviation	T Value	Df.	Sig
Control	29	2.45	1.22	7.59	44	.01
Experimental	29	5.54	1.5			

Note. Sig when Sig. (2-tailed) < 0.05.

Table 2 indicates there was a statistically significant difference between the scores of the experimental and their peers of the control group in the post- test in favor of the experimental group: T = 7.59 and P = 0.01.

To answer the first sub-question

1- Does morphological analysis strategy enhance students' comprehension of the reading texts?

The researcher examined statistically the difference between the mean score of the experimental group and their peers of the control group in the morphological awareness post-test. The following table illustrates the results.

Table 3
Independent samples T- test of morphological awareness post-test

Group	Measure	N	Mean	Standard deviation	T Value	Df.	Sig.
Control	Post-test	29	8.7	3.1	15.33	44	0.01
Experimental	Post-test	29	22.2	2.8			

Table 3 indicates that the total of the mean scores of the experimental group's morphological awareness post-test was (M = 22.2), whereas the total of the mean scores of the control group's morphological awareness post-test was (M = 8.7). The statistically significance difference was not only at 0.05 but it showed significance difference at 0.01 level of significance. Thus, there was a significant difference between the total sums of the mean scores of both groups in favor of the experimental group. Therefore, the morphological analysis strategy significantly enhanced the experimental group students' morphological awareness which indicates the improvement of their comprehension.

Research sub-question 1.1: Is there a statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the pre-test and post-test of the experimental group's morphological awareness?

To answer this question it was hypothesized that there is no statistically significant difference at the p = .05 level of significance between the mean scores of the pre-test and the post-test of the experimental group's morphological awareness.

A paired sample t- test was computed to analyze this hypothesis (see Table 4).

Table 4
Paired-samples T-test for the significant differences between pre-test and post-test in the morphological awareness of the experimental group

Measure	N	Mean	Standard deviation	T Value	Df.	Sig
Pre test	29	2.33	1.4	17.8	23	0.01
Post test	29	5.66	0.86			

Note. Sig when Sig. (2-tailed) < 0.05.

The previous table clarifies that the two-tailed p (sig. value) is 0.01. This means there was a significant difference between the pre- and post-measures of the test. The results revealed that the experimental group performed significantly better on the morphological analysis posttest measure than the pretest measure

after the implementation of the experiment on them.

To examine statistically the second sub-question

1- Does the semantic mapping strategy enhance students' comprehension of the reading texts?

The researcher examined statistically the difference between the mean score of the experimental group and their peers of the control group in the semantic mapping awareness post-test. The following Table 5 illustrates the results.

Table 5
Independent samples T- test of semantic mapping awareness post-test

Group	Measure	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	T Value	Df.	Sig.
Control	Post- test	29	8.1	3.2	15.31	43	0.01
Experimental	Post- test	29	21.8	2.8			

Table 5 indicates that the total of the mean scores of the experimental group's semantic mapping awareness post-test was (M = 21.8), whereas the total of the mean scores of the control group's semantic mapping awareness post-test was (M = 8.1). The statistically significance difference was not only at 0.05 but it showed significance difference at 0.01 level of significance. Thus, there was a significant difference between the total of the mean scores of both groups in favor of the experimental group. Therefore, the semantic mapping strategy significantly raised the experimental group students' semantic mapping awareness.

Research sub-question 1.2: Is there a statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the pre-test and post-test of the experimental group students' semantic mapping awareness?

To answer this question, it was hypothesized that there is no statistically significant difference at the .05 level of significance between the mean scores of the pre-test and post-test of the experimental group's semantic mapping awareness test.

A paired sample t-test was conducted to measure the students' semantic mapping awareness after the experiment. See (Table 6).

Table 6 of paired-samples T-test for the significance in the difference between the pre and post measures in the averages (mean) scores of the experimental group students' semantic mapping awareness.

