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Editorial ELTA Journal

Dear colleagues,

We are pleased to announce to have published the third issue of *ELTA Journal*. The editorial mission, to connect research and practice in the field of ELT, to promote interdisciplinary publications and to incorporate international perspective, has guided the team to base their decisions on relevance, quality, clarity, and style. We continue to look for worldwide contributors to offer a variety of knowledge, ideas, and approaches. *ELTA Journal* is a peer-reviewed journal published once a year. Manuscripts are subjected to a double-blind peer review by at least two reviewers who are experts in the field. The policy ensures that the name, institution and the country of submitting authors are hidden from peer reviewers and vice versa. Thus, authors have an opportunity to receive high-quality, unbiased feedback and expertise from the evaluators. In order to acknowledge the teaching profession, *ELTA Journal* continues publishing articles produced by teachers and the ELT practitioners, as well as associate professors and researchers from all over the world.

In this issue, Feng Teng and James Wong, from Nanning University in China, introduce the Asian context in teaching English to our readers. In their article “Speed Speaking: A New Activity to Engage More Learners to Talk” they present a new concept for teaching spoken English.

Our contributor from Aleksinačka Grammar School in Aleksinac, Serbia, Bratislav Milošević, promotes self-improvement not only in linguistic but also in cultural and social terms through his article “Using a literature-based approach in the acquisition of compounds from Stevenson’s novel *The Strange Case of Dr Jekyll and Mr Hyde*”.

In the paper “Of Humans and Animals: Domestic Animal Names for Men and Women in English and Serbian”, Gorica Tomić, from High School Sveti Sava in Požega, Serbia, focuses on the relationship between culture and language. The author analyses animal metaphors used by native speakers to refer to humans.

The huge potential of metaphors is demonstrated in the paper “Multi-functionality of Metaphors in the Eco-Moral Discourse of the British Press” by Valentina Khrabrova, from National Research University and Higher School of Economics, in Saint-Petersburg. The author uses an example of a news article to show the importance of background knowledge for understanding particular uses of metaphors.

If our readers agree that pronunciation is the key component of the communicative competence of language learners, which is rarely given the curricular attention, they should read the article “Project-based Instruction for Pronunciation Accuracy” by CeAnn Myers and Nicholas Velde, from Nagasaki University and Center for Language Studies, Nagasaki, in Japan. The authors describe the project and explain the steps taken while implementing it. They offer guidance for training students to become more accurate in their pronunciation.

The research “The relationship between metacognition and Business English learning” by Nina Kisin, from Novi Sad Business School, Serbia, has both theoretical and social
significance due to an attempt to highlight metacognitive strategies as a useful way of learning a foreign language.

Our readers might be interested in the suggestion of a joint small-scale case study of Ali Karakaş, Sahar Matar AlZahrani, and Yusop Boonsuk, from Southampton University, UK, that training in repairs for written as well as spoken interaction as a type of communication strategy should be part of the English language teaching curriculum. In this paper, “Organization of Repair Structures in Dyadic Written Exchanges among Facebook Users”, the authors explore how individuals cope with breakdowns while exchanging text messages on Facebook, since such grammatical, lexical or pronunciation errors also occur in online communication, just as in real-life communication.

Vafeidou Avgi, from Aristotelio College, Greece, discusses the ways of facilitating vocabulary learning. In her article “The nightmare of new lexis: how to improve retention and retrieval” she encourages maximum exposure to recycling and revisiting the words for effective development of the productive competence.

The editorial team would like to express their appreciation to all the contributors for the time and effort that they have put into making this issue successful. We extend our gratitude to eminent professors and esteemed colleagues for their gracious expertise in reviewing the articles. We would also like to thank the ELTA Board for their support. Thank you to the people who recognized the enthusiasm and volunteer work of the editorial team and all those of you who supported our campaign in Crowdfunding. [https://www.indiegogo.com/projects/elta-journal--2#/] We really appreciate the help.

We hope this issue will be of broad interest to the readership of the journal and we look forward to receiving the feedback.

We would encourage the submission of articles to further the advancement of the teaching profession.

With best wishes,

ELTA Journal Editorial Team
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Project-based Instruction for Pronunciation Accuracy

CeAnn Myers and Nicholas Velde, Nagasaki University, Center for Language Studies, Nagasaki, Japan

Abstract
Pronunciation accuracy is a key component in the communicative competence of language learners (Celce-Murcia et al, 2010), yet current language teaching theory (e.g., Communicative Language Teaching) fails to address this part of language learning in a direct manner. This leaves language teachers to decide on their own how to teach pronunciation. Yet many teachers are underprepared or lack guidance in this extremely important decision. This article divulges the steps taken in implementing a project to teach suprasegmental features of English. The project was highly successful in training students to become more accurate in their pronunciation and to utilize pronunciation as a tool for communicative competence.

Keywords: Project-based Instruction, Communicative-Language Teaching, Video, Pronunciation, Register

1. Introduction
To date, much attention has been given to the role of pronunciation in the communicative competence of language learners. With the advent of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and a move from accuracy to fluency in pronunciation (Goodwin, 2001), teachers have struggled to identify the manner in which they should address the pronunciation needs of their students (Levis & Grant, 2003). In addition, teachers are rarely given the resources and support necessary to address pronunciation in the classroom. As a result, pronunciation is considered important in communicative competence, but it is rarely given the curricular attention necessary for building a complete communicative competence among language learners.

In addition to the failures of CLT to involve pronunciation accuracy as a communicative tool, we found that, in our
teaching setting, we simply lacked the time necessary to seriously address student issues in pronunciation. Though students had few problems with segmental features in English, they were often struggling to learn the suprasegmental features of English that are highly important for communicative competence (i.e., word stress, sentence stress, intonation, and connected speech). In order to address such issues, an extra-curricular approach was needed.

In addition to the need for direct pronunciation training, we found that classes were often driven by tests, lacked strong threads from one class to the next, and did not provide motivating tasks that required communication. In order to encourage more realistic language use, motivate students, and link classes, our program dedicated class time to Project-based Instruction (PBI). PBI asks students to complete a complex, long-term project. According to Thomas (2000), PBI (a) requires a series of complex tasks, (b) is based on questions or problems that require critical thinking, (c) utilizes problem-solving, decision making, or investigative activities, (d) promotes autonomous learning, and (e) culminates in a tangible output. Because of the focus on authentic problems, students who participate in PBI genuinely communicate with each other in order to share their ideas and opinions. Furthermore, project topics should be interesting and applicable to students’ lives. Because PBI utilizes current, stimulating topics, encourages authentic communication, builds on previously learned knowledge, “students experience increased motivation, autonomy, engagement, and a more positive attitude toward English” (Alan & Stoller, 2005, p. 10). Whether PBI is used as a supplement to an already-existing course or as a stand-alone class, students and the program as a whole will experience numerous benefits.

2. Pronunciation in the Curriculum

Some language programs address pronunciation directly in objectives and goals, but still fail due to under-prepared teachers or ineffective materials for pronunciation teaching. In addition, language programs often take a misguided approach to teaching pronunciation, even though curricular decisions about pronunciation must be principled and appropriate according to the teaching setting and learners involved (Celce-Murcia et al, 2010). As language teachers, we found ourselves falling into a category of teachers who wanted to address the important aspects of pronunciation in communication, but failed to find the time and direction needed to do so. Our language curriculum failed to target specific features in pronunciation, and we found ourselves working among
teachers who were not prepared to teach pronunciation through prior experience or education. These circumstances led to a decision to adopt a special project into our existing curriculum in order to address the need for more targeted pronunciation teaching within the context of oral communication.

The project was first introduced at the international TESOL convention in 2013 (Stacy & Grode, 2013). It was presented as a possible project to be used in teaching and assessing spoken accuracy while focusing on communicative competence. Though the project featured many aspects that fit our curricular needs, we found that the project would need to be adapted in order to fit well into our curriculum.

This article provides insight into using a project to teach pronunciation as a communicative tool. It begins with a description of the project we adapted to our teaching setting and explains the steps taken while implementing the project. Following the description and explanation, we include details about an adapted version of the project, which we implemented in a different teaching setting at the same university. Finally, we offer reflections on the project’s efficacy in teaching pronunciation for communicative competence, and we offer suggestions for adapting this project to other teaching settings.

3. Speaking Project

Our original *Imitation* and *Change It Up Speech* Project was designed for an Intensive English Program (IEP) in an English as a foreign language (EFL) setting in Turkey. Roughly half of the students in the program were preparing for departments where English is the medium of instruction while the other half of students attended the program as a pre-requisite to enrolling in a Turkish-medium program. Students in the IEP attended 24 hours of English instruction per week, one of which was an instructional hour devoted to PBI. About 475 students participated in this project with 25 instructors, 85% of which were non-native English speakers. The university used the quarter system, and therefore, instructors had seven weeks for this project. This meant that students had approximately seven hours of instruction devoted to the project. There were two major goals to this project:

1. to help students develop accuracy with suprasegmental features of pronunciation;
2. to assist students in understanding how different registers utilize different pronunciation features in addition to vocabulary and non-verbal characteristics in speech.
In order to adequately support and assess these goals, the project was divided into two components or “speeches,” the *Imitation Speech*, and the *Change It Up Speech*. The following paragraphs will provide practical steps for implementing this project, material that can be used, a format for lessons in the project, and rubrics for assessing both speeches.

4. Phase One: *Imitation Speech*

   **Introduction**

In the initial phase of the project, teachers needed to provide a brief introduction to PBI as a teaching method and explain the components of the project that students would carry out. It was important that students understood that this was a long-term, complex project with many steps and the teacher will be there to guide them along the way. Additionally, students needed a clear description of the project including the goals of the project, steps they will complete, and schedule for the duration of the project. This was also the time for teachers to “sell” the project to the students. We wanted students to be excited about the project and to look forward to working together, and not to be overwhelmed. One great way to do this was to show a concrete example. For our project, many teachers created their own sample video to show to the students. This was highly recommended as teachers gained valuable experience in completing the steps before they asked the students to complete them. Additionally, students enjoyed seeing their teacher in a new role. It was good for students to see their instructors take a risk and be outside of their comfort zone. This was also a great team-building experience. In our context, we had teachers imitate characters from the TV series, *Friends*, as well as popular movies like *The Hunger Games*. In the first phase, it was important for students to generally understand how PBI is different from normal class tasks, comprehend the goals, steps, and schedule of the project, watch an example, and be motivated to begin their own speeches.

5. Phase Two: *Video Selection and Script Creation*

In the second phase of the project, students chose a video to imitate. They were able to choose any video featuring one person speaking for 1-3 minutes. Students were encouraged to think of their favorite movies, TV shows, and news programs as source material for the project. Additionally, students could use speeches such as celebrity Oscar speeches, speeches to the United Nations, or world-famous speeches such as Martin Luther King Jr’s *I Have a Dream* speech. Students chose numerous different speeches, ranging from Marlon Brando in *The Godfather* to Nelson
Mandela’s speech about segregation. In order to assist students in this process, they were given a list of speech resources (see Appendix A). Once students decided on a speech, they looked for the script. If students could not find the script, they listened to the speech several times and transcribed it themselves. Because the project was not focused on listening due to the limited timeframe allotted, teachers did not request that all students transcribe their speech. Once students brought the script to class, teachers helped to check it and ensure that it was correct.

6. Phase Three: Pronunciation Instruction

The third phase involved breaking down pronunciation features of word stress, sentence stress, intonation, and rhythm/connected speech. When teaching pronunciation of spoken English, teachers must first decide what methods they will use. However, the pronunciation features they will teach often dictate their pedagogical decisions. In particular, the decision to teach either segmental or suprasegmental features of spoken English deeply influences the method in which an instructor will teach. Theoretically, an approach primarily based in suprasegmentals but in a balanced way, tailored on learners’ needs, has been strongly advocated (Goodwin, 2001; Levis & Grant, 2003). In particular, Celce-Murcia et al (2010) have provided guidance in teaching suprasegmentals using methods of imitation wherein students observe speakers of the target language and develop skills in producing spoken language by mimicking the speakers from source material. Based on these theoretical and practical suggestions, our project adopted a very specific method of teaching pronunciation to students.

First, the students were taught pronunciation rules for word stress, sentence stress, intonation, and rhythm/connected speech. Following our presentation of rules, the students engaged in practice and application of the rules. This phase was highly important for the project. For each of these features, the teachers spent approximately 20-30 minutes presenting the information and letting the students practice.

Word stress. According to Gilbert (2008) a stressed syllable is important for focus in production of spoken English because it often represents the pinnacle of focus in a speaker’s message. Furthermore, one major signal of word stress is an elongated vowel sound at the center of a stressed syllable. Gilbert also proposes that vowel length is one feature of stress that is more easily controlled by learners of English. For these reasons, we created a simplified set of rules for word stress. The rules were created in order to avoid the need to teach
an entire set of linguistic vocabulary and the skills necessary to linguistically analyze English speeches. Making students junior linguists was simply not the goal of the project. Rather, raising awareness and offering rules that might more practically influence students’ output in spoken English were the primary focus. The following were utilized as word stress rules during the project:

- One word = one stress (one word cannot have two stresses)
- The stress is always on a vowel sound
- Stress does not happen in one-syllable words
- The rules are difficult, you need to practice

In addition to these rules, the students practiced noticing and predicting word stress using a worksheet (see Appendix B) and then with a partner using an information gap. Later, the students applied the skills learned to their own speeches.

**Sentence stress.** To teach sentence stress, the teachers focused on helping the students recognize content versus function words. They also helped them to learn how to apply stress to content words and the most important words in their sentences. The students were presented with information in a worksheet and a lecture, then practiced with a partner focusing on consciously stressing parts of a sentence and recognizing their partner’s stressed words (see Appendix C). Eventually, the students applied these skills to their *Imitation Speech* project as well.

**Intonation.** The teachers focused on pitch and intonation as a means to express emotions. Additionally, body language was taught as a non-verbal communication tool for expressing emotions. After the teachers provided information on how emotions are typically expressed in English using a variety of intonation and volume patterns, the students played a game to practice intonation and body language (see Appendix D). In a group, they chose an emotion card and read a sentence changing their pitch, tone, and body language to express themselves. Their group members then guessed their emotion. These skills were also applied to the students’ *Imitation Speeches.*

**Rhythm and connected speech.**

The students were introduced to rhythm as the musicality of language and connected speech as the blending of sounds when we speak. They were presented with a few simple rules to help them comprehend these topics:
C+V = Consonant + Vowel: Words that end in a consonant and the next word starts with a vowel. Push the consonant sound forward and connect it with the vowel.

Ex. “I need it.” = “I nee dit.”

C+C = Consonant + Consonant: Words that end in a consonant and the next word starts with a consonant. Only say the sound once, but make it longer. Do not say the sound twice.

Ex. “Good day” = “Gooday”

Students practiced these rules with a worksheet (see Appendix E), and with a partner. They eventually applied them to their Imitation Speech.

In addition to practicing with worksheets and partners, the students had the opportunity to try out their new knowledge with three mini-practice speeches. These were a motivating and fun way for students to utilize pronunciation features learned in class. During three different days, the instructor played one mini-practice, for a total of three videos:

Gollum from Lord of the Rings

Brad Pitt from Fight Club

I am Sparta speech from 300

7. Phase Four: Imitation Speech Video Creation and Movie Day #1

By the fourth phase, students will have learned the targeted pronunciation features, practiced the features, chosen their video to imitate, and found or written a script. At this point, the instructors provided some simple symbols to use (one for each of the targeted pronunciation features, plus one for pauses) as they listened and analyzed their videos. After practicing in class, the students used these symbols in their own scripts. This required students to listen to their videos numerous times and developed their ability to recognize the pronunciation features taught in class. The students began practicing speaking along with their video, changing their rhythm, connected speech, tone, pitch, word and sentence stress, pauses, and body language in order to make their production resemble the original speech as closely as possible. The students recorded videos of their final speeches. They were allowed to re-record as many times as necessary, but they were not allowed to read notes. Essentially, the speech had to be memorized. On the day that the Imitation Speech was due, the class had a “movie day” and watched the final products. Students were very excited to show their hard work and the movie viewers enjoyed seeing their friends and classmates acting as other people. After class, the teacher graded the student speeches using a
rubric. An example rubric can be found in Appendix F.

8. Phase Five: Introduction of Change It Up Speech

Once the first of their two speeches was completed, the students learned about the other speech: the Change It Up Speech. For this speech, the students used their original speech, but needed to change the register and modify it for a new audience. For example, if the student’s original video was an Oscar speech, the student could change it to be a political campaign ad, a speech between friends, or an academic lecture. Students watched an example created by the teacher in order to become more familiar with the speech requirements.

9. Phase Six: Register/Audience and Appropriate Pronunciation Modifications

The first step in this phase was to understand the concepts of register and audience. Next, the students brainstormed as many different registers and audiences as possible. Then, thinking of their speech, they were assisted in choosing a completely different register and audience. Once they chose their new context, they worked to modify the vocabulary in their speech using synonyms appropriate for the new setting. Then, they modified the pronunciation of their speech changing each feature to better suite their new register. Transforming speeches made the students much more aware of the register that each speech was originally written for. They were required to consider the pronunciation features within that particular register before making choices about which pronunciation features to change for their transformed speech. Furthermore, the students gained new insight about two different registers and how pronunciation changes to reflect register.

10. Phase Seven: Practice and Movie Day #2

During this final phase of the entire project, the students practiced their newly modified speeches at home and recorded a second video. In class, they had another movie day and showcased their projects. The teachers evaluated the projects using a rubric and gave the students feedback on their project as a whole.

11. Adapted Project for ENG101

Though we had already adapted the project for our IEP setting, we also felt that the project would fit nicely into an academic presentation skills course for students who had finished the Intensive English Program and matriculated into
regular courses at the university. As a result, we decided to modify the project once more in order to match the curricular goals of the academic presentation skills course. The project we used lasted 15 weeks, or an entire semester of study. It was used as a major tool for assessment during the semester. Our modification of the project included requiring students to perform their *Imitation Speech* in front of the class as a midterm exam, rather than recording the speech as a video. The students were also required to adapt the *Imitation Speech* in order to transform it into an academic presentation, which helped the students achieve the course goal of learning to give academic presentations. Before beginning this stage of the project, an example speech was given using a visual aid and following conventions of academic presentations using an introduction, central idea or argument, and a conclusion. In addition to students using materials from the first stage of the project (i.e., the script for the *Imitation Speech*), the teacher led the students through a series of steps in order to scaffold the process of transformation. These steps included identifying words within the speech that could be changed into synonyms featured on the academic word list created by Coxhead (2000). By working in a computer lab and giving training to students for the tools necessary for this step (i.e., an online learner’s dictionary, an online version of the academic word list, and an online thesaurus), the students were prepared to target specific vocabulary in order to create a more academic tone in their presentations. In addition, training was given in creating visual aids (i.e., PowerPoint presentations), creating introductions and conclusions, and incorporating outside information from sources in order to support the presentations. Other scaffolding necessary for students to transform speeches from movies into academic presentations included encouraging students to identify themes from their speeches in order to use those themes as the center of their final presentations. Once students identified the themes, they were asked to narrow their scope to one theme and to create an academic presentation much like the example presentation they experienced earlier in the semester. Though the project for the academic presentation skills course was quite different from the IEP project, we were able to model it after the IEP project in order to maintain structure and guidance throughout the semester.