Table 6
The experimental group students' semantic mapping awareness

Measure	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	T Value	Df.	Sig
Pre test	29	3.5	2.2	11.37	23	0.01
Post test	29	3.8	1.41			

Table 6 reveals that the experimental groups' pre-test mean score was M = 3.5, whereas their post-test score was M=8.5. The results depict a significant difference between the pre and post-semantic mapping test. Thus, the students performed significantly better on the post-test measure than they did on the pre-test measure.

Discussion

The main findings of the present study can be summarized in the following points:

1. There was no statically significant difference between the experimental and their peers of the control group in pre-test of reading comprehension which proved that the standard of the two groups of the study in their reading was similar before the inauguration of the experiment of the study.
2. The experimental group outperforming the control group in the post- test of reading which proved that teaching reading implementing semantic mapping and morphological analysis strategies had positive effects on enhancing the experimental group students' comprehension of the reading texts.
3. Improvement in students' morphological knowledge and semantics lead to a more comprehension of the reading texts.

Pedagogical Implications

1. It is recommended that EFL teachers adopt the morphological analysis strategy and the semantic mapping one while teaching reading.
2. Students should be given more opportunities to explore and analyze the new vocabulary in the reading texts whether inside or outside the reading classes.
3. Teachers should train their students to examine the functions of various word parts (e.g., suffixes, prefixes, and the root of words) while reading inside and outside the reading classes.
4. There should be trainings for the EFL teachers on how to teach reading adopting the morphological analysis and semantic mapping strategies to enhance their students' comprehension of the reading texts.
5. Encouraging students to read extra materials implementing the morphological analysis and semantic mapping strategies while reading to comprehend these materials even outside the classroom and without the help of their teachers.

Conclusion

The present study proved that adopting semantic mapping and morphological analysis strategies by innovative teachers can lead to enhancing learners' vocabulary, and consequently the comprehension of the reading texts in a world marked by printings.

It also proved that teaching reading cannot be left to chance as it was evident that vocabulary instruction directly improves students' comprehension, so it should be implemented tactfully while teaching reading to improve students' comprehension of what they read.

By teaching reading implementing semantic mapping and morphological analysis strategies, we as teachers- train our students to read not only in the class but also outside it. Moreover, we equip them with ways to increase their vocabulary retention and ultimately their comprehension of what they read in the time of information explosion. Thus, as Gale Johnson (2009) confirmed "When it comes to words, every person is destined to be a lifelong learner" (p. 9).

Thus, by teaching reading implementing semantic mapping and morphological analysis strategies, teachers achieve an essential goal in EFL/ESL pedagogy.

In sum, the findings of the present study proved that the more the teaching strategies are refined, the better the educational goals are achieved.

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Appendix
The Pre-post test

Test of Morphological Structure and reading comprehension skills

Section 1: Morphological Awareness Test

Part 1: Derivational Morphological Awareness Test
(adapted from Carlisle, 2000).

Add the suitable suffix to the given words below to complete the sentences:

- Example: a. Farm. My uncle is a farmer..
b. Help. My sister is always helpful.

1. warm He chose the jacket for its _____
2. teach Hewasaverygood_____
3. permit Fatherrefusedtogive_____
4. profit Selling lemonade in summer is _____
5. appear He cared about his _____
6. express "OK" is a common _____
7. four The cyclist came in _____
8. remark The speed of the car was _____
9. protect She wore glasses for _____
10. perform Tonightisthelast _____

Part 2: Decomposition Morphological Awareness Test
(adapted from Carlisle, 2000)

Decompose the root from the following words and complete the sentences:

- Example: a. Driver. Children are too young to drive.
b. Improvement. My teacher wants my spelling to improve.

1. Growth. She wanted her plant to _____
2. Dryer. Put the wash out to _____
3. Runner. How fast can she _____?
4. Width. The mouth of the river is very _____
5. Density. The smoke in the room was very _____
6. Discussion. The friends have a lot to _____
7. Famous. The actor would achieve much _____
8. Description. The picture is hard to _____
9. Fifth The boy counted from one to _____
10. Election. Which person did they _____

Part 3: Prefix Morphological Awareness Test

Choose the sentence that gives the correct meaning of the bold words

1. The newspaper is published biweekly.
 - a. The newspaper is published twice a week.
 - b. The newspaper is published twice a month.
 - c. The newspaper is published once a week.

2. This handwriting is impossible to read.
 - a. It is very untidy.
 - b. It is completely readable.
 - c. It is very tidy.

3. He took off his clothes
 - a. He got dressed.
 - b. He got undressed.
 - c. He puts on his clothes.

4. It is against the law, isn't it?
 - a. It is legal.
 - b. It is illegal.
 - c. It is allowed.

5. I am sorry that I misread your note.
 - a. I did not read the note correctly.
 - b. I read the note correctly.
 - c. It is completely readable.

6. We preview books before publishing.
 - a. We do not read books before publishing.
 - b. We read books after publishing.
 - c. We read books before publishing.

7. She can never wait for five minutes.
 - a. She is very patient.
 - b. She is very impatient.
 - c. She is calm.

Section 2: Reading Comprehension Passages

In this section, you will read several passages. Each passage is followed by questions about the reading material.

You are to choose the one best answer marked A, B, C, or D.

Passage 1

It's really interesting to take a trip to some mysterious locations that still baffle archaeologists to this day. Spectacular places like Easter Island in the South Pacific and Stonehenge in England hold extraordinary, impressive, ancient structures created by prehistoric civilizations. Scientists can only speculate as to how they were made.

One example is the Moai of Easter Island in the South Pacific. Easter Island is one of the most isolated places on earth and is famous for the large intriguing statues which were carved by ancient people to bear

resemblance to human heads. Archaeological research indicates that Easter Island was first inhabited by Polynesians. Scientists believe that these early inhabitants carved the island's Moai—believed to be religious symbols—from volcanic rock, and then pulled them to their different locations

Another example of mysterious location is Stonehenge. This ancient English site is a collection of large stones arranged in two circles—one inside the other. Research suggests that it may have been designed and built by an ancient religious group for one of two purposes: either as a sacred temple or as an observatory to study the sky. Scientists believe that the enormous stones were transported from places around the country to their present site. Engineers estimate that approximately 600 people were needed to transport each stone from its point of origin. Scientists consider this a remarkable feat in that time that is not accounted significant regarding today's equipment.

Choose the single best answer marked A, B, C, or D.

1. The between the two structures was remarkable.
 - a. resembling
 - b. resemblance
 - c. resemble
 - d. resembled
2. Elderly people easily become socially
 - a. isolation
 - b. isolated
 - c. isolate
 - d. isolationism
3. What is meant by the word prehistoric civilization?
 - a. those who lived in the period of time in history before information was written down
 - b. those who lived in the period of time in history when information was written down
 - c. those who live in the modern age
 - d. those who lived in the Middle Ages
4. The best title for this passage is:
 - a. Mystery Tours
 - b. Spectacular Civilization
 - c. Spectacular Places
 - d. Easter Island
5. What is meant by the word intriguing?
 - a. shocking
 - b. interesting
 - c. boring
 - d. tiring

Passage 2

Read the following passage then choose the right answer:

Today we went to the movies; before the movies began we watched many previews. There was a multicolour bird in the movie. The bird got into trouble. He would always misbehave. He would easily bored and express their frustration in a variety of ways. In addition to screaming, other indications of boredom include biting, fits of jealousy, feather-picking, overeating, refusing to eat and destroying objects within reach. He would attack the furniture, woodwork, telephone cord, computer keyboards or any other object she can sink her beak into. He would tell his friends things that were untrue. He always turned in work that was incomplete. His teacher would make him redo his incomplete work. His nonfiction books were often overdue. The bird was never thankful to anyone who helped him.

Multi-coloured bird is social creature, and he need to be included in the activities of the human flock. Bonding with a favourite human is important. You are the master of the flock, and it's up to you to set boundaries and provide opportunities for exercise, play and mental stimulation. Isolation can turn a potentially wonderful pet bird into either a screeching, biting menace or a quiet, obsessed feather picker.