12. Reflections and Suggestions

This project yielded positive effects on both the teachers and the students who participated. The non-native English-speaking teachers were quite hesitant and
nervous to teach a pronunciation-focused course. However, because each of the features were scaffolded and specific, instructors went from feeling inadequate to feeling empowered by the project and their ability to teach pronunciation. The project was motivating for both the IEP and the academic presentation skills students as well. Many of the students who normally didn’t complete homework assignments in other classes completed every step of the project. In addition, the students enjoyed both the worksheets and the current and entertaining videos used for practice sessions during the project. The students in the academic presentation skills course for presentation skills left the project with a larger awareness of the academic register of English, and also gained a strong confidence in their public speaking abilities. The students learned and used the suprasegmental features that the project focused on, even after the project. As a result, students from both the IEP and academic presentation skills course experienced a great improvement in their pronunciation as a tool of communicative competence.

Though our project was highly beneficial for the teachers and students, we also experienced several challenges. The project’s sequence was too fast and did not allow instructors to assist students to the extent that they wanted to. For example, the students who could not find their script were required to transcribe it from listening to the video. While this exercise was helpful and worthwhile, it could have been better scaffolded and transcription techniques could have been taught in class. In addition, the students in the academic presentation skills course were never introduced to many of the features of pronunciation focused on during the project prior to enrolling in the course. Consequently, they required more instruction than was available because the class only met once a week. It is highly important to consider these challenges and to be prepared for other unforeseen issues when administering this project. However, we felt that the benefits far outweighed any problems we encountered.

With the benefits and challenges in mind, we feel it is necessary to provide some suggestions for adapting this project to other teaching settings. It is imperative for teachers to focus on pronunciation areas that are a specific concern/challenge for students. This may be guided by an initial diagnostic in order to identify problem areas in pronunciation for students. Lengthening or shortening the time allotted for the project must also occur depending on the curricular space provided. If possible, this project could easily be lengthened. This would allow for more scaffolding, a focus on additional pronunciation features (i.e., segmentals),
or an in-depth introduction to different registers of spoken English. In contrast, the project can also be shortened by removing one component of the project (i.e., the *Imitation Speech* or the *Change It Up Speech*). However, the *Change It Up* part of the project was considered most important for the academic presentation skills course because it offered more time to analyze and experience the academic register. While shortening or lengthening will change some of the overall goals of the project, it can still be considered a valuable addition to a curriculum. Moreover, other requirements might change the overall focus of the project. For example, the teacher might require only academic speeches in order to direct project towards the goals of their course.

This project allowed us to address the deficiencies in CLT concerning pronunciation accuracy. In addition, we were able to engage students in a project in which they focused on language forms and meanings in order to communicate more authentically. Using the steps described, teachers can attempt to do the same in their own setting. Adaptations can easily align the project to a course’s goals and objectives while still engaging students in having fun with language. We encourage teachers to try to adopt the project in their setting and experience the benefits that we have seen with our students.

References


Appendix A

SPEECH RESOURCES

Where can you find speeches in English? Here are some places:
http://www.americanrhetoric.com/top100speechesall.html
Martin Luther King Jr. I Have a Dream https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=3vDWWy4CMhE
Barak Obama https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=HoFqV3qVMGA
Oscar speeches
TED Talks http://www.ted.com/
Nelson Mandela https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=xZ9KIXCkb2s
Malala Yousafzai https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=MOqloJrFVM
Ronald Regan: Tear down this wall https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Ei1HnWwzmNk
Emma Watson: UN Speech https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=p-lFl4qhBsE
Ellen DeGeneres: Tulane Commencement
https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=0e8ToRVoRo
Morgan Freeman: Shawshank Redemption
https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=TeBU3tiYY0U
Princess Diana: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=QqNI9aRUubk
Captain Jack Sparrow from Pirates of the Caribbean:
https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=mCDA-m-TQdU
Appendix B

B1 Speech Project: Word Stress

Rules:

_____________ word = ________________stress

The stress is always on a ________________ ________________

Stress does not happen in ________________ words

Rules are ________________, you need to ________________

Count the Syllables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Number of Syllables?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dog</td>
<td>dog</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>green</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>teacher</td>
<td>teach-er</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>expensive</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>interesting</td>
<td>in-ter-est-ing</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Practice

Directions: Listen to the teacher and write the word in the correct category.

Words: 00 00 000 000 00000

teacher
water
Japan
photograph
important
Partner A: read the words on your card. Partner B write down the word in the correct category.
Partner B: read the words on your card. Partner A: write down the words in the correct category.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Partner A</th>
<th>Partner B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>China</td>
<td>ABOVE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PREsent</td>
<td>OBlject</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>preSENT</td>
<td>obJECT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NAtion</td>
<td>PERsonal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nationALity</td>
<td>personALity</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Appendix C

**B1 Speech Project: Sentence Stress**

**Rules:**
- ___________ words are stressed
- ___________ words are unstressed

Content words include ___________, ___________, and ___________.

Function words include ___________, ___________, and ___________.

The most ___________ words from your ideas should be stressed.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Content or Function?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The function</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>two</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>swam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quickly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Our</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>favorite</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>television</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>show</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>started</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Talented</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>singers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>are</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>often</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>talkative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>large</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pizza</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>expensive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Your</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>partner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>genius</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Practice**

Directions: Listen to the teacher and circle the stressed words in each sentence.

1. Our teacher helps us to learn English.
2. Water is the most important thing for living animals.
3. Japan has a population of almost 130 million people.
4. Photography is a new art, but it is quite popular.
5. It is important to listen to your friends when they speak.

Now, practice with a partner. Choose which word to stress. Read your sentence to your partner. Your partner will listen and tell you the stressed word.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Partner A</th>
<th>Partner B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I dropped the pizza by mistake.</td>
<td>I will talk to you in a moment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They are late, so they are in a hurry.</td>
<td>My parents met on July 5th.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My teacher is late.</td>
<td>There was a huge earthquake in China.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My favorite book is <em>The Hunger Games</em>.</td>
<td>My ancestors came from Germany.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am not a nurse. I am a doctor.</td>
<td>The interview started at 5, not at 6.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix D

B1 Speech Project: Inferring Emotions

One person in your group should take an emotion card. Don’t show the other group members! That person should choose one of the sentences below to read aloud and try to use your card’s emotion as you read. Remember to use:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Loud/Soft Voice</th>
<th>Rising / Falling Intonation</th>
<th>Body language</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Your group members should guess which emotion the speaker is acting.

Take turns so each person in your group can choose a card and say a sentence.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>excited</th>
<th>unsure</th>
<th>interested</th>
<th>uninterested</th>
<th>surprised</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

I saw you last night.

My sister has a new boyfriend.

Oh, we’re having spaghetti again for dinner?

The movie is almost over.

You got a good grade on the quiz.

You use egg on your pizza?

The School Festival is will happen soon.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Excited</th>
<th>Unsure</th>
<th>Interested</th>
<th>Uninterested</th>
<th>Surprised</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
Appendix E

B1 Speech Project: Rhythm and Linking

Definitions:
Rhythm: the ________________ of language.
Linking: ________________ sounds or words together.

Rules:
C+V = Consonant + Vowel: Words that ________________ in a consonant and the next word ________________ with a vowel. Push the consonant sound forward and connect it with the vowel.
   Ex. “I need it.” = “I nee dit.”
C+C = Consonant + Consonant: Words that end in a ________________ and the next word starts with a ________________. Only say the sound once, but make it ________________. Do not say the sound ________________.
   Ex. “Good day” = “Gooday”

Examples

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>C+V</th>
<th>C+C</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>“Stop it” → “Sto pit”</td>
<td>“best time” → “bestime”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“Play a song” → “Pla ya song”</td>
<td>“sit down” → “sitdown”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Practice with the teacher

Directions: Listen to the teacher and write the sounds that you hear.
“Read a book”
= ________________
_ “Big game” _ = ________________
_ “Take it” _ = ________________
_ “Can you wait a minute?” _ = ________________
Practice with a partner

Partner A: Look at your card. Choose which sounds to link. Say them to your partner.
Partner B: write down the sentences you hear, and link the sounds.

Switch!

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Partner A</th>
<th>Partner B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Have a nice day!</td>
<td>I will help you in a moment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I'll see you at three o'clock.</td>
<td>My parents still love each other.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The movie was serious.</td>
<td>There was a huge earthquake.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am not a nurse. I am a doctor.</td>
<td>My sister runs in races.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We ate tuna last night.</td>
<td>I want to eat pizza.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Imitation Speech Project Rubric

**Name:** _______________________________________________  
**Score:** ____________/100

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pronunciation</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>OK</th>
<th>Good!</th>
<th>Awesome!</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Word Stress: Correct syllables are stressed</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentence Stress: Correct words are stressed in the sentence</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intonation: Accurate rising and falling intonation is used</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rhythm/Linking of Words: Rhythm matches the original speech</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gestures/Facial Expressions</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>OK</th>
<th>Good!</th>
<th>Awesome!</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gestures: Body movements are copied accurately</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facial Expressions: Expressions are copied accurately</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Project Requirements</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>OK</th>
<th>Good!</th>
<th>Awesome!</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The speech is 1-3 minutes</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Description</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The speech is appropriate and in English</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The original video/audio is included</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The speech is marked with pronunciation symbols</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student is prepare and the speech is memorized</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total Points = ____________________________/ 100___________

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The Relationship between Metacognition and Business English Learning

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Novi Sad Business School, Serbia

Abstract
This research aims to present metacognitive strategies used by foreign language learners. The research involves the second year Business English students at the intermediate level of knowledge (N=50). We use the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL), by Rebecca Oxford in order to present the extent to which metacognitive strategies are used by Business English learners. The theoretical significance of this research is in an attempt to highlight metacognitive strategies as a useful way of learning a foreign language. The social significance of this study is to examine metacognitive strategies used by the second year Business English students at the intermediate level of knowledge, based on the results obtained by means of quantitative and qualitative research methods. The research results showed that the students use metacognitive strategies in learning Business English.

Keywords: metacognitive strategies, metacognition, Business English, learning foreign languages

1. Introduction
Metacognition connects medicine and psychology; linguistics and philosophy. Metacognition is used as a form of treatment in mental health. The usage of metacognition in learning is a “philosophical” approach to learning Business English or foreign languages in general. Namely, philosophy requires a lot of thinking and self-reflection
(introspection), and precisely thinking and self-reflection (introspection) are the two determinants of metacognitive strategies. This paper deals with Segment D of the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) and presents the usage of metacognitive strategies in learning English by Business English students at the intermediate level of knowledge.

In what follows, we will first define language learning strategies in general and afterwards, we will present the specificity, definitions and research results on metacognitive strategies, in particular. There are many definitions of language learning strategies. Cameron (2001) gave perhaps the simplest definition of language learning strategies: “the actions that learners take to help themselves understand and remember vocabulary items” (Cameron, 2001: 92 in Boonkongsaen, 2012: 46). In this definition, the accent is on the learners and the importance of using language learning strategies in learning new lexemes. To put it simply, “Learning begins with the learner” is a leitmotiv in using language learning strategies (Nyikos & Oxford, 1993: 11 in Kameli et al., 2012: 24). Metacognitive strategies are particularly useful because, by using them, students can evaluate the success of a language task, monitor errors and identify the needs and preferences related to the language learning strategies (Oxford, 2003: 13). This self-reflection is an important part of learning foreign languages.

2. Metacognitive strategies – definitions

3. Research on Metacognitive strategies

Research results have shown that metacognitive strategies are helpful in reading and understanding the text. Furthermore, they are helpful in developing all four language skills, both receptive skills: reading, listening and productive skills: writing, speaking (Mijušković, 2014:105). There are three phases that are used in reading by more advanced students: pre-reading, during reading and post reading (Ibid.). Metacognitive strategies are applicable to all these phases. For example, in the first, pre-reading phase there is “a conversation about a text based on a photograph or questions”; then, in the second, during reading phase, learners “identify main ideas, make conclusions, focus on the specific information in a text” and the third phase, post reading phase, includes summarizing and paraphrasing a text by foreign language learners (Ibid: 108).

McKeown & Gentilucci (2007) in their paper entitled the „Think-Aloud Strategy: Metacognitive development and monitoring comprehenion in the middle school second-language classroom“ dealt with the so-called the think-aloud metacognitive strategy used by high school students who are learning English as a second language. The authors describe metacognition as “thinking about our own thinking”. They highlight the importance of mastering the strategies for successful text-reading. The think-aloud strategy means that students say aloud what they are thinking about while, for example, reading a text. It is believed that students of foreign languages benefit from think-aloud strategy, because it requires from a reader “to stop and explore the text - a simple recipe to involve the reader” (Loxterm, Beck & McKeown, 1994 in McKeown & Gentilucci, 2007: 136).

At the beginning of their paper they provide us with a great observation regarding the use of learning strategies in the classroom. Namely, the teachers should not make a mistake and consider all the teaching strategies good enough and applicable to all the levels of English language knowledge (McKeown & Gentilucci, 2007: 136). As a natural continuation of the previous statement: an effective student or a good user of language learning strategies knows when to use a certain strategy, as well as when to leave the chosen strategy and choose another one (Jones et al. 1987: 15 in Peñuelas, 2012: 79).

4. Rebecca Oxford’s taxonomy of language learning strategies

Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) by Rebecca Oxford contains a total of 50 statements related to the strategies for learning English (foreign) language,
which are a part of the taxonomy of strategies, i.e. their division into six groups. Namely, Rebecca Oxford (1990) classified the strategies of teaching English into six groups, more precisely, six segments A-F, which represent the taxonomy of strategies for language learning. These are, as follows:

1. Segment A: Memory strategies
2. Segment B: Cognitive strategies
3. Segment C: Compensatory strategies
4. Segment D: Metacognitive strategies
5. Segment E: Affective strategies
6. Segment F: Social Strategies

This is the most detailed classification of language learning strategies. The frequency of the strategy use can be observed through the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning.

5. Methodology of research

In this chapter, we will describe the research sample and data collection methods used in conducting a research on metacognitive strategies. The participants of this research are the students of Business English at the intermediate level (N=50).

5.1. The choice of the research sample

In order to obtain the data in this study, we used the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning by Rebecca Oxford (Oxford 1990). We focused on the survey which was conducted on a sample that consists of 50 second-year students of Novi Sad Business School. This research is done as a pilot sample size and as a basis for further research to make data more reliable.

5.2. The description of the research sample

First, at the beginning of this research, the students of Novi Sad Business School (N=50) completed the initial questionnaire, whose aim was to collect demographic data of the respondents. It included general information about the students such as: academic year, study programme, knowledge of other foreign language(s) apart from English etc. Male respondents comprise 44% of the sample, while female respondents comprise 56% of the sample.

5.3. Data collection methods

In this study we used quantitative methods of data collection by using the questionnaire designed by Rebecca Oxford. Fifty students of Business English completed the questionnaire – a Likert scale as an assessment strategy designed by Rebecca Oxford, Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL).
6. Analysis of Research Results:
Metacognitive strategies used by Business English students

In Table 1, given below we can observe minimal and maximal results, the arithmetic mean (AM) and standard deviation (SD) of the participants' answers on the statements about the use of metacognitive strategies found in the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL). Segment D (metacognitive strategy) of the SILL deals with the use of metacognitive strategies in paying attention to our own mistakes in learning, finding ways to learn successfully, i.e. thinking about learning, but also looking for people one can talk to in English.

Many studies have shown that the use of metacognitive strategies is an important indicator of advanced foreign language knowledge (Dreyer & Oxford, 1996; Oxford, Judd, & Giesen, 1998 in Oxford, 2003: 12-13). The results of the research on the use of metacognitive strategies highlight the fact that the second year students at Novi Sad Business School are on the advanced level of Business English knowledge. In Segment D (metacognitive strategies) students scored an average of about 28 points from possible 45 points, meaning that the use of metacognitive strategies is at a satisfactory level (see Table 1).

Our results were similar to the research results in the United States, which refer to the tendency of foreign language students to think about learning a foreign language by using a variety of metacognitive strategies (Fitzgerald, 1995 in McKeown & Gentilucci, 2007: 137). Business English students from Serbia (Novi Sad Business School, second year of studies) express the highest agreement with the following statements found in Segment D (metacognitive strategy): „I pay attention when someone is speaking English” (AM=3,9), „I try to find out how to be a better learner of English” (AM=3,72), „I think about my progress in learning English” (AM=3,56) and „I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me do better” (AM=3,42). Frequent use of metacognitive strategies by students is reflected in all language skills (both receptive and productive). Metacognitive strategies are important for successful foreign language learning, learning native languages and the development of all language skills: listening, reading (receptive) and speaking, writing (productive) (Mijušković, 2014: 105). In addition, Business English students set the clear objectives for learning Business English: „I have clear goals for improving my English skills” (AM=2,94). Equally, they „try to find as many ways as possible to use their English”(AM=2,94).
In analysing data and thinking about findings, we should take into account the statements that belong to metacognitive strategies and for which the participants demonstrate lower agreement. These are, as follows: “I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to study English” (AM=2,43); “I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English” (AM=2,52); “I look for people I can talk to in English” (AM=2,54). There is a discrepancy between the statement with the highest frequency of use “I pay attention when someone is speaking English” (AM=3,9) and the lowest frequency of use “I look for people I can talk to in English” (AM=2,54). Students are eager to hear someone who is speaking English, but are reluctant to start a conversation with that person. The research may imply that communicative activities should be an integral part of teaching, to motivate students and teach them how to speak more in English, not just to listen to a reliable input.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>D-METACOGNITIVE STRATEGIES</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Arithmetic Mean (AM)</th>
<th>Standard Deviation (SD)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>15.00</td>
<td>45.00</td>
<td>28.3333</td>
<td>7.95822</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. Minimal and maximal results, the arithmetic mean and standard deviation (summation) of the participants’ answers on the use of metacognitive strategies (Segment D)
enough time to study English.

<p>| | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>D6. I look for people I can talk to in English.</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>2.5400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D7. I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English.</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>2.5200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D8. I have clear goals for improving my English skills.</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>2.9400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D9. I think about my progress in learning English.</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>3.5600</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. Minimal and maximal results, the arithmetic mean and standard deviation of the participants' answers on the statements about the use metacognitive strategies (Segment D)

7. Conclusion

The use of metacognitive strategies should be applied to the problems of practice, since too often, we teach students what to think but not *how to think*. This paper presented the theoretical views and research results on metacognitive strategies. Furthermore, the paper presented the metacognitive strategies for learning Business English through the research in which the participants were second year Business English students at the intermediate level (N=50). The paper highlighted the types of metacognitive strategies that are used with the highest, as well as with the lowest frequency. Overall, the research results showed that the respondents in this research are led by metacognition in learning Business English. This research is done on a pilot sample size. The results in future should be based on a larger sample size to make data more reliable.
References:


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Multi-functionality of Metaphors in the Eco-Moral Discourse of the British Press

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Abstract

Authentic news articles are a valuable source of didactic material for EFL teaching. This paper deals with the analysis of multi-functional metaphors in the eco-moral discourse of the British press through an example of a news article. The research shows the importance of background knowledge that makes it possible to understand a particular use of metaphors. Some functions are focused on: attention-grabbing, descriptive, interpersonal, cohesive, rhetoric, personifying, and persuasive, in order to manifest a huge potential of metaphors. It is shown that the rhetoric of text rises in a conflicting frame. Some examples of the conceptualization of metaphor use are given to highlight the author’s visualization of things as well as his civic stance. It is pointed out that the figurative application of words, collocations, phrases, sentences-aphorisms, leads to text integrity.