1. What is meant by the word multicolored?
 - a. having many different colors
 - b. having only one color
 - c. having only two different colors
 - d. having no colors
2. I was to make any sort of progress at all.
 - a. thanks
 - b. thankful
 - c. thankfulness
 - d. thankfully
3. What does he refer to in line 3?
 - a. teacher
 - b. actor
 - c. bird
 - d. producer
4. What is meant by the word incomplete?
 - a. not completely finished
 - b. completely finished
 - c. all the work has been completed.
 - d. the work is finished
5. It can be concluded from the passage that
 - a. multicolored bird behaved very well
 - b. multicolored bird complete his works
 - c. multicolored bird always tell the truth

d. multicolored bird always got in trouble.

- b. again
- c. the opposite of
- d. between

Passage 3

Read the following passage then choose the right answer:

In the West, a bath is a place one goes to cleanse the body. In Japan, one goes there to cleanse the soul. The Japanese Bath delves into the aesthetic of bathing Japanese style and the innate beauty of the steps surrounding the process. The book includes sixty full-color photos that guide you how to create a Japanese bath in your own home.

Enjoying a Japanese bath is an unique cultural experience. For first timers it may be a little intimidating, but once you get used to it, the Japanese bath often becomes an addiction; relaxing, healing, and regenerating its followers.

For the Japanese, a bath is not just a way to get clean. It is also a way to relax and recover from a stressful day. In Japan, in fact, people like to take very long, hot baths. While they are in the bathtub, they like to listen to music or read books. However, reading in the bathtub can be a problem sometimes, as water and books do not get along very well. With this problem in mind, a Japanese company has begun selling special “bath” books.

1. What does recover mean?
 - a. to become stressed after a hot bath
 - b. to get sick after a hot bath
 - c. to get tired after hard work
 - d. to feel better after hard work
2. The word “stressful” means:
 - a. a situation that makes you worry a lot
 - b. a situation that makes you relax
 - c. a situation that makes you calm
 - d. a situation that makes you happy
3. The prefix “re” in the word recovers means:
 - a. not

4. Who wants to sell a special “ bath” books
 - a. A American company.
 - b. A Japanese company.
 - c. A British company
 - d. A Chinese company.
5. The best title for this passage is:
 - a. Japanese Bath
 - b. Chinese bath
 - c. Japanese house
 - d. American bath

Section Three

(15 marks)

Fill in the blanks with a suitable word that completes the meaning.

- 1- is not just taking care of kids, it is love and patience.
- 2- His to walk after his accident made him feel depressed.
- 3- Norton is a program that keeps the computer safe.
- 4- They were talking about education. I enjoyed listening to their
- 5- The forced them to practice exercises.
- 6- We have to the oven before putting the cake.
- 7- I want to sleep. I'llof the light.
- 8- She is an person. She always obeys her father.
- 9- He was in the intensive care. He must be very.....
- 10- He is very rude. He always..... his sister.

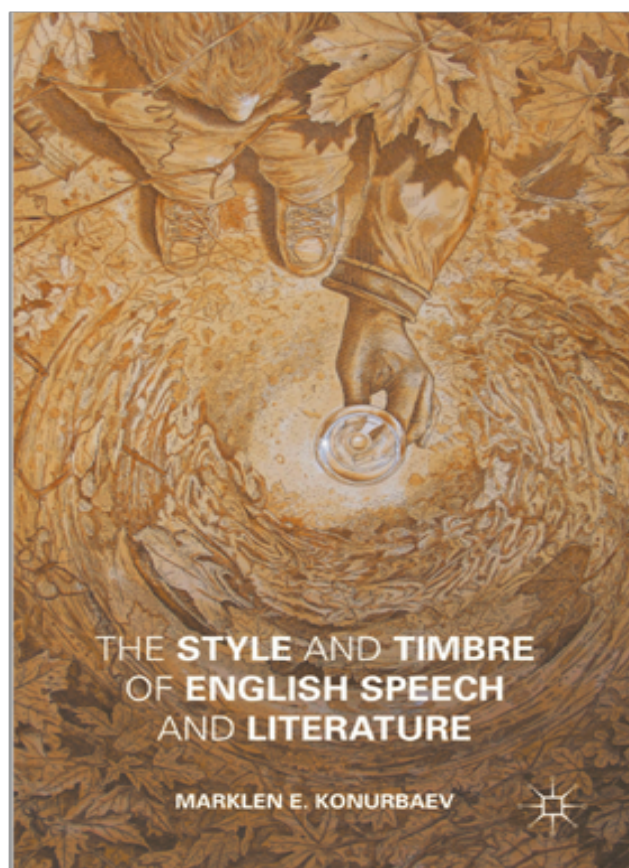
The Style and Timbre of English Speech and Literature. Marklen E. Konurbaev. London, UK: Palgrave Macmillan, 2016. 203 pp. ISBN 978-1-137-51947-4