Key words: eco-moral discourse, background knowledge, topic-triggered, interpersonal function, persuasive function, conflicting frame

1. Introduction

In EFL teaching, news articles play a crucial role in the development of students’ linguistic, cultural and cross-cultural awareness. Teachers of English come across as intermediaries who bridge the gap between different cultures. From this perspective, the use and considerable analysis of breaking news and burning issues, which concern different spheres of life, is an overriding priority of the modern educational process.
Richards (2006) in *Communicative Language Teaching Today* quotes Clarke and Silberstein (1977: 51) who argued that: “Classroom activities should parallel the ‘real world’ as closely as possible. Arguments in favor of the use of authentic materials include as follows:

1. They provide cultural information about the target language.
2. They provide exposure to real language.
3. They relate more closely to learners’ needs.
4. They support a more creative approach to teaching”.

This research presents a case study of the use of an authentic news article – the result of collaborative work with students. Guided by the teacher, the students were asked to look for metaphors in the selected text with the view to analyzing their functions. The theme had been chosen by mutual consent. Apart from the analysis of the functional use of metaphors, the issue within the text had to be investigated. In particular, it was recommended that the students should suggest solutions to the problem under consideration: poaching and illegal animal trade. Therefore, the news article was supposed to develop critical thinking as well as the following competences: linguistic, cognitive, analytical, practical, communicative, and social. The results of the work are given below.

2. Methods and materials

It is inarguable that Black, Gibbs, Grady, Johnson, Lakoff, Ortony, Turner and many others should be regarded as linguists that have made a great contribution to the research of metaphors. Published sources indicate that modern works about metaphors can be divided in two groups: methodological and applied research. The former deals with description, functions, classification of metaphors, whereas the latter implies the analysis of metaphors in different types of discourse, e.g. academic discourse, learning interaction, speaking discourse, etc. (Scorcynska, 2001: 46).

The purpose of the presented research is to show the use and function of metaphor in the eco-moral discourse through the example of an article from *The Guardian*, a British newspaper. It must be stated that a large host of metaphors in this one text accounts for my decision to limit the choice of material to be analyzed. The novelty of the paper consists in revealing the fact that the conflicting frame tends to enhance the author’s rhetoric by using metaphors.

The main method of research is a case-study relying on the evidence that has been derived from the selected material.
and analyzed by means of theoretical underpinning. The empirical method has been employed by collecting, systematizing and analyzing data.

The point to be emphasized is that despite an overwhelming research mix and envelope, the metaphor in the eco-moral discourse has still not been studied carefully.

It has already been mentioned that the idea of writing about the multi-functionality of metaphors arose in the process of preparing teaching materials and resources for English classes. It is worth noting that students show a special interest in environmental problems. However, their awareness of the metaphors being used in such discourses leaves much to be desired.

3. Background information

As primary attention is focused on written English in this work, it is vital to single out some differences in the use of metaphors in the scientific discourse and periodicals. Firstly, metaphors in the scientific discourse are of “significant cognitive value while in periodicals communicative functions are prior to others,” (Scorcynska, 2001: 57). Secondly, scientific texts are meant for narrowly focused specialists, news articles – for event log readers.

However, both text types mould views of problems: scientific discourse – with the aim of contributing new knowledge to the field of study, periodicals – providing a simpler and more familiar view of current business events” (Scorcynska, 2001: 57). According to Zanina (2013: 36-38), the most successful scientific terms are metaphors. Galkina (2004) suggests that metaphors make it possible to judge about something or somebody from a new perspective, making use of previous experience.

It seems fair to point out that the assembled material for this paper is of some ideological nature. Linguistics and ideology are integrated: the former is a means of expressing ideas verbally, i.e. by way of various linguistic means. It is reflected on how writers apply linguistic variables with different connotations in order to either underscore the significance of an event or condemn it. By reference to Bourdieu (1991), Ben (2013) argues that “any language use has to operate within a habitus – a socialised subjectivity which defines a common ground between individual agency and structural ideology. The habitus guides the individual in making language choices. The habitus should manifest in embodied actions such as manners of speech production, and these actions may be enacted by the speaker at a conscious level.”
Consequently, the news article dealing with ecological and moral issues is likely to reflect the author's civic position.

Ferrari (2007: 614) introduced the term conflicting frame that implies two-sidedness of discord or tension. It can develop as a fairy tale (Lakoff, 1991: 2-3) that presents a protagonist – at one extreme, a scoundrel – at the other extreme. Acrimonious relations can be further escalated to social unrest or protest.

Ben (2013: 110-111) makes much of metaphors in the political, moral and social discourse and substantiates his statement by Andriessen's concept (2010: 59-66) of the appropriate use of metaphors. The latter remarks that “the context, the position of the person using the metaphor, overall values" are a basis for judgments or condemnation that make metaphors be tailored to this particular discourse.

It is apparent that the cultural context and cross-cultural differences matter a lot in the conceptualization of metaphors. For example, in some countries, animal slaughter, cruelty or outrage are looked upon as fatal to spiritual progress, as a criminal offence, by analogy with crimes against people. What is more, to show their loyalty to animals and their rights, many people refuse to wear or use non-animal friendly things. They do not consume animal food either.

However, in other cultures, objects made of ivory, leather, tiger bone, rhino horn and other derivatives are not associated with animal bloodshed. On the contrary, people seem to relish and esteem these kinds of knick-knackery, souvenirs and similar things. In China, things made of ivory are a high status symbol. (Largely, there appears to exist many other reasons for such human behavior: deep-rooted traditions, or religious beliefs for example, but it is beyond the theme under consideration.)

In human society, such gulfs both in public opinion and social standing – within countries and outside them – can cause serious conflicts due to differences in human perception and mentality. Lakoff and Johnson (1980: 24-25) put this idea explicitly, “which values are given priority is partly a matter of the subculture one lives in and partly a matter of personal values. The various subcultures of a mainstream culture share basic values but give them different priorities”.

The copestone in the background information is the mention of the global eco-moral long-lasting social conflict, or rather resistance against illegal
commercial animal poaching and trading. Above all others, it concerns elephants.

As is known, The Duke of Cambridge Prince William is an active animal advocate. His father, Prince Charles, made a decision to remove the invaluable collection of ivory work to a repository. He did not mean to eradicate it, whereas Prince William assumes it ought to be done in protest against cruelty to animals.

As reported by the World Wildlife Fund, the damage caused by poaching comes to billions of dollars annually, let alone the emotional distress, pain and suffering that are beyond any calculations.

4. Results

There appears to be a widely-held view that material things make the world go round. To many, it looks as if people have become pragmatic, indifferent and insensitive to evil and hardships. Moreover, virtue, clemency and benevolence are looked upon as obscure and abstract concepts. At the same time, realities of life show that environmentally related moral issues stir up public opinion all over the world. No doubt, mass media are designed to reflect these concerns by means of the vivid written word. In this way, journalists and writers are able to persuade people of all age groups to take an uncompromising stance and become civic-minded and straight-faced towards virtue.

The metaphor is a unique artistic trope that enables brings into effect the author’s intention (Ivanyuk, 1999: 7). The metaphor has become a highly attractive target research over the past decades. It can be argued that cognitive insights into this figure of speech are linchpins between various academic pursuits in the field of metaphors and take psychological and linguistic factors into consideration (Scorcynska, 2001).

The research of the article “Prince William will take plight of Africa’s elephants ‘behind enemy lines’ in China” (Campbell, 2015) will start by analyzing its heading. As a rule, the heading is a teaser headline that is both striking and appealing. The reason is that the author attempts to touch a sore point. Semino (2008: 222-223) assumes that the topic-triggered metaphor is characteristic of the beginning of a news article. It is designed to grab readers’ attention and serve as a hook.

In the heading, the syntagm ‘behind enemy lines in China’ exemplifies the substance of the metaphor use. ‘Enemy lines’ is associated with hostile boundaries, i.e. the place where elephants are delivered to be slaughtered for ivory. Illegal commercial trade of elephants from
Africa to China has turned into a real war against animals: “in Africa a blood drenched war on wildlife is raging”, against the reign of law, against animal advocates.

It is particularly remarkable that Prince is word number one in the heading, which is a very successful literary device. In this way, Prince William’s mission as an animal defender is brought into focus. Meanwhile, a typical conflicting frame is developing: Prince is determined to conquer the enemy; evil and human narrow-mindedness.

The metaphors, being descriptive devices, present elephants as intelligent, complex and self-aware beings as if they were not animals at all. Anyway, human beings and self-aware beings are regarded as peers by the author.

According to Article 2 of the Universal Declaration of Animal Rights, “every animal has the right to be respected. Man, like the animal species, cannot assume the right to exterminate other animals or to exploit them, thereby violating this right. He should use his conscience for the service of the animals”.

Unfortunately, real-life events are much more severe than people might think: baby elephants are also hunted “from the wild to sell to the ghastliness of Chinese zoos”.

Ghastliness – something that macabre or grisly – that is what adds to the tragic element in the text.

It is unlikely that the newspaper discourse involves any direct contact between the author and readers. As a rule, they are not acquainted, and the only way to give feedback is to write letters or e-mail messages to the editor (Krennmayr, 2011: 84-86). Unlike face-to-face communication, interpersonal relations are restricted in this case. So, the author’s positive or negative, adamant or yielding stance towards miscellaneous news may be expressed through the interpersonal function of metaphors (Krennmayr, 2011: 84-86).

For example, in the news article, the author alludes to a certain Mr. Hunt, a friend of his. The Collins dictionary (2001: 711) explains that ‘hunt’ means ‘seek out and kill animals for food or sport’. It may be that the man’s family name has been created by the author in order to manifest his negative attitude to hunting in a figurative way. The reader learns about Hunt’s queasiness at the thought of “one particularly ornate gift he received at his wedding in China”. Mr. Hunt is a generalized character that embodies the idea of the perception of poaching as something disgusting. At the same time,
he is a person conveying a message about the author’s own feelings.

Metaphors in the text under consideration are both a linguistic means of description and a cohesive device. They are not grouped in clusters but scattered throughout the whole text at a steady pace. It contributes to interconnection of ideas in the text at a sentential level – within paragraphs, which leads to text integrity. The first paragraph is devoted to Prince William and includes metaphors characterizing his personality: “a man with a passionate mastery of a bleak situation”.

In the text, he is a leader both due to his origin and action. He is portrayed as a powerful, high-minded person driven by high-principled ideas: (his power) is a higher purpose. Further, the story told is about the parties that are involved in animal crimes: the “political elite, which... is complicit in the slaughter”, Chinese investment in Africa that resulted in the flora and fauna extinction: “the continent’s forests are being emptied and the savannahs cleared of wildlife. For too many, an encounter with majestic beauty isn’t a precious moment; it’s a precious ornament”. Overall, the author’s deprecation regards those who are accessories to animal crimes.

The results of the research point to a remarkable trend, i.e. as soon as the information reported concerns cruelty and callousness of hunting, the metaphors become stringent and posts bearing a definite sign, for example:

1. denunciation: barbarous and butcherly attitude to animals, hunting via use of deadly weapon are unveiled in the following way: “helicopter gunships, Kalashnikovs and night vision goggles”;

2. generalization: “Mugabe’s thugs have just stolen dozens of young elephants from the wild to sell to the ghastliness of Chinese zoos”.

Increasingly, the auctorial rhetoric of outrage is enhancing when it comes to the ivory industry which is called a ‘murky business’. So, the metaphors integrate different parts of the whole text by airing the exposé on the illegal business.

Another important function of metaphors in the text is a means of comparison. For instance, Prince William’s mission in China, a negotiated settlement about the survival of elephants, “has to be sotto voce diplomatic egg-shell walking”. As is known, egg shell is fragile, so is the Prince’s assignment. It implies the delicacy of the situation as any moral judgments against possession or wearing of ivories are inherent in people, which generates discrepancy and misunderstanding.
The author actively uses the metaphor as a *means of personification*, e.g. he vividly depicts the illegal animal business in an accusatory way by putting it on the same footing as devices of the devil: "*the image of poaching can conjure up a couple of Dickensian ruffians hauling a stag over the moor*". In other words, poaching is *barbarism*. The consumer economy is characterized as *ravenous*, which is associated with a greedy, gluttonous person. In large part, excessive appetite is metaphorically featured as something that is exceptionally abominable and mean: "*with tongues out for crumbs*"—it is about supporters of animal illegal trade.

It is significant to point out that Lakoff (1980: 79-85) emphasized the conceptualizing nature of metaphors. The following table exemplifies some concepts embodied by the metaphorical expressions from the news article:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>concept</th>
<th>metaphoric expression</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>poaching</td>
<td>egregious sin of omission</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>life of elephants</td>
<td>foreseeable demise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>imperialism</td>
<td>a road to a self-fulfilling catastrophe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prince’s mission</td>
<td>labyrinthine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>negotiations tor protection of game animals</td>
<td>convoluted cultural complexities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and illegal trade</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nonchalance</td>
<td>whirlwind of confetti</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wildlife</td>
<td>majestic beauty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ivory</td>
<td>precious ornament</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>official public approval</td>
<td>soundtrack of assurance and platitude</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As is clear from the table, there is an obvious trend toward the use of conceptualized metaphors throughout the whole article with the aim of personifying the concepts as well as associating them with definite highlighted objects or characteristics.

The rhetoric function of metaphors is used by the author to introduce his watchword and view on a definite issue. By virtue of it, the reader can interpret the facts and move beyond the context. This role of metaphor is called crucial “in the construction of social and personal selves and through its linguistic mediation facilitates both the creation of, and adaptation to, a changing world” (Charteris-Black, 2005: 39).
This study reveals the fact that the article at hand is replete with metaphoric sententious statements. They are designed to raise awareness to the evidence provided by the author and make readers reflect on it. There are two ways of how the aphorisms are located in the narration:

1. being the gist of the whole context, they stand out for their importance, e.g. “The elephant in the room is a domestic ivory ban as soon as possible – but he knows we can’t point fingers, we can only cross them”;

2. being singled out and structured as separate paragraphs, e.g. “Anthropomorphism isn’t the problem here, it’s anthropocentrism. It’s all about us. It’s all about the price of everything and the value of the next consignment of ivory smuggled out of Mombassa. Oh, and here’s a few gorilla hands for your designer ashtray business”.

In both cases above, the author appeals to people as a citizen by giving particular prominence to the rhetoric and pathos of the sample sentences.

It should be added that the penultimate sentence, which is also a metaphoric aphorism, outlines the ideas of the whole article: “Ivory is said to bring you good fortune. The aspirant and opulent cherish its beauty but what a terrible beauty”.

There is a need to look upon persuasion as an integral part of the author’s rhetoric. The text analysis shows that he encourages readers to take action in order to solve the problem by accenting the moral standards: “The moral case against ivory is unanswerable”. Between the lines, there is a frantic appeal for assistance in animal survival. The author resorts to persuasive metaphoric strategies:

- identifying people with species: “When it comes to elephants we are shamed as a species”. It can be understood so: treat others as you would like to be treated;

- using foreign words: *Loxodonta Africana*, *quid pro quo*, *sotto voce*, *jeunesse dorée*.

In this way, the matter of international concern is presented as a call for an immediate action all over the world. Additionally, readers might not know the above words as they are derived from scientific or special jargon. Therefore, there is a need to look them up in the dictionary, which may make you conscious of the issue.

5. Conclusion

This study has raised important questions about the role of authentic news articles of
current interest in EFL teaching in terms of enhancing students’ linguistic, cross-cultural awareness, with their civic stance being molded, which requires critical thinking. The results of my joint effort with students have firstly denoted their zest to morality issues and emotional outlook on elephant deaths from poaching. Secondly, taken together, our findings suggest that metaphors are multifunctional devices in the eco-moral newspaper discourse, used for drawing readers’ attention, encouraging them to accept a certain line of thought, generalizing, enhancing rhetoric, tying the ideas together as well as maintaining contact with readers by a range of the author’s sole literary devices.

Thirdly, the rhetoric of text turns out to rise as long as the author reveals his civic attitude. Arguably, the conceptualization of metaphoric use is another unique and creative approach to language aimed at highlighting how the author comprehends things.

As has been shown, the metaphors in the news article under discussion are persistently used as words, collocations, phrases, sentences-aphorisms and ultimately lead to text integrity. Such coherence constitutes a specific style of the author’s dialogue with readers.

It is unlikely to show overall many-sidedness of metaphors on account of their inexhaustibility. That is why the present research is not by far complete. Besides, further analyses of related eco-moral articles could add to the insight into the matter of concern.

All in all, using news texts in EFL teaching involves various activities and allows developing cognitive, moral, educational and linguistic skills. It is an incontrovertible fact that motivation via highly moral discussions based on real facts is irreplaceable in communicative language teaching.
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Speed Speaking: A New Activity to Engage More Learners to Talk

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Abstract
Teaching English in Asian contexts uses classroom talk as a primary source of language learning. Research efforts have been devoted to ways of engaging more learners to talk in English. However, many activities fail to meet this goal. This article reports on a new concept responding to this problem and introduces “Speed Speaking”, a new activity for teaching spoken English. Provided that this activity is thoroughly developed and properly placed in the lesson plan, it contributes to the degree of student ownership of English as a personal tool. It also provides a platform from which teachers can maximize the possible outcome in their own classrooms, as well as giving a relaxed setting for students to build new language bridges, and to interact more with new voices, and grasp some linguistic features.

Keywords: teaching speaking, speed speaking, oral production, oral activities

1. Introduction
Realizing that he could not express what he was thinking, Shu stood up and said to his teacher, in halting English, “Sorry, I don’t know.” The teacher signaled him to sit down, which he did reluctantly.

Shu is probably not alone. Many students who learn English as a foreign language (EFL) may encounter the same problem. They often repeat the same phrases, use the same words, and ask the same questions in class. Although they acknowledge that the mastery of spoken English is a priority, it is still the most difficult task for them, especially those with limited English proficiency levels (Goh & Burns, 2012; Richards, 2008).

This is not really surprising, because when EFL learners are required to talk, the fear
of talking in public is enhanced and they are often paralyzed by this fear. In addition, they are passive speakers because from the beginning of their learning process, they put the most emphasis on explicit rote memorization (Lee, 2013). Therefore, their sense of language proficiency ranges from not being able to understand what the speaker is saying, to not being able to talk proficiently in the new language.

This article proposes that instead of relying on students to eventually develop their speaking skills on their own, teachers should actively design some oral activities to increase their proficiency. For this reason we would like to introduce “Speed Speaking,” an activity that was found to be effective in allowing every student to talk a great deal in the classroom, and increase their quality of communicative competence in English. We will begin with a reflection on what makes speaking English difficult for EFL learners, and why we need this activity.

2. Background
Talking in English in a classroom is predominant in an institutional setting, and is the main means for EFL learners to communicate. Distinct from natural conversation, the kind of communication to be conducted has already been determined in classroom talk, and it is restricted by the goals of the teachers and students (Heritage, 2005). Clearly, classroom talk has its own characteristic difficulties, and is not in line with the criteria for natural conversation among native speakers. Hence, it is not surprising that learning how to speak English in an EFL context will present obstacles. What follows is a summary of what the experts say, as well as what the opinions of the teachers are. Last but not least, we analyze the opinions of the students themselves.

2.1 What do experts say?
First, speaking English as a foreign language presents considerable challenges. Luoma (2004, cited in Richards, 2008:19) summarizes the following features of spoken discourse that makes speaking difficult:

- Composed of idea units (conjoined short phrases and clauses)
- May be planned (e.g. a lecture) or unplanned (e.g. a conversation)
- Employs more vague or generic words than written language
- Employs fixed phrases, fillers, and hesitation markers
- Contains slips and errors reflecting online processing
- Involves reciprocity (i.e. interactions are jointly constructed)
- Shows variation (e.g. between formal and casual speech)
For example, the use of fixed phrases, one of the difficulties mentioned above, gives conversational discourse the quality of naturalness. EFL learners need to learn, memorize, and accumulate thousands of fixed phrases, which is an incremental and complex process (Teng, 2014). However, native speakers have a repertoire of thousands of fixed expressions, and their use in appropriate situations creates natural spoken discourse (O’Keeffe et al., 2007).

Second, EFL learners often have some entrenched language errors, and this phenomenon is referred to as “fossilization.” This refers to the persistent language errors in the speech of the learners, despite the fact that they might have made progress in overall language development (Lightbown & Spada, 2006). These kinds of errors, despite persistent correction, are still difficult to eradicate. Although not all the fossilized errors trigger misunderstanding, some errors may cause serious problems in communication, and thus influences the learners’ willingness to communicate.

The third problem in speaking is aggravated by the learners’ tendency to formulate utterances in their native language (Thornbury, 2007). In other words, students’ native language has a transferred influence on their spoken English.

Fourth, the deficiency of cultural knowledge often leads to the learners’ confusion and misunderstanding even if they have a rather advanced proficiency level (Beamer & Varner, 2001).

Armed with the above knowledge, we easily understand what might be beneficial or detrimental for teaching English. Although it is necessary and valuable, it is also not a bad idea to seek pedagogical input from experienced teachers and collect students’ thoughts on how they regard spoken English.

2.2 What do teachers say?
In the case of EFL speaking, what do experienced teachers say about problems that their learners encounter? We invited ten English teachers for an interview and here are three summarized excerpts:

Excerpt 1
It is normal to find students not comfortable in class. The main reason is their issue of saving face, or shyness. One obvious reason is their inhibition; they would not like to end up as the laughing stock or get mocked or ridiculed by their peers. - Ms. Qin

Excerpt 2
One of the reasons that the learners do not want to speak English is the lexical barriers. They do not have sufficient words to express their ideas correctly, for which they can express a lot in their native language. It takes a long time for learners to move from pronouncing a new word, then recalling it, to appropriately introducing this word in a conversation. - Ms. Zhang

Excerpt 3
The reason that the students are not willing to speak English is related to the whole environment. A lack of creativity which is a consequence of the entire upbringing in an EFL context connected to the culture. The culture makes them predictable social automatons and destroys anyone who dares to be different. The culture just kills creativity. - Mr. Li

Table 1 Students’ main difficulties in speaking English explained by English teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Main problems</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Students’ lack of confidence</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Class size</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Lack of effective teaching method</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Limited vocabulary level</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.3 What do students say?

The learner plays an active role in developing automaticity and fluency in speaking English, and it should be of the utmost importance to understand how they think. We interviewed 40 students majoring in business to understand how students regard their unwillingness to speak in English. Here are three excerpts translated from Mandarin into English that contain the students’ interview responses:

Excerpt 1
The main reason I barely speak English is that I do not have the confidence. Although I really want to take part in some English activities, I am just too scared to speak English because when I speak, I will make mistakes. - Jack

Excerpt 2
When I want to speak English, I just find out that I don’t have enough words to express my feeling. Although I spent a lot of time memorizing some words, I still find that I have no English words to speak. - Elaine

Excerpt 3
If I try to speak English outside my class, other people will definitely laugh at me. They will regard me as crazy, because no one speak English in my real life. I can never find a person who is willing to speak English with me. - Lily
### Table 2. Main difficulties in speaking English collected from students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Main problems</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lack of confidence</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of words to express</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural problems</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ineffective teaching method</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Bearing in mind the above mentioned difficulties proposed by experts, teachers, and students, an effective activity should address at least the following problems:

- Provide the students with more fixed phrases
- Help them notice their entrenched errors
- Encourage more students to speak in English
- Provide the opportunity for learning cultural knowledge
- Help students have more confidence in speaking English
- Help students accumulate words

There are many existing activities that focus on specific features of oral interaction (topic description, question-answer strategies, etc.), and other activities that create conditions for oral interaction (negotiation, role-play, task implementation, group work, etc.). We believe that these activities are not sufficient to address the difficulties mentioned above. That is why we would like to introduce “Speed Speaking,” a new, effective oral activity.

### 3. Practice of Speed Speaking

Speed Speaking (SS) is an oral activity especially suited for use in Chinese classrooms or a similar EFL context. SS is based on a social interview technique in which one learner speaks with a partner for a limited amount of time and then rotates to a new partner. For use in the classroom, SS is a valuable tool for drawing out discussion, especially from students who are reticent to speak in class. This technique is particularly valuable for students who are much more willing to speak in a controlled and private setting than in a public forum.

SS requires a relatively large classroom with movable chairs (stations). Two stations (called a “couplet”) are positioned facing one another at intervals around the periphery of the room. There is one station for each student in class. Thus, a typical class of twenty students will have twenty stations arranged as ten couplets. In each couplet one station is positioned with its back to the wall (the exterior station) and the other station with its back to the center of the room (the interior station). Those students in the exterior stations remain seated in the same station for the duration
of the exercise. Those students in the interior stations move to the next interior station at the teacher’s command (See Figure 1. Configuration for SS).

It is best for the teacher to assign a specific student for each exterior station as this creates a sense of a fixed group. The teacher then tells the remaining half of the class to find an open interior station. In assigning exterior stations it is best to alternate more proficient and less proficient students. If all the students in the exterior stations are proficient then it is likely they will always be speaking with less proficient students in the interior stations (and vice versa). Randomizing the placement of students according to their ability ensures that at some point more proficient students will enjoy a deeper conversation. In the event of an odd number of students in class there are two options. An extra interior station could be added to one of the couplets so that three students speak together, and when the rotation occurs, the students simply remain in that particular couplet for two rounds. The other option is for the teacher to establish himself as an exterior station. This invariably adds some excitement to the activity.

Once each student has been stationed in a couplet, the teacher displays a question using the overhead projector. The question should be light enough to be answered relatively quickly but deep enough to offer some opportunity for elaboration. The best questions prompt
creative responses. Students are given a specific length of time to discuss the question, and if the teacher would like to offer students more opportunity for in-depth discussion, he can lengthen the discussion time to what is appropriate. Each student must answer the question with an adequate explanation. Ideally each student speaks for approximately one-half of the allotted time. At the completion of the time, the teacher randomly asks students around the room what the other student in his couplet had said. This is extremely vital because it means that each student must listen carefully to the other. After the teacher has elicited responses from about four or five students (varying more and less proficient students), he then signals the interior students to advance to the next interior station (clockwise or counterclockwise as the teacher had previously decided). The students in the exterior stations remain seated.

The teacher then produces a new question which the students discuss for a period of time and at the end of that time, the teacher again asks four or five random students to offer their partner’s answer to the question. This process should be repeated eight to ten times.

Here are some examples of good questions:

1. What did you fear as a child, which you no longer fear and why?
2. What is the best gift you have ever received? Explain.
3. If you were a food what would you be? Why?
4. What superpower would you like to have and what would you do with it?
5. If you were stranded on a desert island what three things would you like to have with you?
6. What is your greatest talent? Explain.
7. What four items can always be found in your refrigerator? Why?
8. What do you treasure more than anything else?
9. What makes you angry? Why?
10. If you knew you only had six months to live what would you do? Why?

The questions should be directed enough to provide strong structure to the conversation while offering enough opportunity for creative and humorous responses. Participants should feel an invitation to answer the questions with a broad range of responses. Questions which elicit predictable answers or a narrow range of answers should be avoided as they dull the sense of surprise and shock in this activity. In addition, in a single class session, it is best to provide eight structured questions and then afford students the opportunity to create their own questions within their couplets. The
teacher will then ask students to share their question and the answer their partner offered.

4. What does the teaching experience show?

SS provides the following benefits with other positive advantages:

1. The greatest benefit of SS is its rapid pace. This keeps the students’ minds stimulated and alert. Each student knows that s/he must think quickly and clearly in order to accomplish the task at hand. The rapid pace tends to create energy in the classroom, with the anticipation of surprising and intriguing answers.

2. The interior students are required to rise and walk after each question/answer session. This injects energy into the room as physical movement tends to function as a stimulant.

3. There is a sense of excitement in meeting other students in class. This activity gets students out of their social cliques, breaks down walls of distrust, and fosters classroom camaraderie. Students tend to welcome the opportunity to meet others face-to-face, if even for only one minute.

4. EFL learners are deeply afraid to speak in front of a class, generally for fear of being criticized or mocked. SS offers a safe haven for discussion since one only speaks with a partner. This allows many students to simultaneously practice at the same time in a situation that offers little or no threat, thus helping them build confidence in speaking English.

5. Another great benefit of SS is that it makes full use of precious class time. It allows the entire class to speak and listen at the same time in a structured and evaluated activity. This maintains the maximum level of student participation.

6. SS offers the potential to open up opportunities for speaking English, for which learners are engaged and therefore open to new and relevant linguistic features. The questions provide fixed phrases and the process of interaction stimulates spontaneous spoken discourse, thus helping learners accumulate more words. Teachers are aware of setting clear aims, evaluating the functions and forms, idealizing the process and the possible outcome, and providing a platform for creative interaction, which is also the aim in teaching speaking described by the researchers (Chappell, 2012, 2014).

7. SS causes learners to “notice” (Schmidt, 1990). It helps learners become active monitors of their own language production through listening
to peers' answers to the same topic and through having others monitor their oral production for any possibly entrenched errors.

The authors invited a subsample of twelve students to an interview to elicit their opinions about this activity. All of the invited students genuinely liked this activity because it brought excitement to the class. It felt like an adventure and uncovered a mystery. Students are generally eager to escape their social fiefdoms, to build new bridges, to interact with new voices. They all regard it as a good center point from which they can build their skills while making new friends at the same time. We summarized three excerpts (also translated from Mandarin).

Excerpt 1
*The benefit of this activity is that I can gain more cultural knowledge, especially the western culture. For example, before this activity, I would never know that British drink tea the most in the world.* - Jennifer

Excerpt 2
*I can quickly learn some words from this activity. It captures my attention so as to focus on some unfamiliar words or previously known words. For example, when my partner used a word that I remembered at that moment, it helped me review the word.* - Kevin

Excerpt 3
*I think this activity provided me with a platform to talk with a partner who is a better speaker than I am. Although I am scared to talk in English with a good student, I am happy to speak English with him/her in this activity.* - John

5. Critical Look at Speed Speaking

There are always some problems related to a new activity. Speed Speaking is no exception. Some problems are listed below.

Initially, students are very confused about how SS is supposed to work. They often wrongly assume that they will speak in a single couplet for the entire class session. The teacher should walk students through the process slowly and methodically.

When responding to a question students may offer a one-word response with no explanation. When the teacher asks a student to share what his partner said, that student may have no details to share. It must therefore be impressed upon students to prod their partners for a detailed answer.

Sometimes students may say nothing and simply write an answer which they
exchange with their partner, or they secretly speak in their native language. When called upon to speak, the student merely reads what his partner wrote. The teacher should try to evaluate the whole process in order to avoid this.

6. Future application of Speed Speaking

There are myriad future applications of SS. The following are a few examples.

Exterior station students can be assigned a homework assignment to bring in a picture which interior station students are asked to speak about for one minute. Exterior station students offer discussion and commentary as well as keep notes on the responses received. After each interior student has interacted with each exterior student, a competition is held. The exterior students are asked to vote on which interior student offered the best response to his picture. The interior students are then asked to vote on which exterior student had the best picture.

Students could be asked to discuss proverbs, tell stories, or conduct a mock job interview in their couplets. The more proficient students can then share this dialogue or storytelling with the class.

Our main job as teachers of foreign languages is to help students develop automaticity and fluency as well as a willingness to speak English with ease. While we may need to devote some time to teaching students some declarative knowledge, such as grammar, vocabulary, sentence structures and lexical inferencing strategies, the bulk of our classroom time should be used to provide our students with activities, and the kind of practice in which they are actually involved, and which they enjoy. Including SS in regular class instruction in relation to every new topic enhances the students’ thinking, social and English skills, as well as language competences. Students are learning to act in a more flexible and natural way and to explore the environment. SS allow teachers to create numerous opportunities for students to engage in more new topics, and by doing so, they recycle, refine, and expand their personal experiences (Teng & Wong, 2015). Following this, teachers lead students beyond what they know, can do well, or are already interested in. Apart from a few problems, SS is one of the most effective activities for teaching students to speak in their new language.

7. Conclusion

Note
1. Names have been changed to protect the identity of participants.
2. The twelve participants for the interview include four advanced level, four intermediate level, and four low proficiency level students, assessed by teachers based on their overall attention, attitude, preparation, pronunciation, and willingness to talk.

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The Nightmare of New Lexis:
How to Improve Retention and Retrieval

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Abstract
A lot has been written on what vocabulary building entails and on how new lexis should be taught. There is little consensus on methodology and a big variety of suggestions about the teaching strategies that can be conducive to the better retention and easier retrieval of the newly-taught lexis. To facilitate vocabulary learning, many vocabulary learning factors such as recycling and exposure need to contribute to the learning process. Vocabulary activities need to include both intentional learning components (e.g. discrete item practice activities) as well as maximum exposure to recycling and revisiting the words. The main principle for improving vocabulary learning is to increase the amount of engagement learners have with lexical items. This article presents the challenges of teaching vocabulary and discusses the beneficial uses of constant revisiting it further claiming that there are goal-oriented strategy combinations that may make the difference in learners' vocabulary improvement. In the end, the article proposes classroom activities aimed at enhancing language learners' performance and at turning this into an additional channel for vocabulary acquisition.

Keywords: vocabulary, strategies, retention, lexis, retrieval, recycle, revisit, acquisition

1. Introduction
Learning a foreign language is considered difficult and time consuming mainly due to the fact that new words and new meanings for old words constantly emerge, thus making vocabulary a problem area for most ESL students. Learners are taught endless lists of words but they cannot retrieve them when they wish to so they struggle with translation problems and
memorisation that influence their ability to speak and write English correctly. The linguist David Wilkins said "without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed" (Thornbury, 2002: 13). Learners constantly complain that they are confronted with numerous unfamiliar or obscure words and they cannot recall them readily in order to produce language. My experience has led me to believe that the teacher can only motivate learners to take vocabulary seriously and give them ideas on how to learn. During my research I was happy and somehow relieved to read what Wilga Rivers, a leading authority on second language learning, wrote: “Vocabulary cannot be taught. It can be presented, explained, included in all kinds of activities, and experienced in all manner of associations … ultimately it is learned by the individual. As language teachers, we must arouse interest in words and a certain excitement in personal development in this area” (Thornbury, 2002:144). Learners of all ages need to develop strategies that will enhance and reinforce their productive competence.

2. Literature review
Experts from different fields such as psychologists, ESL authors and educators, as well as language teachers have been interested in vocabulary learning strategies for a long time (Levenston, 1979). Some classic theories were developed by Wilkins (1972), Carter (1987), McCarthy (1990) and McCarthy and O’Dell (1994) whereas some recently developed theories by (Thornbury, 2002), Read (2000) and Schmitt (2000) contributed to clarifying diverse aspects of vocabulary acquisition. Learners often learn items of lexis but are only able to complete discreet item practice activities. Turning receptive knowledge into productive knowledge can be a challenge for every teacher. Teachers should make students feel comfortable about working the words into a written or an oral task. They should systematically adopt materials and procedures which facilitate the nature of language learning. Receptive knowledge precedes productive knowledge. We have to make words available and in that way enable learners to communicate. “Available words are known in the sense that they come to mind rapidly when the situation calls for them” (Richards, 1974: 35). If learners are able to retrieve and use many words, they will manage to communicate effectively. Developing an extensive vocabulary should be given priority over learning grammatical structures. “The advent of the Communicative Approach in the 1970s set the stage for a major re-think of the role of vocabulary” (Thornbury, 2002:14).
Moreover, some authors led by Michael Lewis (1993) argue that vocabulary should be at the centre of language teaching. “A lexical approach requires a much more principled system of introducing and exploiting lexis” (Lewis, 1993: 117) because only in that way will learners become able to overcome their vocabulary problems and reach communicative ease.

3. Why vocabulary is a problem area

There are many reasons why learners are only able to complete discreet item practice activities even though they have been taught a wide range of vocabulary. Learners at all levels seem to share quite similar problems.

Some students constantly complain that they cannot remember vocabulary. They are only able to complete discreet item practice activities because vocabulary is not revisited and their item banks do not change. Learners understand more words than they utter, therefore teachers should help learners activate their working memory and build their long-term memory.

Learners should reach a level where they will not forget even the more complex words.

Students should understand that they need to know “what a word means in one context but not in another, and how this meaning relates to other words and other meanings” (Thornbury, 2002: 49). The multiple faces and the complexities of vocabulary have turned me into a ‘searching’ teacher who seeks ways of teaching vocabulary systematically in order to make learners become avid word-chasers.

There are words that share the same form (e.g. I like skiing … He sings like a bird) but have unrelated meanings and are called homonyms. Other words sound the same but are spelt differently (e.g. meat and meet); they are called homophones. There are also words that are pronounced differently but spell the same (e.g. live concert … I live in Paris) and are called homographs. It is obvious that these words impede understanding and disorient learners, especially if they are young.

Undoubtedly, another potential source of confusion for learners is the fact that many words have different but overlapping meanings and are called polysemes like the word fair. Learners have difficulty learning all the shades of meaning and I have often seen discouraged students who reacted indignantly and wanted to drop out.

Two or more independent words can be combined to form new words such as keyboard, teapot; they are called compounds and their form is fixed. Groups of more than one word can function as a meaningful unit such as put off or a lot of; they are known as multi-word units or lexical chunks. Compounds are difficult to
learn but I can definitely say that phrasal verbs can bewilder even the most determined learner. A looser kind of association is the collocation: two words co-occur but not necessarily next to each other—they may be separated by one or more other words (e.g. record collocates with world). “Collocation is not a frozen co-occurrence of words” (Lewis, 2000: 29). Students mis-collocate words quite often and are then intimidated.