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Professor Marklen E. Konurbaev offers a relatively new approach to the study of voice in literature based on a new understanding of foregrounding. This well-established notion in the theory of stylistics, however, has been presented in an unusual light in the book – not as a set of stylistic and semantic features defamiliarizing a unit of speech and triggering its latent expressive potential, but as a canvas of expression that spans between the elements that are made variously prominent in a text or speech. Foregrounding in this sense is not viewed as ‘a single point in space and time’, but rather as a perception landscape bracketed by mental strings that connect such prominent elements in the minds of the perceiving audience. This vision of foregrounding (pp. 9-29) presents the expression potential that goes over and above a single element’s semantic features in speech but liaises expressive capacity to a span of deictic references in the text, both anaphoric and cataphoric.

The book focuses on the aspect of the text that determines its adequate understanding viz. the author’s voice and the overall ‘timbre of writing’ (pp. 3, 12–31, 126). Presumably, the foregrounding of the linguistic elements used in text activates the mechanisms of perception triggered by the auditory zones of the brain. Professor Marklen Konurbaev refers to a relatively recent research by Olaf Sporns (2011) that aims to develop a map of neural connections (‘connectome’) determining understanding and the effect of mental hearing (pp. 103). A rather subjective estimate of the role and place of style is thus rooted in the activity of the zones of the brain directly involved in the process of speech perception. Foregrounding is a double-sided process. On the side of the reader, it is fully justified by his or her experience, culture, memory and immediate emotional reactions to a speech element that is considered to be more prominent



than others. On the writer’s side, it seems to be fully instrumental, being based on syntactic, compositional and other linguistic means.

In this sense, every element in speech remains contextually defamiliarised until the moment of its full pragmatic resolution. Once the canvas of perception is completed in the mind of a reader of a text – straight a voice or timber arises as a focal point of perception spanning between the ‘impact zones’ of

the text – a term that the author occasionally uses as a synonym for prominence (p.129, pp.131–132). The author claims that the oral and mental ‘timbre’ have the same nature and origin in the auditory zone of the brain. Having equipped himself with the theory of human brain connectome, the author of the book draws associative lines between his theory of timbre and the neurophysiological basis of the process of speech comprehension.

The main goal of the book, as the author himself sees it, is to build the basis of understanding that includes both expression and perception (pp. 91-95). Marklen Konurbaev believes that the timbre of speech, viewed as a map of prominent elements in the text that are supporting the canvas of expression, could be effectively used to match the author’s intention and the reader’s comprehension of speech. The book covers a wide variety of texts and styles, ranging from everyday speech contexts to works of fiction. The author’s approach reveals most stunning semantic implications in the novels by Kazuo Ishiguro and E. M. Forster, Ursula K. Le Guin and George Orwell, Terry Pratchett and modern British young writers. The book is arranged as a series of analyses applying the author’s research methodology to four functional styles: everyday communication, official documents, journalism and fiction. The message of the text intended by its author is far from being the sum of facts, names and semantic cauls of words. Each of the four functional styles cumulatively foregrounds the message of its own that is discoverable on the map of the relatively significant ‘impact zones’ based on various means – not necessarily purely factual or linguistic. Journalism targets the reader’s opinion (p.159), fiction – immersion in a new reality (p. 173), everyday style of speech aims to create a comfortable atmosphere of interpersonal communication (p. 140). Professor Konurbaev’s analysis of a fragment from the novel by the 2017 Nobel laureate in literature Kazuo Ishiguro *The Remains of the Day* uncovers a psychological type of a samurai (as Marklen Konurbaev calls it) (pp. 177–178) lurching behind the ‘façade’ of a butler. These two images merge in the mind of the author whose vision of the English butler was a creation of his own and partially based on the scenes of his childhood in Japan (p. 176).