Synonyms are words that share a similar meaning (e.g. beautiful, pretty, and handsome) but are not the same. Synonyms, binary opposites, and antonyms are also a big problem for learners. Binary opposites are mutually exclusive whereas antonyms are gradable and there is always something in between; consequently, their wrong use frustrates learners.

The use of the add-ons, which is called affixation, makes a verb past (e.g. called) or a noun plural (e.g. desks). Inflections and derivatives are formed by the process of affixation and they are treated as word-families with grammatical similarities. Students practise the add-ons through grammar exercises that do not help them become more productive or communicative.

Even when learners know vocabulary well, the cultural wall makes it difficult to choose between the various forms of English, the appropriate style of language, and the correct register. “Words with similar meanings can be used in different situations or for different effect” (Thornbury, 2002:12). Teachers have to encourage autonomy in the classroom in order to communicate with comfortable intelligibility. I daresay adolescents are not very competent at distinguishing different styles and registers and in my opinion, the educational system of our country is partially to blame for that situation.

Connotations, irony, and sarcasm are linked to style. Students cannot easily see the different associations in meaning; they are not well-trained to read between the lines and identify the subtle variations of style.

Phonology is another serious obstacle since it is the main reason why the whole meaning of sentences can be misconstrued. Intonation, stress, pausing, and generally the movement of the voice give meaning to words and utterances and hinder ambiguity. If learners do not stress words correctly, they cannot make themselves understood and most probably they cannot understand what native speakers say. Spelling problems that are closely connected with pronunciation and phonology is another factor that does not facilitate the development of productive knowledge and competence.

Error correction often intimidates learners and makes them less confident. They
cannot be productively competent if they know that they will be corrected as soon as they utter their first word. In addition, some students are at a loss when they take back their essays or composition covered in red ink due to over-correction; this is quite embarrassing and counter-productive.

4. Suggestions for teaching vocabulary

Before presenting the activities which can develop students’ productive competence, we will briefly refer to how to teach vocabulary and what strategies should be used in the approach to vocabulary use, storage and retention.

Teachers should involve the learners in the investigation of vocabulary problems in the class. They have to be active and contribute to the learning procedure by telling the teacher if they cannot take in the meaning. They have to be aware of the fact that as McCarthy (1990:120) said “the vocabulary class is a place where meaning is negotiated between teacher and learner”. Teachers should teach words with a pattern because words that go in together go out together as well. They could teach it inductively to all learners—particularly young and intermediate ones, use elicitation, personalisation and inference with advanced learners, employ ESA and generally make a combination of approaches in order to enhance acquisition.

My reading has led me to accept that “error is intrinsic … correction is time-consuming, and often inhibits students” (Lewis, 1993: 173). Therefore teachers should give students plenty of opportunity to communicate fluently and express themselves; in that way the learners will feel secure and confident and the “teachers’ response strategies have to be: reformulation and feedback” (Lewis, 1993: 174) which are constructive approaches.

5. Suggestions for vocabulary development

My reading and my experience have made me understand that teachers have to think of creative ways of developing activities to ensure memorability. Tasks that can develop the learners’ productive competence are those in which the learners are required to incorporate the newly studied words into some kind of meaningful speaking or writing activity.

One of the reasons why production is limited is because words are taught in isolation and have little connectivity. We have to remember that what goes in together goes out together; the learners need exposure, they need a whole text so it is preferable to use authentic contexts as they are real texts designed not for language students. David Wilkins writes “
the lexical items... begin slowly to have the same meaningfulness for them that they have for the native speaker” (Wilkins, 1972:132).

The teachers can help their learners increase productive ability by making the right choices of the right words to learn. The words taught should be relevant to special interests and to particular situations in which the learners find or might find themselves. Correct pronunciation and stress patterns aid communication, prevent lack of understanding and make students more confident.

Learners “can be trained to take more responsibility for how and what they learn, and organizing vocabulary learning is a particularly productive area for the encouragement of learner autonomy” (McCarthy, 1990: 129). They should improve their study skills and play with words and not only use the skills of logical elimination and inference because in that way they do not learn to produce. They need to get used to putting words on visual displays, grouping them in terms of hierarchical patterns, putting them on clines and showing degrees of difference. They should learn to use hyponymy and metonymy as well as grids, matrices and componential analysis (+/- connotations) of words which are challenging analytic activities that facilitate upper-intermediate and advanced learners’ learning and memorization. No word is an island, everything forms a web of meaning.

Having observed elementary students being taught many times, I appreciate the use of realia, drawings, photographs, flashcards, picture dictionaries, blackboard drawings, gestures and mime. The students are immediately involved, brainstorming and elicitation are key techniques and in that way “a direct link between the word and the meaning is established” (Wallace, 1982: 39). Learners can be assigned the project to make their own flashcards and picture dictionaries using drawings; “learning by doing” that Dewey suggested can create a “cognitive depth” that Piaget supported.

From the point of view of retrieval and memorization the use of vocabulary cards and word games (e.g. jumbled letters, What is it?, Target picture) is efficient. These techniques are highly motivating and create a positive atmosphere in which students respond to stimuli with their whole body and learn by repetition, mimicry and imitation.

“More important than the manner of presentation is the kind of follow-up practice that is provided. The more decisions the learner has to make about a word, the more chance there is of the word being remembered” (Thornbury, 2002: 38). Students should be given the opportunity to recycle and revisit vocabulary more than once because research suggests that
it takes six or more encounters with a word before learning is likely to take place. It helps to write the word – both the definition and an example of the use of the word – on a card that can later be revisited. Learners should not forget to have regular breaks between the vocabulary reviews so that words can be assimilated and thus effectively engraved in the mind.

New words need to be integrated into existing knowledge or what Thornbury calls the mental lexicon after Atkinson. The tasks that can be performed on a set of words i.e. lexical sets help students remember them more easily. Such tasks are: identifying, matching, sorting and ranking and sequencing. Identifying words means finding ‘hidden’ words in a text or unscrambling anagrams. Learners from elementary to intermediate levels enjoy these tasks. Matching involves first recognising words and then pairing them with a collocate, a synonym, an antonym, a definition or a visual representation. Pelmanism is a stimulating matching memory game which learners of intermediate levels appreciate. Sorting involves putting words into categories and ranking and sequencing activities require learners to put the words into some kind of order or on scale or cline. Exposure to collocations and compounds in a variety of contexts, distinguishing different types of weak, medium or strong collocations, teaching prefixes and suffixes explicitly are techniques that can develop students' active vocabulary and store it effectively.

Activities that urge students to decide which word goes in which gap “promote retention in long-memory” (Thornbury, 2002: 101). Open and closed gap-fills as well as multiple choice tasks develop intermediate and advanced learners’ retrievability since they are completion tasks. Students will also benefit from extensive reading even in the early stages of learning. Learners need to become avid readers of textbooks, novels and other literature and improve their reading habits so as to improve their vocabulary. They will get used to guessing words and inferring and they will read material rich in vocabulary.

Apart from meaningful tasks, there are other techniques that can be used to develop productive competence. Throughout my career I have always tried to help my students make a ‘meaning bridge’ between the target word and its L1 translation or “devise an image that typically connects the pronunciation of the second language word with the meaning of a first language word” (Thornbury, 2002: 145). Both are mnemonic techniques (memory tricks) and the latter is called the keyword technique.
6. Conclusion

Effective development of the productive competence is not the result of a single approach. Teachers should teach vocabulary systematically and learners have to take responsibility, organize vocabulary learning and aim to reach autonomy. However, conceptions of learning differ from culture to culture. Even the same strategy may be executed in different ways in different educational tradition. Therefore, more research needs to be done along the learning context dimension.

References


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Organization of Repair Structures in Dyadic Written Exchanges among Facebook Users

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Abstract
This small-scale case study examines the organization of repair structures in a small group of Facebook users’ written conversation exchanges in an attempt to identify the types of repair employed, and further explores which repair types predominate in the organization of repair structures in participants’ written speech. To this end, a small corpus of written chat logs was garnered from ten undergraduate students studying at a UK university at the time of data collection. The data were then descriptively analysed to calculate the number and types of repair structures in this specific case of communication. The findings have indicated that for some particular reasons, not all repair types that can be identified in oral communication were available in written (synchronous and asynchronous) exchanges, and the total number of repair cases amounted to 36. The findings offer some implications for ELT practitioners in respect to the teaching of communication management strategies to English language learners, particularly tailored for written communication. These implications as well as limitations are shortly discussed in the final section of this paper.

Keywords: Repair structures, Facebook, written talk, online interaction, conversation analytic methodology

1. Introduction
Thanks to the advent of and development of computers, cell phones, and especially the Internet in our everyday life, the ways we communicate have dramatically changed. According to the figures of the
Internet World Stats¹, in November 2015, there were over three billion people around the world connecting to the Internet, and this number of Internet users currently accounts for 46.6% of the world population. The Internet is not only an imperative technology, but also has become the main medium of communication among people, and has already affected the ways people communicate with each other. Conversation is, thus, no longer exclusively a face-to-face act or a simple chat over the phone. Presently, computer-mediated communication (hereafter CMC) appears to be more commonly exercised by individuals, as the Internet creates networking spaces for those who are devoid of exchanging conversations in each other's presence. As in real-life communication, breakdowns also occur in online communication. In this paper, we set out to explore how individuals cope with breakdowns in online platforms, more precisely while exchanging text messages on Facebook. While exploring the ways interactants deal with communication problems, we aim at identifying the types of repair structures they turned to for fixing these problems. First, we would like to begin with a brief discussion of CMC and its fundamental characteristics before moving on to the main study.

1.1 Computer-mediated communication (CMC)

CMC is a communication mode managed via computers and portable devices that combine telephony and computing (e.g. smart phones), and enables people to chat and contact with one another over long distances. As Herring (2001) put it, current CMC is predominantly text-based. Typically, CMC occurs in two manners: either synchronously or asynchronously (Herring, 2001). In synchronous communication, as in such as live chat rooms, MSN, or SKYPE, individuals log in at the same time, and reciprocally send and receive messages instantly, whilst asynchronous communication does not require users to be online at the same time, which means that interactants can contact one another without being concerned with time, as done in e-mailing and blogging (Baym, 2006; Liu, 2007). Baym (2006) also averred that CMC transcends space and time restrictions, and the information can be stored and replicated, as distinct from one-to-one conversations.

Further, CMC has features such as being interactive, non-linear and anonymous (Chang, 2002). In a face-to-face communication occasion, people ordinarily lean towards taking and finishing turns in their exchanges. However, online written communication does not usually abide by this rule, since people can write

¹ http://www.internetworldstats.com/stats.htm
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their opinions and feelings without necessarily observing turn-taking conventions.

1.2 CMC compared with face-to-face interactions

Some scholars have viewed CMC language as reduced and simplified with short sentences while others argue about its length and complexity (Lee, 2001). Etzioni and Etzioni (1999) asserted that unlike online communication which provides people with more access to more people all over the world, face-to-face communication involves fewer numbers of individuals to socialize. CMC provides participants with features to produce limited identity disclosure more than in offline communication, and participants have more time to think about what they communicate and perhaps modify it in online communication. Moreover, CMC interaction helps participants broadcast messages to a group of people at the same time rather than having point-to-point communications (Etzioni & Etzioni, 1999).

On the other hand, those researchers who consider web-based interaction a third modality of language may view it as a bridge between the learners” written and spoken skills (Chun, 1994). Davis and Brewer (1997) gave the language used in CMC the term „writing talking” and Crystal (2001) called it „written speech”. Crystal (2001) argued that CMC should be viewed as a “genuine „third medium” (pp. 47-48). Örnberg (2003) similarly argued that CMC is a different mode of communication as a result of the medium. It is not spoken and not written, but the message is typed through the keyboard. It was concluded that CMC results in a different conversation structure from that of face-to-face interaction.

2. Background: conversation structure and organization

Hutchby and Wooffitt (2008) maintained that “ordinary talk is a highly organized, socially ordered phenomenon” (p. 11). Ample studies have been done to study interaction within conversation analysis, and the interaction has a range of forms different from a conversation. Conversation analysis (hereafter, CA) was founded by Harvey Sacks between 1946 and 1975. It could be defined as “the study of recorded, naturally occurring talk-in-interaction” (Hutchby & Wooffitt, 2008, p. 12). The objective of CA is to study a social activity and detect the organization of the interaction. CA deals with utterances, not as language, but as products designed and used for different kinds of purposes, and the analysis of utterances is tied to the circumstances surrounding its production (Hutchby & Wooffitt, 2008). CA provides an interpretation of the process in which one
action turns to another while the interlocutors continue with organizing their interaction. Conversation analysts do not assume a certain organization of the interaction; instead, they discover what organization is followed in a given interaction and try to explain how this organization is accomplished. For example, the use of the word ‘Hello’ should be described and an explanation of the contextual organization should be provided in order to give it the context-oriented sense. Whether it is the first utterance of a greeting pair or a second one determines if it proposes a following relevant utterance or not (Button & Lee, 1987).

2.1 Sources of communication breakdowns
The organization and the direction of an interaction are dependent on the conversationalists’ understanding of the discussion topic. They work out the order of the utterances based on the current context through an analysis of the utterances at hand. In the analysis, multiple questions are asked such as ‘why that now?’ , ‘what is it?’ , and ‘what does it involve?’ in order to be able to figure out the suitable organization of the conversation (Button & Lee, 1987). However, smooth communication may break down or at least have a kind of disorder if something unexpected happens. If a speaker produces an utterance which is off the topic of the conversation, confusion will definitely occur (Button & Lee, 1987). Schegloff (2007) pointed out a number of possible troubles that interactants may face in their interaction which will lead to communication breakdowns. One of these troubles is problems in speaking such as grammatical errors, lexical errors, or pronunciation errors. Addressees may fail to hear or mishear an utterance, or misunderstand the intended message. In the end, “everything is, in that sense, a possible ‘repairable’ or a possible ‘trouble-source’” (Schegloff, 2007, p. 100). One of the conversation management strategies is repair (see 2.4. and 2.5).

2.2 Repair(s) in spoken language
When a problem arises in a conversation, a set of practices (repair) is used by conversationalists as a conversational mechanism. Hellermann (2009) defined repair as “the phenomenon that occurs in talk-in-interaction when some aspect of talk is taken by one or more participants in the talk to be troublesome for some reason (misspeaking, mishearing, incorrect information provided)” (p. 114). The concept of repair is wider than error correction, though correction is part of repair, and repair sometimes appears when there is no error made in the
conversation (Schegloff et al., 1977). Some researchers have referred to repair as „meaning maintenance“ (Hauser, 2005), „meaning negotiation“ (Foster & Ohta, 2005; Jack, 2011), or „discourse management“ (Condon & Cech, 1996). Repair is associated with levels of talk: turn-taking, sequence organization, and preference (Liddicoat, 2007). From a CA perspective, repair is the principal resource that conversationalists have at their disposal to maintain intersubjectivity, which is to construct shared meaning (Schegloff, 1992, as cited in Markee, 2000).

2.3 Types of repair

Schegloff et al. (1977) distinguished between the repair initiator and the one who makes it. Based on this distinction, a number of repair types could be considered:

a. **Self-initiated self-repair**: the speaker of the trouble source is the initiator of the repair and the one who made the repair to solve the trouble.

   Ex.1 B: -then more people will show up. Cuz they won’t feel obliged to sell.
   
   Tuh buy.
   
   (Liddicoat, 2007, p. 174)

b. **Self-initiated other-repair**: the speaker’s utterance is heard as a trouble source when trying to finish the sentence using language and gestures, and the teacher communicates what (I) was trying to say.

   Ex.2 I: maybe; (. ) w- ehm
   
   ((points to self and several other students))
   
   : three
   
   T: one book for four people?
   
   I: yes?
   
   (Hellermann, 2009, p. 115)

c. **Other-initiated self-repair**: in this type, the recipient of the trouble source indicates the problem and the speaker makes the repair.

   Ex.3 A: Hey the first time they stopped me from selling cigarettes was this morning. (1.0)
   
   B: From selling cigarettes?
   
   A: From buying cigarettes.
   
   (Liddicoat, 2007, p.175)

d. **Other-initiated other-repair**: the recipient of the trouble source indicates the problem and makes the repair.

   Ex.4 Joy: Kerry’s no good. She’s haven a fight with Sally.
   
   Harry: Yih mean Sarah dontchuh. Those two are always fightin’
   
   Joy: Yeh. ,s a bitch isn’ it,
e. **Self-initiation with failure of repair:** the speaker indicates the trouble source but there is no repair made to resolve the problem. (see, Yang, 2005; Schegloff et al, 1977)

   Ex.5  Mike: I never heard it
eetehh.
   (0.7)
   Mike: Aw I her- All I- Awl I ree- all
   you- all//
   I ree-
   Vic: You knew duh
broa//:d.  (Schegloff et al, 1977, p. 365)

f. **Other-initiation with failure of repair:** the recipient indicates the trouble source but there is no repair made to resolve the problem (see, Yang, 2005; Schegloff et al, 1977)

   Ex.6  Roger: It’s kinduva- //
   kinduv weird.
   Dan: heh  
   (2.0)
   Roger: Whadda you think.
   (2.0)
   Ken: Hm?
   Roger: Forget it.
   (Schegloff et al., 1977, p. 365)

Self-initiation and other-initiation are correlated with the participant who identifies the trouble source in the conversation (Liddicoat, 2007).

2.4. **Repairs in face-to-face communication**

Much of the literature on negotiation of meaning and the strategies employed in interaction has focused on face-to-face interaction between native speakers (NSs) and non-native speakers (NNSs). To illustrate, an early study on repair (Schegloff et al. 1977) suggested that all other initiated repair (OIR) occur in the turn following the trouble-source turn. Later, Schegloff (1992) proposed the fourth position as another location for OIR. Further work (Schegloff, 2000) described a number of locations in which OIR could be delayed later than the next turn position. These positions of OIR among native speakers were compared with OIR by non-native speakers (Wong, 2000). He claims that CA is based on the context of the participants and, hence, is a powerful tool to study interaction. One of the repair initiation forms is the ‘open’ class which was investigated in the sequential environment in the framework of the repair management sequence (Drew, 1997). The analysis of such environments suggests that this class occurs with troubles of alignment or affiliation between speakers. The practices of conversation which are associated with the action of repair initiation such as questioning and repetition forms were examined.
(Scheglof, 1997) and further actions were explored for these practices.

2.5. Repairs in written communication
To the best of our knowledge, so far, few studies have been carried out to investigate repair structures, i.e. meaning maintenance, in written communication via CMC. Thus, we should note that this scarcity of research in this area has been our main motivation for conducting this current research in the first place. Our review of the relevant literature has shown that overall, researchers have conducted multitude numbers of studies on the strategies used by interlocutors to negotiate meaning in face-to-face interaction. Spoken language has thus received much more attention than written language in a/synchronous electronic interaction.