Professor Konurbaev’s vast erudition allows him to draw most unusual strings and associations to peoples, their customs and traditions that remain hidden or partially concealed behind the most ephemeral expression deeply rooted in culture. These examples, undoubtedly validate the author’s approach and reveal its powerful potential in interpretation of texts. The book is written as a fascinating research journey that will be easily grasped by a wide audience of students, young researchers, philosophers, linguists,

phoneticians, literary critics and even writers who would enjoy the author’s occasional playful metaphor and literary allusion – even in the argumentative part of its writing. The author offers to all of them a most intriguing vision of ‘a sound wave in mind’ rather than in the air, relating it primarily to general comprehension and understanding. This research is neither phonetic, nor strictly stylistic, but relates sooner to the general theory of understanding and hermeneutics. However, the author is quite positive about the role of ‘sound’ in this analysis, claiming that oral perception is an indispensable part of all speech comprehension. According to Marklen Konurbaev, timbre and voice appear as neural sensation in the auditory zone of the brain in the perception of the written speech – much like in the ordinary oral speech comprehension. While relying on the study of the mechanisms of speech dating back to the middle of the 20th century (the works by Professors Nikolai Zhinkin and Alexander Sokolov) and up to modern times (the LOT hypothesis by Professor Jerry Fodor and Mentalese by Stephen Pinker), the author claims that the oral impression in the perception of speech is the result of foregrounding (or prominence, as he prefers to call it). Automated expression in speech bypasses the zones in charge of articulation. But every unfamiliar linguistic element forces the reader to slow down, which inevitably switches on ‘oral comprehension’ in the brain. The map of such elements, claims Marklen Konurbaev, adequately reflects the depth of understanding and materializes in the form of mental ‘audition’ or auditory sensations in the brain.

Presumably, this approach to the study of literary and other texts that was initiated by the school of the late Professor Olga Akhmanova at Moscow State University back in the late 1960s, stands apart as a yet not clearly defined lane of research never clinging to any traditional linguistic discipline. The author of the book calls this approach philological, implying that it best reveals the essence of the true understanding of texts based on the dialectics of the oral and the written forms of speech which are, arguably, its only form of existence (p. 1).

The Style and Timbre of English Speech and Literature by Marklen E. Konurbaev is surely an important and useful book for all those who are inclined to study the language broadly and often philosophically. It describes ‘the knots’ – the points where different sides of the natural human speech meet for the collective fulfilment of their principal task to function as a means of communication and representation of the world around.

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environments, including political and public discourse. His other publications include *Ontology and Phenomenology of Speech* (Palgrave Macmillan, 2018).

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Directions in Discourse Analysis: Theory & Method. Jalilifar A. R. (Eds.). Ahvaz, Iran: University of Ahvaz Press, 2014. 370 pp. ISBN 978-600-141-158-8

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Plenty of books have written in Discourse Analysis, and the book, *Directions in Discourse Analysis: Theory & Method*, is another welcomed addition to this vital field of Applied Linguistics. Many books in this field are limited to a specific framework of discourse analysis (Coulthard, 1992; Christie, 2002; Gee, 1999; Walsh, 2006) to name but a few. Introducing a specific theoretical framework and orientation has almost been a tradition in preparing such textbooks, while it seems that there is a need for publications which take into account the fast-growing field of discourse analysis, where discerning similarities and differences are becoming subtle. *Directions in Discourse Analysis: Theory & Method* by Professor Jalilifar is another attempt to meet such a need. As the title of the book indicates, the emphasis is on a wide range of recent approaches, wherein the author presents them under a separate but a related chapter. He successfully brings together similar and contradictory themes under a single topic.