To date, only four studies, have been carried out to examine repair organization in CMC written mode using chat programs. For instance, Örnberg’s (2003) study found that the structure of written conversation differs from the oral form. This study was based on three mechanisms of conversation organization: turn-taking, repair, and sequencing. Face-to-face conversations have a different organization sequence from CMC, in which the adjacency pair question-answer is dominant. This is because of the addressing problems as well as the posting delay. In another study, Yang (2005) reported the results of a study conducted on the Chinese academic discussion via Web-based conversation. It was found that web-based conversation has similar repair structures as those in oral conversation. In addition, his study indicated that CA is a powerful tool for analysing web-based interactional communication. Lee (2001) examined NNSs" use of negotiation strategies in online interaction. It was found that this online use is similar to its use in everyday oral interaction. Focusing on various conversational features, e.g. turns, turn-transition space, repairs, adjacency pairs and sequence organization, Schönfeldt and Golato (2003) undertook a comparative study which looked at the interactional organization of a German Web chat program, comparing it to the interactional organization of ordinary conversation. They determined that the interactional organization of the Web chat program differed from that of ordinary conversation, mostly due to the nature of the chat program, which is more constrained compared to ordinary conversation. Namely, interactants in Web chats cannot establish visual and aural engagement with each other. As the researchers further averred, interactants are solely required to recourse to written
messages and sequential ordering in order to organize the repair structures.

It is hoped that this study will add to the literature in this area where there is currently scarcity of empirical research, by examining how CMC users deal with communication breakdowns on Facebook and whether the ways they resort to for overcoming the repairs are akin to those they apply in face-to-face communication. The analysis of the CMC data in our study is expected to add to the limited number of studies in this area. However, the literature on repair in face-to-face conversations is going to be used to discuss the differences in repair organization of dyadic written exchanges and one-to-one verbal exchanges. In light of the above discussion, the current study is structured around the following research questions:

1. What types of repair structures are employed by Facebook users in one-to-one written a/synchronous exchanges?

1.1. Does any type of repair structures employed by Facebook users predominate in the data? If so, what are the potential reasons?

3. Method

3.1 Research design

In this research, we took a qualitative case study approach involving in-depth analysis of written chat logs from a small sample of Facebook users. According to Luck, Jackson and Usher (2006), case study refers to “a detailed, intensive study of a particular contextual, and bounded, phenomena that is undertaken in real life situations” (p. 104). This definition considerably matches our research purpose, which is to gain a thorough understanding of how repairs are put to work when the mode of communication shifts to written exchanges. Therefore, our aim is to seek particularities within the data rather than to attempt at extrapolating of our findings.

3.2. Participants

A form of snowball sampling, a method for purposive sampling (Patton, 1987), was used to select students, some of whom were already our acquaintances. We contacted our acquaintances at first at the onset of our sampling process. We then asked them for names of additional students, i.e. their friends who they think might be interested in taking part in our study. The new participants were also asked to provide some other students who are likely to be willing to participate in the study, and we repeated this process until we reached a sample size from which we could collect saturated data (Ruane, 2005). At the end of the sampling process, we reached ten undergraduate students in spring 2012. The rationale behind taking undergraduates as sampling was due to
the fact that "most graduate students … do not log in on a daily basis" owing largely to their busy time schedule for research and writing up (Bosch, 2009). We particularly targeted students due to the following practical reasons: (1) they were easy to recruit as we shared the same socio-cultural environment, (2) they were more willing to share their private text messages with us, and (3) some of them were already our acquaintances. All these factors facilitated our recruitment process and enabled us to obtain a large quantity of data in a relatively short span of time. Additionally, each of our participants has had a Facebook account for at least five years and has been using it on a daily basis for quite a long time. All of the participants’ level of English proficiency was between B2 and C1 according to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR, Council of Europe, 2001) as they already satisfied the university entry requirements before their admission to their respective academic disciplines by at least getting a minimum score of 6 on IELTS.

Our study differs from the similar ones in terms of the number of participants involved in the study (e.g. Yang, 2005, N=400; Örnberg, 2003, N=20; Lee, 2001, N=40) mostly because of its qualitative nature. However, what relates to the nature of our research is the amount of data garnered from these participants rather than the numerical majority of the participants. All our respondents were students at undergraduate level of various disciplines of a UK university. Table 1 summarizes our participants’ demographic background.

### Table 1. Demographic information about the participants

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<td>Female</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkish</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nationality</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Polish</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dutch</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arabian</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Participation in the study was voluntary, and no pressure was put on them to get involved in it (Rubin & Babbie, 2010). Invitation to the study was made via
e-mail messages from the researchers, face-to-face requests, and by calling them one by one; namely, with a set of mixed-recruitment methods. Participants were contacted wherever and whenever they can be reached physically or via phone calls, e-mails and such-like ways. The reason in doing so is the assumption that “the sample is like the population on certain characteristics” (Jackson, 2011, p. 102) i.e. being a Facebook user, logging on frequently, and studying at an undergraduate level, more or less being in the same age range, to name but a few.

3.3. Research setting
Up to now, Facebook has served as a well-controlled research setting to a number of researchers from different domains since it became a widely-used social networking site by millions of people. As was to be expected, researchers in linguistics have not remained indifferent to its presence as a potential research setting, for Facebook also works as a channel of communication to a high degree and its operation is based on language, primarily written. Those scholars who took Facebook as a research setting in relation to the issues regarding language learning and teaching, concentrated on posts shared in „Facebook groups” (e.g. Yunus et. al., 2011), and examination of „user profiles” (e.g Bosch, 2009).

Therefore, we felt motivated to base our setting on ‘text-based messages’, merely one of the numerous facilities offered by Facebook for its users to chat instantly or asynchronously, which has not hitherto served as a research setting, as far as we know. Previous studies having attempted to apply the techniques of conversation analysis to web-based communication have revolved around „discussion boards” available on the web (Yang, 2005) and log files obtained from discussions having occurred “in a virtual environment called Active Worlds” (Örnberg, 2003, p. 5). In contrast to the settings of these studies, which allow for chatting with many friends at the same time, our setting is constrained to one-to-one text-based online conversations without any engagement of a third party.

3.4. Data collection and analysis
Instead of creating a Facebook group and getting students to enrol in these groups to produce web-based texts, as already observed in some studies (e.g. Yunus et. al., 2011) or canalizing our participants to discussion groups on different web pages (e.g. Yang, 2005; Örnberg, 2010; Lee, 2001), we decided on collecting existing data from our target sample for the reason that our interest lies more in naturally occurring
web-based conversation. Only in this way, was it feasible for us to approximate our investigation of written conversation to that of ordinary speech interaction with respect to CA.

Data collection process included three steps. First, each participant was contacted in a variety of ways ranging from personal meetings to contacting them via e-mails. They were informed about the scope of the study (i.e. research aims, research questions, data collection procedure, and anonymity and data storage) along with firm assurance that the data they provided would be exclusively used for the purposes of the research project. Secondly, being informed of the essentials of the study, they were requested to compile their text-based Facebook messages (as log files). The third stage was concerned with the provision of the amassed files to the researchers. The total amount of data from participants was collected in two weeks’ time and the data were sent to the researchers’ e-mail addresses.

The selection of the methods for data analysis relied on the definition of our main research object, i.e. the analysis of the repair structures employed in written communication among users of Facebook. To this end, following Yang (2005), we opted for implementing some techniques of CA by applying them into web-based written-talk along with an appropriate set of transcription conventions so that the repair structures that occur in text-based messages might be clearly displayed to the reader. Nevertheless, studies particularly seeking to inquire about the perceptions of students regarding the use of Facebook, and its educational values rather than working on the data produced by users of Facebook (e.g. Kabilan et al., 2010; Akyildiz & Argan, 2011; Mazman & Usluel, 2010) usually employed qualitative and quantitative techniques for data analysis by looking at, for instance, mean scores, percentages, standard deviations, with the help of special statistical software packages, prominently by using SPSS.

There are no standardized or fixed conventions for studies that employ CA. The decision of identifying relevant conventions is the responsibility of the researchers. What is important, as maintained by Mackey and Gass (2005) is that “[t]ranscription conventions should match the object of inquiry in the study” (p. 223). Bearing this crucial point in mind, we decided to adopt the subsequent transcription conventions, by following Yang (2005):
Table 2. Transcription conventions followed in the analysis of the data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Convention</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( )</td>
<td>comment by researchers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(...)</td>
<td>data removed by researchers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>underline</strong></td>
<td>foregrounds the related parts that are being examined</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S1/S2/S3...</td>
<td>turn start</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>speaker IDs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. Results

The total number of pages of the data pool was 157. The data pool consisted of 10,887 words and 985 turn takings among participants. For the coding process, the data were divided into three equal parts. In this manner, each researcher was held responsible to code more than 50 pages. After each researcher finished their coding, the coding schemes were exchanged among researchers to cross check each other’s codes. During the coding process, each member of the research project was unaware of the other’s coding. This was done with the aim of establishing inter-coder reliability, with three coders categorizing the data into different types of repair structures.

As a result of long discussions, and analyses of the data time after time, we identified a total number of 36 repair cases from the main body of the data (see Table 3). These 36 cases consisted mainly of the following types of repair structures: other-initiated self-repaired (OISR), self-initiated self-repaired (SISR), other-initiated other-repaired (OIOR) and finally other-initiated with failure (OIF). These findings answered our main research question which is concerned with the types of repair structures utilized by Facebook users in their written exchanges. As the findings demonstrated, two types -self-initiated with failure (SIF) and self-initiated other-repaired (SIOR) - out of six types distinguished by Schegloff et al. (1977) in face-to-face communication were missing in our online communication. Obtaining these findings, we managed to answer the sub-research question that deals with the predominant repair structures applied by our participants in resolving communication breakdowns. Below is a table which summarizes the types of repair cases of the participants, and the overall distribution of these cases across the data analysed in percentages.
Table 3. The types of repair cases and their overall distribution

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Repair Type</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Other-initiated self-repaired</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-initiated self-repaired</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other-initiated with failure</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other-initiated other-repaired</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-initiated other-repaired</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-initiated with failure</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As can be seen from Table 3, the most common repair cases are OISR types and following this, SISR, OIF and finally OIOR types come successively in terms of the number of repair occurrences. Excerpts taken from the data are presented in the next section to illustrate the detected repair cases along with brief explanations by the researchers.

4.1. Repair structures in web-based communication

It was found that four of the six types of repair structures discussed in the literature review section of this paper, have been employed by our participants. Excerpts 1-7 below illustrate the four main trajectories or repair structures found in the analyses:

**Excerpt 1:** Self-initiated self-repair

01  S 1:  yeah
02    commons
03    google the commons dude
04  S 2:  what will you **do** there  ((repair made))

05  is it near to the avenue campus
07  S 1:  google the cowsherd
08  its quite near

In this extract, the trouble source was produced by S2 (line 4). S2 asked S1 what he/she was going to do in the common by posting "what will you there". At the same time, S2 also realized that he/she forgot to put a verb in his/her sentence (line 4). To make it clearer for the recipient (S1) in order to avoid misunderstanding, he/she re-wrote the sentence by adding a verb "do" in the sentence (line 5). In this case, this is self-initiated self-repair because S1 (self) initiated the trouble source (line 4) and also made the repair himself/herself (line 5).

**Excerpt 2:** Self-initiated self-repair

01  S 1:  and that's what you work with if you play poker
02  S 2:  a probability has got luckiness
03 yeah okay lets me ask you a question
04 if you got for example ace ace
05 yeah
06 and someone in your table
07 just put all in
08 what will you gonna do at that moment?
09 even the flop is not opened ((trouble source))
10 I mean the flop doesn't come yet ((repair made))
11 ?
12 S 1: you will call (...) This extract is another example of self-initiated self-repair. S1 and S2 were chatting about probability and luckiness in terms of playing poker. In this extract, the trouble source was produced by S2 (line 9) and it was also repaired by S2 (line 10). Here Speaker 2 stated that "the flop is not opened" (line 9). He/She realized that the recipient (S1) may find it confusing and tried to clarify his/her sentence.
06 what is atm? ((second repair initiation))
07 at the moment ((repair made))
08 probably this :D

In this extract, the trouble source was made by S1 (line 4). He/She employed the abbreviation "atm" instead of writing the full words. To clarify what "atm" refers to, S2 then initiated a repair twice. The first time, S2 repeated that item ("atm", as stated in line 4) to elicit the meaning when he/she posted "what?" (line 5). To make sure that S1 understood the point, he/she made decision to ask the question to S1 directly to avoid misunderstanding or any confusion (line 6). When S 1 did not make the repair, S2 made the repair himself/herself by giving the definition of "atm" (line 7).

Excerpt 4: Other-initiated Self-repair

01 (...) and my last erasmus party was really shit
02 Which one? ((repair initiation))
03 the one at café parfait on Thursday ((repair made))
04 I think it is always the same these Erasmus parties
Extract 4 is an example of other-initiated repair. Schegloff et Al. (1977) argued that positions of repair are associated with repair initiation. Hence, each position is devoted to repair initiation by a particular participant to result in self- initiation or other-initiation. The problem in this extract was indicated by the recipient in the second position (line 02) (See section 2.4.2 above). S2 employed one form of turn-constructional devices to initiate repair in second position. A question word is used to form a clarification request to find out which party the other participant was referring to. This form of repair initiation indicates a problem in the previous turn, and also what kind of problem it was. The speaker of the original turn (S1) immediately resolved the problem (line 03).

**Excerpt 5: Other-initiated Self-repair**

01 S1: How much could you depend?
02 S2: like 10 pound or something
03 S1: Just buy a bottle of vodka and you're sorted ((trouble source))
04 S2: sorry I can't understand? ((repair initiation))
05 S1: Sorted ((repair made))
06 S2: you mean I will buy a bottle of vodka (...) S1 gave a suggestion to S2 but the last part of it was incomprehensible. S2 then indicated the problem of misunderstanding. Schegloff et al. (1977) pointed out that, normally, other-initiation first emerges no sooner than the second position. The form of repair initiation used to indicate a problem in the previous talk is not one of the forms listed by Liddicoat (2007) for other-initiation purpose. However, it is undeniable that S2 stated clearly that the utterance is not understandable. Having this new form other-initiation, it could be concluded that this form is presumably appropriate for CMC. S1 produced a repaired form of the trouble source found in the original turn.

**Excerpt 6: Other-initiated with Failure**

01 S1: I'll take the U2B
02 you can take that too I guess..
03 S2: okay let's say we will meet in the city centre in front of junk at 11 ((trouble source))
04 S1: from across the stile or at junction ((repair initiation))
05 S2: is it alright for you? ((failure of repair))
06 S1: okay

S2 suggested a place in the city centre to meet S1. This place was unrecognizable by S1, which represents a trouble source of misunderstanding to the recipient. An attempt was by S1 to clarify this misunderstanding of the previous talk by making a clarification request. This time, two possible options for the intended place were given to form the clarification request. Clarification request is one of the functional categories of conversational repair. In other words, it is one of the

**Excerpt 7: Other-initiated with failure**

01 S 1: Hehe
02 Ill just come when I'm ready and call you yeah?
03 S 2: yeah
04 S 1: call my number which is start
0771 ((trouble source))
05 S 2: The turkish one? ((repair initiation))
((end of conversation with repair failure))

The two participants in the conversation are arranging a meeting and they determined that the way to find each other at that location is to give a call. S1 gave the phone number for S2 to call. However, S2 found the utterance of S1 problematic. The problem here in this extract is a problem of understanding. To clarify this misapprehension, S2 produced one of the frequent forms of repair initiation in the second position. This form involves the use of „you mean“ and a possible understanding of the previous talk (Liddicoat, 2007). Actually, S2 dropped „you mean“ and just introduced a possible understanding of which phone number was meant by S1 in an attempt to indicate the trouble source. Failure in providing repair emerges when S1 did not respond to the repair initiation made by S2. This failure is clearly shown by the discontinuation of the conversation.

**5. Discussion**

This section focuses on the interpretation and discussion of the findings and attempts to draw sustained, explicit comparisons between CMC and face-to-face data in regards to organization of repair structures. In this section, we also return to our main research question and the sub-question for a thorough discussion, often connecting our discussion back to the literature above.

**5.1. The main research question and the sub-question**

The main research question sought an answer to the question of what types of repair structures are employed by Facebook users in one-to-one written a/synchronous exchanges. The main research question was answered by finding that there were four types of repair structures existing in the participants” organization of repair cases in their written communication. In response to the sub-question which was addressing the predominant types of repairs structures in participants” repair organization, it turned out that among the four types of repair structures identified in the data, the predominant types were OISR and SISR. Further discussion relating to the repairs types identified, including the predominant and the missing ones, is given below at
length, starting first with the discussion of the most frequently used repair types.

5.1.1. The most frequently used types of repair: (OISR) and (SISR)

As mentioned earlier, the type of OISR was the most frequently used in CMC by the participants in our study and the calculation of its frequency reached the highest number (f= 17) amongst the other used types of repair. In addition, the second highest number in the frequency of those repair types used by our participants emerged to be the type of SISR (f= 12). These two types are almost close in the number of times of occurrence in the web-based written language. In the following paragraphs, some interpretations will be given for achieving the biggest numbers for these two types, in particular in our data of CMC.

It is evident in the types of OISR and SISR that the students have something in common. Self-repair is a shared characteristic between these two types of repair. Hence, a possible reason for the resulting high frequency of these two types is due to the nature of the environment of communication those participants are using. In this kind of environment, the first participant in a conversation who produces the trouble source is the only one who knows how to clarify the meaning of the message included in the first turn. Since they use CMC environment, where they cannot see each other’s facial expressions or body language to determine the sequence of turn taking or the intended meaning in the other’s communication, possible misunderstandings may occur, and the first responsible one to clarify the intended meaning is the first participant who produced the trouble source. As a result, self-repair occurs the most irrespective of whether the repair was self-initiated or other-initiated, and that is usually done to avoid possible communication breakdowns.

As was explained earlier, misunderstanding is highly expected in web-based environments, especially when the mode of communication is grounded in written language, a normal reaction for the second participant is to indicate that there was a trouble source in the turn of the first participant which is typically followed by having the repair made for the given trouble source in the following relevant turn. Schegloff et al. (1977) claimed that other initiation normally occurs in the next turn which gives time for the repair to be made in the third turn and this is clearly seen in the use of OISR repair types by our participants. Having this misunderstanding and the consequent behaviours of the participants to avoid any breakdown in the communication gives us a sound basis to justify the high frequency of the use of OISR by the participants.

As for the interpretation of the high frequency of the use of SISR in our data, it
was suggested by Schegloff et al. (1977) that self-initiation is more possible to occur than other-initiation and that self-initiation is more preferred to employ in face-to-face communication. In the findings of this study, on the one hand, this kind of preference is clearly reflected in the high frequency of the occurrences of SISR in CMC. On the other hand, OISR was more frequent in our data than SISR which is in stark contrast with Schegloff’s suggestion. One reason could be attributed to this contrast, namely to the difference in the different interactional organization of face-to-face verbal interaction and distant written-based communication, as pointed out by Schönfeldt and Golato (2003). In face-to-face communication, the speaker can see the recipient’s facial expressions and body language, and can accordingly tell that a need for repair is raised and, thus, makes the repair to fix the troublesome communication. However, a participant in CMC cannot determine what the other participant feels or what troubles he/she might face in communicating. This makes the first participant unaware of possible sources of communication breakdown which yields to having the second participant indicate the trouble in the communication. Therefore, other-initiation was found to be used more than self-initiation in CMC in our case.

5.1.2. The least frequently used types of repair: (OIOR) and (OIF)

As the findings revealed, the most common types of repair organization coming after the OISR and SISR types were OIF (f= 5) and OIOR (f= 2). Nevertheless, their frequency of occurrences was too low to be compared to those of the SISR and OISR types (f= 29 in total). The following will be, therefore, a discussion on why such types of repairs had a limited presence among the participants and how they differed from the other types of repair structures in participants’ attempts to deal with the trouble sources. While both types of the most frequent repairs, irrespective of who initiated the trouble source, were resolved through self-repairs, (by the “self”, the current speaker, rather than the “other”, interlocutor), the least frequently used repair types were both based on other-initiation of repair, generally seen on the second and fourth sequential positions which was in line with the cases in face-to-face communication.

In cases where other-initiation of repair is in question, the speaker of the trouble source (i.e. self-initiator) is not aware of the fact that there is a trouble in the written utterances produced by himself/herself that somehow hinders conveying the right message or offering a clear understanding to the receiver (=other). Therefore, in such
a case, other-initiation could function as “a diagnosis of the trouble source” (Svennevig, 2008, p.1). As is known, in an English conversation, parties utilize a wide range of forms of other-repair initiators to raise a problem through initiation. Our OI attempts comprised mainly “understanding checks”, a common form of other-repair initiators.

As seen, any party other than the “self”, however, might feel obliged to initiate the troubles resulting from “recurrent problems in speaking, hearing and understanding” (Schegloff et al., 1977, p.361) to understand the current speaker. In our case where we focused on written web-based communication, there is no question of speaking and hearing problems, but only problems based on understanding were encountered by the parties who are not the source of trouble. Other-initiated troubles (OIT), according to the results of our analysis resulted in three ways: they were self-repaired (see the discussion above in 5.1.1), other-repaired or remained unrepaird with failure for various reasons. In the following discussion, we will address the last two instances, of other initiated other-repaired and other-initiated with failure.

Other-initiated other-repaired instances occurred in the written events where the trouble sources made by the “the self” were voiced by “the other” through repair initiations and repaired by “the other”. Unlike ordinary conversations, OIOR cases in CMC allow for more than one initiation and finally result in other-repaired cases (for further detail see Excerpt 3). This might be because in CMC parties have more wait time for their interlocutors to write their statements than they do in real conversation to utter. Moreover, there is no overlap in CMC, and thus, conversation flows with clear turn-takings. However, there is an issue of concern in CMC OIOR structure, which is to get a feedback from the trouble causer confirming the correctness of OIOR instances, for it is only the trouble causer who knows the exact message, word(s), phrase(s) or whatever the problem causing element is. What “the other” generally does is to interpret the written utterances with his/her own resources to come to an understanding that will make sense for him / herself. If the repair initiated and repaired by “the other” is verified by the party of the trouble source, then it would be right to say that the repair is successfully made; otherwise, the repair ends up with failure, to which we will turn our attention in the rest of this section.

As maintained by Schegloff et al. (1977), the failure in resolving the trouble sources is twofold: it is either issued from self-initiation or other-initiation. No occurrences of repairs of self-initiated with failure
appeared in our findings, which were not in line with other studies of CMC dealing with repair organization (see, e.g. Örnberg, 2003; Yang, 2005). However, there were five instances of other-initiated with failure. For OIF cases in CMC, there might be several reasons. However, in our data, the other-initiations were largely based on direct requests for clarifications of ambiguous written utterances and these requests sometimes did not receive any response from the trouble causer who clarified the ambiguity or the speaker just shifted the topic of the conversation without paying attention to the previous line (see excerpts 6 and 7 above). One possible explanation of this type of repair might be that the self considers the initiated trouble trivial and accordingly applies a pragmatic strategy named “let-it-pass” (Firth, 1996) perhaps with the purpose of keeping interaction flow without a breakdown for a tiny matter which does not contribute to communication a lot. Another reason is likely to be that since the parties could not see and hear each other, lack of attention can lead them to miss some of the lines of written utterances, which by contrast less frequently occurs in verbal utterances, i.e. face-to-face communication.

5.1.3. The missing types of repair in CMC data: (SIOR) and (SIF)

As to the repair types that did not emerge in our study, there was a commonality between them, which was both of their initiation from “the self”, namely, self-initiated attempts. In SIF cases, the customary procedure stems from the lack of repair by the person who produces utterances to be repaired and then initiates but leaves un repaired. Such cases may tend to occur due to the speaker's own will of not dealing with the repair though she/he already initiates the repair. However, as we observed in our data analysis, self-initiations for repairs always resulted in repairs by the speaker. Therefore, we could not identify any failure issued from self-initiation. This might be explained as follows: the repairs initiated by the self were repaired in the same turn without delay and this is demonstrated by the high frequency of SISR (f =12, 33%) of all the repairs occurrences. Unlike verbal conversation, CMC based on writing can be rightly claimed to leave less room for failure, for it is fundamental for the other to have a clear understanding. Otherwise, there is no other chance for the interlocutor to interpret the written utterances since she/he cannot see the facial expressions, body language of as well as paralinguistic features produced by the speaker.
SIOR cases, in their essence, require the interlocutor to make the repair, initiated by the party who produced the written statements. The trouble sources of the self-issued repairs are likely to be difficult to repair by the parties who are the recipients of the written messages. The reason is that “other-repair is highly constrained and from a social point of view creates a risk of interlocutor’s losing face, this being something to avoid, if possible” in face-to-face interaction (MacDonald & Atkinson, 2000, p.178). This, as well, applies to web-based interaction in that the other tends to avoid engaging in resolving the trouble initiated by the self in a written environment in order to save face of both parties concerned.

6. Conclusion
This study explored the types of repair structures applied by a small number of Facebook users in respect to written communication. The chosen conversations were one-to-one text-based messages in English only. The lingua franca communication held in the data at hand was transcribed by the use of certain transcription symbols. Some techniques of CA were applied to the data in order to find out what repair structures are used by Facebook users. By referring to the relevant literature, a comparison between the four types of repair structures used by our participants and the two missing types of repair in our CMC data, and those used in face-to-face communication was done to identify the differences between these two kinds of communication and the differences were discussed further. We also discussed why some types of repair structures were missing in our text-based data.

The findings of the study offer some implications, specifically for pedagogical practices. Firstly, as discussed above, repair structures in written and verbal communication tend to take different forms and are organized in distinct manners mostly due to the nature and mode of communication. It is imperative that for successful communication to occur between one-to-one interactions, be they face-to-face or written through CMC, learners of English get some training in relation to using communication management strategies, including repair mechanisms. Secondly, ELT practitioners should be aware of the fact that their students no longer solely depend on face-to-face interactions to practice their English but also can make good use of virtual environments for the purpose of ameliorating their English in real life situations with a diverse group of speakers. Teachers should make some efforts to vary their classroom activities including the use of chat programs, particularly to help students hone their
writing skills, and create more room for students to engage in effective communication while using social networking sites and some smartphone applications tailored for language improvement in general.

While interpreting the findings of the current study, one should bear in mind that the study has several limitations. First and foremost, the small amount of data led to the absence of some types of repair structures, which were seen in high frequencies in similar studies. For example, Yang’s (2005) study calculated a total number of 351 repair cases from 1525 postings written by the participants, including all types of repair cases reported by Scheglof et al. (1977). And in addition to them, he found some other types of repair cases, only typical to written communication, which have not thus far come out in face-to-face conversation analysis.

As another important limitation of the study, it should be mentioned that our study aiming to identify repair organization in written CMC only focused on one social networking site, namely, Facebook, due to its popularity and ordinariness among university students. Had we included data from other social networking sites, the results might have been different; perhaps, we could even have identified the repair types that we missed out in our study, and could even find some types which do not ordinarily exist in face-to-face conversation. Similarly, our setting, unlike, discussion boards, did not allow more than two parties to engage with each other, which might also have affected our results. Usually, interaction among individuals occurs in groups, small or large, but including at least more than two people in many cases. This also affects the nature of interaction because it is expected in face-to-face communication that parties will overlap with each other; latching and interruptions will occur and, in effect, this would result in more repair cases as compared to the written CMC which has no room for overlapping, latching and direct interruption. In our case, investigating the data gathered from groups rather one-to-one conversations might help us to identify repair types at different positions as distinct from those put forward by Scheglof et al. (1977) since there would not be clear turn-takings between the parties. Therefore, for example, a trouble issued from the self might be repaired by “the others” (more than one interlocutor) not only “the other” since there would be more interactants both to initiate and provide resolution in group.

Considering the dearth of research into the organization of repairs in written communication in the literature, we, however, strongly believe that the results and implications of the present research
not only add new knowledge to our understanding regarding the factors influencing effective written CMC beyond prospective groups of people (CMC users), but also provide some clues about the potential areas of communication problems when parties do not see each other and cannot make use of paralinguistic features when trying to decode messages conveyed in conversation exchanges in the written mode. Last but not least, we suggest that training in repairs for written as well as spoken interaction as a type of communication strategy should be part of the English language teaching curriculum. We also aver that similar studies with a larger corpus should be undertaken with non-native English speakers and native English speakers due to the possibility that some of the repair types are more typical among non-native speakers than native speakers, which, we believe, could be interesting to consider in future research.

References


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Of Humans and Animals: Domestic Animal Names for Men and Women in English and Serbian

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Abstract
It is considered common knowledge that the culture of a speech community is reflected in its language. The relationship between culture and language has always been complicated and therefore has always aroused particular interest among scientists. One way of studying this complex but extremely significant relationship is through the analysis of metaphors used by native speakers of a particular language to refer to humans. Metaphors represent one of the oldest and probably most fundamental units of figurative language and are often regarded as the collective wisdom that has been formed by a speech community. Metaphors are indicative of the cultural values, mores, and folk beliefs held by a speech community. The article deals with animal metaphors of the type Human is a domestic animal and You, domestic animal, i.e. similarities and differences in the use of domestic animal names in reference to men and women in English and Serbian. The analysis of a number of such domestic animal metaphors herein has shown that the majority of them are used differently across the two languages and therefore two cultures.

Keywords: metaphor, men, women, animals, domestic animals, English, Serbian

1. Introduction – Defining metaphor
The central idea of this article is to analyze how two languages, English and Serbian, and their respective cultures, view men and women through the prism of the domestic animal kingdom. One way of doing it is by looking at domestic animal metaphors used by native speakers of English and Serbian to refer to men and women.

The word metaphor has its origin in the Greek words meta meaning with/after and
pherein meaning bear/carry, in which the central idea is the one of meanings being transferred (Charteris-Black, 2004). The fact that metaphor has its roots in the Greek language leads us to Aristotle, one of the most influential thinkers in the history of Western thought. According to Aristotle, metaphor is defined as “giving the thing a name that belongs to something else; the transference being either from genus to species, or from species to genus, or on grounds of analogy” (as cited in Gibbs, 1994: 210). The Aristotelian definition influenced many contemporary interpretations of metaphor. One such contemporary interpretation is provided by Lakoff and Johnson who argue that “the essence of metaphor is understanding and experiencing one kind of thing in terms of another” (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980: 6). Their cognitive view of metaphor being not only a matter of a language, but also of thought and action, is regarded as a breakthrough in contemporary metaphor study. Within this cognitive linguistic view, metaphor is defined by Kövecses as “understanding one conceptual domain in terms of another” (Kövecses, 2010: 4), hence we have the term conceptual metaphor. It includes two conceptual domains, target and source domain, where the former is understood in terms of the latter. For the purpose of this article, we will use the conceptual metaphor of the form Human is a domestic animal or You domestic animal, where a domestic animal is understood as “an animal that is not wild and is kept as a pet or to produce food”. (Cambridge Free English Dictionary and Thesaurus. (n.d.). Retrieved October 9, 2015, from http://dictionary.cambridge.org/).

In both English and Serbian, men and women have always been conceptualized as domestic animals of some kind on account of their physical and/or psychological characteristics such as the size, strength, (un)attractiveness, (un)tidiness, aggressiveness, arrogance, courage, gentleness, greediness, immorality, loyalty, tidiness, or lack of good sense.

2. Domestic animals used to refer to men

In the English and Serbian language dictionaries used in this article, dog (pas) is defined as a domesticated animal kept by people as a pet or for the purpose of hunting or guarding things. (Cambridge Free English Dictionary and Thesaurus. (n.d.). Retrieved October 9, 2015, from http://dictionary.cambridge.org/). (СРПСКИ ЈЕЗИК - речници и алати на вебу. (n.d.). Retrieved October 12, 2015, from http://www.srpskijezik.com/). Despite being known as the man’s best and most loyal friend, dog is used


However, not all figurative uses of the word *dog* are negative. Some are neutral. When used this way, the word *dog* means simply *a fellow/chap*. e.g. *It's true - I'm a lucky dog.* (Oxford Dictionaries - Dictionary, Thesaurus, & Grammar. (n.d.). Retrieved October 9, 2015, from http://www.oxforddictionaries.com/).

Speaking of dogs, we should not forget the words denoting young dogs such as *puppy/pup* (*kuće*). Both *puppy* and *pup* are used in English in a derogatory sense to characterize cheeky or arrogant men. e.g. *You saucy young pup!* (Oxford Dictionaries - Dictionary, Thesaurus, & Grammar. (n.d.). Retrieved October 9, 2015, from http://www.oxforddictionaries.com/).

Based on the English and Serbian dictionaries consulted for the purpose of this article, *cat* (*mačka*) is not used to refer to men. However, there are two informal words for *cat* in English — *pussycat/pussy* (*maca*) used in a humorous way to refer to particularly gentle men, but who may not appear this way at first sight. e.g. *Mike likes to make out that he's tough, but he's a pussycat really.* (Cambridge Free English Dictionary and Thesaurus. (n.d.). Retrieved October 9, 2015, from http://dictionary.cambridge.org/).

When men fail to understand something that falls within human intellectual capacity, native speakers of Serbian tend to use the word *horse* (*konj*) to refer to such men. (СРПСКИ ЈЕЗИК - речници и алати на вебу. (n.d.). Retrieved October 12, 2015, from http://www.srpskijezik.com/).
Interestingly, the same animal finds no figurative use in English. Another horse-like animal — donkey/ass (magarac), when used metaphorically in both languages, indicates lack of good sense in men. e.g. He’s a pompous ass. (Oxford Dictionaries - Dictionary, Thesaurus, & Grammar. (n.d.). Retrieved October 9, 2015, from http://www.oxforddictionaries.com/).

There are other words in English such as stallion/stud (pastuv) denoting an adult male horse kept for breeding that people resort to when describing an attractive and sexually skilled man. e.g. He thinks he’s a real stud. (Cambridge Free English Dictionary and Thesaurus. (n.d.). Retrieved October 9, 2015, from http://dictionary.cambridge.org/).


Similarly, bull is used by native speakers of Serbian to refer to very strong or lustful men. Ox (vo) is another domesticated bovine used only in the Serbian language to refer to an adult man considered doltish. (СРПСКИ ЈЕЗИК - речници и алати на вебу. (n.d.). Retrieved October 12, 2015, from http://www.srpskijezik.com/).

While sheep (ovca) is used in both languages to refer to easily led people, or those of timid nature, an adult male sheep - ram (ovan) is used to describe a sexually active man in English and a stupid man in Serbian. English Dictionary. (n.d.). Retrieved October 9, 2015, from http://www.collinsdictionary.com/.

When used metaphorically in English, goat (jarac) refers to a man behaving in an unpleasant way and leading a very active sexual life. (Oxford Dictionaries - Dictionary, Thesaurus, & Grammar. (n.d.). Retrieved October 9, 2015, from http://www.oxforddictionaries.com/). It is worth mentioning here that goat (koza) may also be used metaphorically in British English to refer to a stupid person, irrespective of their sex or gender. By contrast, the Serbian language dictionaries tell us that goat (jarac) is used either to refer to an ugly and scruffy-looking man (usually bearded), or the one who has been cuckolded. (Rečnik srpskohrvatskoga književnog jezika (1990). (Drugo fototipsko izdanje. ed., p.

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Speaking of untidiness, *pig* (*svinja*) is most likely to be used by native speakers of English and Serbian to refer to greedy, unpleasant, and difficult to deal with men. e.g. *He was an absolute pig to her.*


We should not forget that the word *pig* is also used of a man who believes men are superior to women. e.g. *Because he, like me, was a male chauvinist pig.* ([bnc] British National Corpus. (n.d.). Retrieved October 9, 2015, from http://www.natcorp.ox.ac.uk/).

However, that is not where the story of men perceived as pigs ends as we have yet to discuss *hogs* and *boars*. While there were no results for the use of *boar* (*vepar*) to refer to men in English, *hog* (*krmak*), when used figuratively, describes a greedy (especially for food) person. e.g. *You've eaten it all? You hog!* (Cambridge Free English Dictionary and Thesaurus. (n.d.). Retrieved October 9, 2015, from http://dictionary.cambridge.org/). As for the figurative use of *boars* and *hogs* in Serbian, only *hog* is used to refer to men, especially in reference to untidy or morally fallen men. (СРПСКИ ЈЕЗИК - речници и алати на вебу. (n.d.). Retrieved October 12, 2015, from http://www.srpskijezik.com/)

Within the world of domestic fowl, men are often conceptualized as *cocks* (*BrE*)/roosters (*AmE*), chickens, ganders, drakes, and peacocks.

*Cock* (*petao*) is usually used in English to describe an arrogant man, hence the adjective *cocky*, meaning confident in an unpleasant way. Similarly, *rooster* (*petao*) is used as a term of reference to men considered vain. Retrieved October 9, 2015, from http://www.merriam-webster.com/. The word *cock/rooster* has quite a different meaning within the scope of Serbian metaphorical language. It is usually used to describe a man who is bad-tempered or short-fused. (Rečnik srpskohrvatskoga književnog jezika (1990). (Drugo fototipsko izdanje. ed., p. 399). (n.d.). Novi Sad. Zagreb.: Matica srpska. Matica Hrvatska.)

No animal has been used so far to refer to cowardly people, especially not men. Now, there is the word *chicken* (*pile*), an animal afraid and scared of so many things, as believed by most people from the English-


### 3. Domestic animals used to refer to women

The first animal we discussed within this article was *dog*. It may come as a surprise to some of our readers that *dog* is used in English to describe an unattractive and boring woman. (Cambridge Free English Dictionary and Thesaurus. (n.d.). Retrieved October 9, 2015, from [http://dictionary.cambridge.org/](http://dictionary.cambridge.org/)).

What certainly will not come as a surprise to most of our readers is the use of the word *bitch* (*kučka/kuja*) in both languages to describe a malicious, unpleasant, and a woman of low morals. (Cambridge Free English Dictionary and Thesaurus. (n.d.). Retrieved October 9, 2015, from [http://dictionary.cambridge.org/](http://dictionary.cambridge.org/)).