The book consists of nine chapters. Chapter one, *Discourse Analysis: Background to the Discipline*, is an overview of major approaches to discourse analysis. It provides definitions from well-known discourse analysts and surveys the history of discourse analysis. It is dense so that it might be difficult for novice readers to digest them all. Chapter two, *Spoken and Written Discourse*, is a meaty section of the book which takes on the importance of corpus-based studies by comparing both written and spoken discourses. It elaborates on *context, genres, cohesive devices, and stylistic features* through some international and local studies, and shows the contribution and insights of such studies in language teaching and learning. Chapter three, *Classroom Discourse*, provides various definitions of classroom discourse and its role in the development of English language both as a medium and object of learning. The author concisely introduces

three important approaches in classroom discourse such as *Interactional Analysis, Discourse Analysis, and Conversation Analysis*. Although the author addresses merits and demerits of these approaches, he does not frame them in the concluding section. Chapter four, *Workplace Discourse*, is another thick section of the book which explores distinctive features of workplace discourses in professional and institutional contexts. A myriad of data from formal meetings to informal conversations, and from letters to emails have been surveyed. Chapter five, *What Is Metadiscourse*, elaborates on the definition of Metadiscourse and makes a distinction between Metadiscourse in propositional meanings and Metadiscourse in the deployment of discourses. Different Metadiscourse taxonomies and its variation under different genres/cultures are explored for teaching and learning in the classroom settings. Chapter six, *Genre Analysis: Perspectives from ESP and Contrastive Rhetoric*, introduces another useful tool for discourse analysis. It contextualises genre analysis within two famous approaches of English for Specific Purposes and Contrastive Rhetoric. The last section of the chapter tracks some criticisms in deploying genre-based pedagogies. I think there is still a room to include two other famous genre pedagogies, i.e. the Sydney genre school and the New Rhetoric along with the aforementioned approaches. Chapter seven, *What Is Corpus-based Linguistics?* first, introduces a corpus-based approach for data collection in a large-scale data collection procedure. Second, it discusses different types of corpora and their contribution to other sub-fields of linguistics. Third, it describes data collection procedures, its applications and techniques for data analysis. The last part deals with the application of corpus linguistics. Chapter eight, *Critical Discourse Analysis*, indicates how Critical Discourse Analysis aims to complement micro and macro language features of politicised language. To this end, the author discusses

major relevant theories and models under three parts. The first part which is devoted to dominant theories and models is related to *language, discourse, ideology, and power*. The second part deals with the definition of X-phemism and typologies. The third part discusses approaches to media and newspapers. Chapter nine, *New Directions in Discourse Analysis*, encapsulates five emerging trends in discourse analysis such as *political, computer-mediated, media, identity, and gender*. The author highlights the importance of such trends in the future studies.

One of the outstanding features of this book is the presentation of chapters. The focus of chapters is on theory, methods of analyses, and samples of applications. In fact, what makes this book distinct among other similar publications are the presentation of the most recent approaches to discourse analysis without being biased in favouring one approach over the other and its contextualisation. This initiative makes it possible to skim through and jump to relevant theoretical concepts, appropriate tool selection, and applications. In fact, the presented frameworks in each chapter can be deployed to include the new trends highlighted in the final chapter. Among other things, the book deploys sample studies both from the international and local contexts. It seems that the author has been successful in making equilibrium between the studies carried out locally with those across the globe. One small shortcoming though is that despite the different perspectives presented

throughout the book, some of the chapters lack the adequate background to the concepts and theoretical frameworks. It might be the source of confusion for those who are not well-acquainted with the field of discourse studies. Another comment is that since the volume deals with a range of concepts and topics, adding a final conclusion section that reflects on and ties together the different ideas, would have been beneficial.

Overall, the manuscript is reader-friendly, and it includes major trends in discourse analysis. It can be used both as a textbook for the teaching and learning as well as a practical reference guide.

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Notes for contributors

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