Speaking of immoral women, *pig* is another word native speakers of English use to describe such women. Retrieved
Besides being *bitches*, women are often conceptualized as *cats*, *kittens*, and *pussycats*. When referred to as *cats*, at least in English, women are thought of as malicious and spiteful, or with a tendency to gossip maliciously. On the other hand, Serbs will use the word *cat* only to describe a particularly attractive woman. (СРПСКИ ЈЕЗИК - речници и алати на вебу. (n.d.). Retrieved October 12, 2015, from http://www.srpskijezik.com/)

Similarly, *kitten* (*mače*) is used in English to refer to young sexually attractive women, whereas *pussycats* are reserved for those of gentle and easy-going nature. Speaking of gentleness, a gentle woman will also be seen as *dove* (*golubica*) in the eyes of native speakers of both languages. (n.d.). Retrieved October 9, 2015, from http://www.merriam-webster.com/. (Rečnik srpskohrvatskoga književnog jezika (1990). (Drugo fototipsko izdanje. ed., p. 527). (n.d.). Novi Sad. Zagreb.: Matica srpska. Matica Hrvatska.)


Whereas *goose* (*guska*) is used in English to refer to a silly and stupid person, the same animal, along with *sheep*, is used by Serbs to characterize a stupid and narrow-minded woman. (СРПСКИ ЈЕЗИК - речници и алати на вебу. (n.d.). Retrieved October 12, 2015, from http://www.srpskijezik.com/)

One of the most common domestic animals used in reference to women is *cow* (*krava*). It is used offensively to describe a stupid, disagreeable, and unpleasant woman, both in English and Serbian. e.g. *She's a shameless flirt and might I add, a stupid cow.* (Oxford Dictionaries - Dictionary, Thesaurus, & Grammar. (n.d.). Retrieved October 9, 2015, from http://www.oxforddictionaries.com/).

4. Conclusion
What we may conclude with certainty within the scope of this article is that the
two languages and consequently their cultures are similar only to some extent in their use of domestic animals to refer to humans, with most animal names being used quite differently. Moreover, there are examples of animal names being used metaphorically in one language, with no use in the other. The reason for such striking differences might be the culture itself. Despite certain similarities, domestic animal metaphors used across the two languages tend to be culture specific and heavily influenced by beliefs and values held by the two speech communities.

Also, both languages seem to understand gender and sex differences in terms of animals. Considering the social force metaphors have in people’s view of the world, such use of animals serves as a window into the role given to men and women in English and Serbian societies, respectively.

On the basis of the examples of animal metaphors analyzed in this article, it seems that the choice of domestic animals to refer to men and women across the two languages is not random. In fact, most domestic animals used to refer to men are based on the size (big) and strength (strong) of the animal. By contrast, women are mostly seen as small domestic animals.

The vast majority of the animal metaphors we dealt with are not neutral, but convey rather negative evaluations. It seems that domestic animals are always at hand when it comes to understanding characteristics considered negative and unbecoming to humans. The reason for this, as proposed by Lakoff and Turner, may lie in the *Great Chain of Being* where humans are seen as a higher form of life and as such superior to animals (Lakoff & Turner, 1989). Therefore, if a human is characterized as an animal of some sort, then it is normally degraded to a lower form of life, hence a negative connotation.
References


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Using a Literature-based Approach in the Acquisition of Compounds from Stevenson’s novel *The Strange Case of Dr Jekyll and Mr Hyde*

Bratislav Milošević, Aleksinačka Gimnazija, Serbia

Abstract

The paper is focused on the significance of reading literature in English not only for understanding the storyline but, equally importantly, for acquiring its mostly formal vocabulary and enhancing students’ lexical competence. However, what the paper moves centre-stage is the use of compounds in Stevenson’s novel *The Strange Case of Dr Jekyll and Mr Hyde* – the novel which the third-year grammar school students have discussed in their regular classes. As part of an extra-curricular activity, the advanced students read Stevenson’s novel focusing on its lexis: the compound nouns, adjectives, verbs and adverbs. What is emphasized is the process of the students’ vocabulary acquisition: the acquisition of compounds ‘extracted’ from the literary work and used in communication as a sign or an emblem of a cultured, well-educated individual. Thus, the paper not only stresses the paramount importance of using lexically diverse units in social and cultural terms but it also directly suggests and guides us into reading literature as a well-trodden path to linguistic self-improvement and self-enrichment.

Keywords: language, lexis, teaching, learning, compounds, literature, activity

1. Introduction: Reading literature is inseparable from learning English

Reading English literature is important for students in multiple ways as it involves reading comprehension, learning about the social/cultural/historical milieu of a writer’s time, acquiring new lexis and much more. However, my interest in this paper has been narrowed down and is based on the relationship between reading...
literature and learning/teaching a language. I attempt to point out the interconnectedness between the two by illustrating only some “of the varied ways in which language and literature study are related and can be integrated” (Brumfit and Carter 1986: IX). Arguably, the teacher can make use of students’ reading a book in English (an engaging, stimulating and thought-provoking experience) and combine it with some literature-based activities on the road to the enhancement of students’ lexical competence. Though demanding, this combined strategy is certainly a great challenge and, hopefully, a rewarding experience of vocabulary acquisition: new words, naturally-sounding combinations of words (collocations), phrasal verbs, idioms and compounds. In this way, enriching one’s lexicon is conducive to consolidating one’s knowledge of the English language on the whole. And, interestingly, by degrees words and phrases both in spoken and written English come to be used almost naturally and spontaneously – the most rewarding experience for an avid English language learner.

Metaphorically speaking, some linguists like George Lakoff & Mark Johnson (Metaphors We Live By 2008) argue that language can be likened to a building-block theory. This reinforces the argument that there is some intrinsic interconnectedness of the words, word combinations and word patterns: “Linguistic expressions are objects that have properties in and of themselves and stand in fixed relationships to one another […] Within a language the parts can stand in various relationships to one another, depending upon their building-block structure and their inherent properties” (Lakoff and Johnson 2008: 204) and, accordingly, it can be argued that compounds are a special segment of that multi-layered building-block linguistic theory – each compound is in itself a small building-block of at least two words. What is more, learning a language is “additive, like building blocks” (Aslam 1992: 7) and each new shade of meaning of a word is a new building-block in the ever-growing structure made up of words. Significantly, it always adds to our discovery of the colourfulness and richness of the language: “Languages work in large part because they don’t use needless duplication. Each conventional word differs from its neighbors […] Language, and especially its vocabulary (the lexicon), is not static” (Clark 2009: 13).

Still, this seemingly never-ending process of learning might easily come to a standstill if it was not combined with teaching students “the richness and diversity of lexis” (Culpeper 2014: 188). Interestingly, working with grammar school students, especially the self-motivated advanced ones, is always an invaluable
benefit: the teacher usually starts from the simplest and most accessible definitions of words and moves towards more and more complex ones. Being selective in the choice of the definition of a word for a particular age (appropriateness), putting a word in the right, easy-to-understand context (contextualization) and having her/his students respond understandingly (positive feedback) are the three obliging requirements for every teacher on her/his road to success. In this paper, however, my objective is not the definition of a word as a single unit. Conversely, my emphasis is on a compound word as a combination of at least two words as well as on the meaning arising out of the combination of two or more words. What follows is a practical, in-class example of encouraging third-year grammar school students to acquire new words (in this case, compound words) while reading a book in English. Toward that end, I have chosen Stevenson’s novel The Strange Case of Dr Jekyll and Mr Hyde and it serves my purpose well because these third-year grammar school students are already acquainted with the basic narrative of the novel: they have engagingly read and discussed some excerpts from the novel in class.

2. The Form and Use of Compound Words from a Late-Nineteen-Century Novel as Applied in the Contemporary Context

Before the third-year grammar school students start reading the unabridged edition of Stevenson’s novel in English, the teacher advises them to approach compounds as words whose meaning is not always transparent, predictable or easily decipherable. In fact, the teacher attempts to raise her/his students’ linguistic awareness that the meaning of a compound “is more or less idiosyncratic and unpredictable” (Carstairs-McCarthy 2002: 60). For that reason, students are pre-taught not to look at compound words in isolation. Rather, they are expected to look at the surrounding words of the given compounds and attempt to grasp the meanings of the new words – the compounds – from the context. In this way, the teacher reminds her/his students that “[t]o understand new word(s), you should look around at the context clues – those words, phrases, and clauses surrounding the questionable word(s)” (Medaille 2007: 8).

And here is the example: after reading an extract from Stevenson’s book in class and after covering the compound words as lexical units of different kinds (nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs), the advanced third-year students are encouraged to do what has always been my twofold objective in reading a novel in English. Arguably, the basic task is a two-stage process: it means reading i.e.
understanding, grasping, analyzing, and anatomizing the narrative of the whole book and, at the same time, acquiring plenty of new words, in this case the compounds. Put differently, the students are supposed to read the plot thoughtfully and learn some new lexis understandingly.

What is shifted centre-stage and prioritized is the extraction of the compound words from The Strange Case of Dr Jekyll and Mr Hyde and this task has been designed as an extracurricular activity for advanced students; as such, it is carried out on the voluntary basis. A list of the compound words, once selected from the novel, is approached both structurally and semantically. My focal point of interest at this point is clearly defined: the identification of the compound words, their classification into compound nouns, adjectives, verbs, adverbs and their meaning from the given context.

3. Compounds

(COMPOUND NOUNS, ADJECTIVES, VERBS AND ADVERBS)

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<tr>
<th>COMPOUND NOUNS</th>
<th>COMPOUND ADJECTIVES</th>
<th>COMPOUND VERBS</th>
<th>COMPOUND ADVERBS</th>
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<tr>
<td>After-dinner</td>
<td>Down-going</td>
<td>Undertake</td>
<td>Good-naturedly</td>
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<td>Good-nature</td>
<td>Well-known</td>
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<td>Headlong</td>
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<td>Week-day</td>
<td>Well-polished</td>
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<td>Light-headedly</td>
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<td>Kinsman</td>
<td>Cut-and-dry</td>
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<td>Cross-street</td>
<td>Extraordinary-looking</td>
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<td>Gentleman</td>
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<td>Reading-desk</td>
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<td>Ball-room</td>
<td>Loose-tongued</td>
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<td>Self-love</td>
<td>Well-made</td>
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<td>Jack-in-the-Box</td>
<td>Smooth-faced</td>
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<td>Old-world</td>
<td>Ill-contained</td>
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<td>Self-content</td>
<td>Wicked-looking</td>
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<td>Bed-clothes</td>
<td>Chocolate-coloured</td>
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<td>Roadway</td>
<td>Ivory-faced</td>
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<td>Back-end</td>
<td>Silvery-haired</td>
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<td>Eating-house</td>
<td>Self-reliant</td>
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<td>Dissecting-room</td>
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<td>Cheval-glass</td>
<td>Unlooked-for</td>
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<td>Dining-room</td>
<td>Commonplace</td>
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<td>Postmark</td>
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<td>Handwriting</td>
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<td>Fellow-creature</td>
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<td>Pocket-handkerchief</td>
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<td>Knife-boy</td>
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<td>Bible-word</td>
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Once the students have read the book and filled in the chart with the compounds, their understanding of the given compounds is checked through an activity in which students take turns making up a story of logically and chronologically related events using one compound per sentence. Here are a couple of the introductory sentences which the teacher sets as an example and to help her/his students get started:

a. My fellow-men and I were sitting in the dining room.

b. It was an after-dinner sit-together.

c. Unexpectedly, an old school-companion of ours entered the room and excused himself for being late.

d. He was an ivory-faced and loose-tongued man with a mouthful of personal anecdotes.

The above-mentioned activity serves as a warmer to the fundamental activity i.e. the activity based on the contextualized use of the compounds from Stevenson’s novel. The activity is aimed at raising students’ awareness of the social significance of literary language and the linguistic process of the compounding of words (in this case, the compound nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs) because “[l]ike society, language is not monolithic” (Stork and Widdowson 2014: 155). The linguists Stork and Widdowson argue that “Language is part of a total system of human behaviour in society and to become an accepted member of human society the child has to learn the social implications of language: he must learn to use the appropriate language for each occasion” (Stork and Widdowson 2014:
The prime objective is thus to emphasize the striking beauty of the use of a spectrum of compounds and warn against the oversimplification of and reductionism in language, which is a characteristic of non-literary language. Overall, the activity is intended to point towards “the importance of language varieties” (Stork and Widdowson 2014: 156) and towards the possibility that “a speaker can vary his language along the scales […] to suit the occasion” (Stork and Widdowson 2014: 161) – a formal occasion favouring the use of literary English or an informal one characterized by the use of non-literary language substitutes.

What follows is, accordingly, an in-class activity which illustrates the varieties of the English language and how “[l]anguage varies tremendously in […] lexis not only from one social group to another but also in terms of intercommunication between social groups and the interaction of human relationships” (Stork and Widdowson 2014: 161). For the performance of this activity, the students are divided into two groups: the former group is at a formal reception, dinner or cocktail party whereas the latter group is at an unofficial, casual get-together like a teenagers’ party. While looking at the chart containing the compound words, the members of the first group make up sentences using the compounds as a sign of literary English. The second group’s task might be a bit more challenging: for each sentence made in the literary style, the second group should think hard, consult dictionaries and provide a non-literary equivalent i.e. the lexically corresponding word/phrase to the given compound in the non-literary English. The poster with the concrete example sentences is offered to the students to serve as a model or a guide on the road to an engaging, thought-provoking and not-so-easy task:

With reference to the terms such as literary English and non-literary English, I attempt to help my students understand that “it is productive to talk about literariness in language where some uses of language are more or less ‘literary’ than others” (Brumfit and Carter 1986: 10). In line with this, students are guided into approaching compounds as more or less ‘literary’ than other words and word combinations.
My uncle is always loose-tongued. My uncle is always chatty.
My school-companions have paid me a visit. My school pals have dropped by.
His grandfather can sometimes be light-hearted. His grandpa can sometimes be cheery.
Miss Johnson’s sitting room is not looked-after. Miss Johnson’s sitting room is messy.
Sarah has deep-seated hatred of her neighbours. Sarah hates her neighbours like sin.
Jack looks like a foul man. Jack appears to be wicked-looking.
Tom has always been a double-dealer. Tom has always been a trickster.
Jack is one of my closest kinsmen. Jack is one of my closest rellies.
The new plan is not cut-and-dry by any means. The new plan is as clear as mud.
Mary is an ivory-faced brunette. Mary is a brunette who has a pale face.

Of course, the students are assigned some time to work on their own within a group and to consult a dictionary of synonyms, a dictionary of informal/colloquial expressions and, most importantly, an online version of Samuel Johnson’s 1775 dictionary. It is supposed to help them complete the task more successfully and to encourage cooperation within a group. Meanwhile, the teacher attends to both groups and acts encouragingly and supportively. They are not rushed into making up a sentence but are strongly advised to think everything over, to consult one another within their own group and to check/double-check the meaning of a word in the dictionaries before providing the class with an answer. An interesting segment of this activity is the way the two groups communicate: whereas the first group of students pronounces their more literary words (compounds) with elegance and seriousness in tone, the second group of students pronounces their rather non-literary equivalents in a casual, relaxed fashion.

In practice, the activity has sincerely been both challenging and thought-provoking for the students. Doing this classroom activity with the third-year students, I have been fascinated to see their curiosity to grapple with the new words, the compounds, in the

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2 It is important for the students to consult Samuel Johnson’s dictionary of 1755 as it must have been the dictionary Stevenson and his contemporaries relied upon while writing their novels.
sense of working out their meaning and usage. The group work has been especially productive and to the point. Using the chart, the first group has been truly engaged in using the compounds from Stevenson’s novel and in making up the sentences in literary English. On the other hand, the second group’s task has proved a little more demanding because they have had to provide the non-literary equivalents for the given compounds: not having a chart like the former group, they have had to rely on various dictionaries, make maximum use of group work and provide the most approximate non-literary synonymous word/phrase under the teacher’s supervision. Of special interest has been the way the two groups have pronounced the literary words and their rather non-literary equivalents respectively; the slightly amusing part of the activity itself is that at times the students of the first group seem to have had a kind of superior detachment in relation to the students from the second group in terms of the formality and seriousness of speech.

It is important that the teacher and the students discuss the easiness and/or difficulty of the activity once it has been done. The teacher should point towards the importance of language acquisition from reading a novel and to the beauty of using lexically diverse language. The teacher should help her/his students see beauty, colourfulness and elegance embedded in the complexity of literary expression/self-expressions. Such elegance of speech is a sign of a well-educated person and, most importantly, it primarily stems from reading, reading and reading literary works thoughtfully, lovingly and understandingly.

5. Conclusion

It is through the compound-related and compound-based activities from Stevenson’s The Strange Case of Dr Jekyll and Mr Hyde that the paper has illustrated the goals of my literature-based approach in language teaching: to point to the applicability and feasibility of a literature-based approach in vocabulary acquisition, to offer a practical example of the acquisition of compounds, and to reinforce the perception of language as beautiful in its complexity, formality and variety. Also, the activities have been successful in helping the advanced third-year students “describe things in close detail by bringing words together” (Saunders 2012: 56) through compounding. Importantly, the acquisition and subsequent usage of compounds from Stevenson’s novel has given the students a good example of the kind of language/communication which should be encouraged and promoted: the diverse lexis of the literary works like Stevenson’s must not be forgotten, neglected or left
behind. On the contrary, it should be increasingly revived and popularized by English teachers. One way of achieving this much-needed goal is the continuous promotion of a literature-based approach in the process of teaching vocabulary.

Undoubtedly, reading literary works in English is a proven way to improve oneself not only in the linguistic but also in the cultural and social terms. Using the literature-based approach in teaching lexis – the compounds from Stevenson’s The Strange Case of Dr Jekyll and Mr Hyde – I have hopefully pointed towards a way of raising students’ awareness of the importance of reading literary works and uncovering the hidden chest of lexical richness. And, importantly, this so-called hidden chest of lexical treasure opens itself up most easily to a perceptive eye, an understanding heart and an insightful mind.

On the whole, the students’ lexical development has been encouraged and their lexical competence has been enhanced through a literature-based approach: they have managed to learn the compounds from The Strange Case of Dr Jekyll and Mr Hyde and to use them understandingly. Once the teacher has created an engaging, thought-provoking learning ambience, a heightened awareness of the variety of word combinations, in this case compounds from Stevenson’s novel, has been achieved. What is more, the vocabulary-boosting activities have justified my initial argument: the importance and desirability of the “use of literature as a language learning tool” (Martino and Sabato 2014: 5). Significantly, using a literature-based approach in teaching compounds has proven that “language study and literary study are more closely integrated and harmonized than is commonly the case at the present time” (Brumfit & Carter 1986: 10). On top of it all, the paper has pointed out that studying literature “can have an important contribution to make to language study and learning and can help students to appreciate more fully the nature of literature as literature” (Brumfit & Carter 1986: 14).

Ultimately, the paper based on the use of the compounds from Stevenson’s novel will hopefully encourage English language teachers to use a literature-based approach in teaching vocabulary and improving her/his students’ lexical competence. In addition, if applied, this approach will certainly prove motivational and innovative in comparison to the old-fashioned, stereotyped methodology in teaching compounds. For example, it might be challenging for teachers to experiment with this literature-based model in teaching collocations, phrasal verbs and idioms. Importantly, in the long run, her/his students will benefit from
literature-focused language learning: “Becoming an engaged and motivated reader has social, emotional and cultural dimensions and involves the reader in seeing a purpose for reading” (Cremin et al. 2015: 54) and learning a language, too.
References


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Ethical considerations

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