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Contents

The U.S. Foreign Language Deficit, the Language Enterprise, and the Campaign for Foreign Languages

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Abstract—Americans are among the least likely in the world to speak another language, and this lack of foreign language skills has a negative impact on the economic and national security of the U.S. and on the careers of individuals. In the U.S. the need for foreign language skills in the workforce is predicted to increase, and many positions requiring foreign language skills cannot always be filled. The need for an increase in foreign language skills in the U.S. and across the Anglophone world has been clearly demonstrated by a series of reports. A strategic social marketing campaign is needed, and in order for the campaign to be effective, the Language Enterprise, defined as the partnership of academe, government, and private enterprise, must play an active role. The "Many Languages One World" Essay Contest and Global Youth Forum is a noteworthy example of a high-profile event made possible by a Language Enterprise collaborative partnership. Languages for Specific Purposes (LSP), especially Business Language Studies (BLS) represent an approach to foreign language education with the potential to transform both our classrooms and the future professional lives of our students.

Index Terms—foreign language deficit, language enterprise, "Many Languages One World," careers in language services, Languages for Specific Purposes (LSP), Business Language Studies (BLS), campaign for foreign languages, foreign language advocacy

I. INTRODUCTION

According to a Gallup Poll, McComb (2001) found that only one in four Americans speaks another language, yet according to Eurobarometer (2006), 56% of Europeans report that they are able to hold a conversation in another language.

According to the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL), only 18.5% of U.S. K-12 public school students study another language, and according to the Modern Language Association (MLA), only 8.6% of college and university students are enrolled in a course in a language other than English. In Europe, study of one or more foreign languages is generally required, and students typically begin their foreign language study at an earlier grade and age than U.S. students.

Yet Bloomberg (2011) has published a list of the most useful languages in global business, and English, Mandarin Chinese, and French head the list, and a myriad of research reports, books, and articles confirm the importance of foreign language skills for our society and for the individual, while foreign language enrollments in the U.S. declined precipitously in the 1970s and 1980s and have never rebounded sufficiently to keep pace with globalization.

A. The "Many Languages One World" (MLOW) Essay Contest and Global Youth Forum -- A Partnership of Government, Business, and Academia

In October 2013, the United Nations Academic Impact (UNAI) announced an essay contest to promote multilingualism as part of global citizenship and the study of the official languages of the UN in partnership with ELS Language Services, a Berlitz company, and host Adelphi University. Of the more than 1,400 applicants, who each had to write an essay on the importance of multilingualism in global citizenship, 60 full-time university students, 10 for each of the 6 official languages of the UN, were brought to New York in June 2014 where they presented before the UN General Assembly. The author was honored to have served as the French language facilitator, interviewing the finalists in French via Skype, coaching the winners as they prepared their presentations on the Adelphi campus, and accompanying them to the UN.

It is interesting to note that the MLOW winners included both students preparing for careers as language specialists and students from across the disciplines who were proficient in other languages. 8 of the 60 winners were from the United States, 3 from the United Kingdom, 3 from Australia, and 1 from Canada. 15, or 25% of the winners, were from countries where English is an official language.

There were many, many inspirational notes to MLOW, but the camaraderie and ease of understanding among such a diverse group of students representing so many nations was certainly remarkable, and an encouraging sign for our collective global future.

B. The Partnership of Government, Business, and Education -- The Language Enterprise

The status of foreign language skills in the U.S. has been part of the public and scholarly conversation for decades, with little result. Books, articles, and research reports have chronicled the decline of foreign language skills and study in the U.S. but although foreign language enrollments have stabilized and even increased somewhat, foreign language study and skills have never rebounded to the extent needed to keep pace with globalization.

While foreign language educators have long advocated for foreign languages, and business and government reports have examined the need for foreign language skills, a collaborative campaign is needed in order to effect the needed paradigm shift, driven by the Language Enterprise, the partnership of business, government, and academia, which has been exemplified by "Many Languages One World."

II. Careers in Foreign Languages

Preparation for a career, or for a pathway to success in the workplace is a significant aspect of foreign language education, yet many U.S. students are unaware of the wide range of career opportunities both for careers as language specialists and in careers that are enhanced by foreign language and intercultural skills.

The language sector is also larger than many U.S. students, and many Americans generally, may realize, and reasons for this include a perception that English is the global lingua franca and the fact that most Americans do not live in close proximity to an area where another language is the official language. While students are relatively aware that opportunities exist for foreign language educators, many fewer are aware the number and variety of opportunities available in the language services industry.

Rivers (2013) placed the number of people engaged in the language enterprise at "300,000 in the educational sector, 200,000 in the private, more in government," and its economic importance at "$25b each year in the US economy."

Factors to keep in mind include the overall size of the language services industry, over $35 billion globally, and 15 billion in the U.S. alone, as well as the number of U.S. companies in the top 10 (5), and the number of U.S. companies in the top 100 (30). Opportunities for foreign language educators vary from state to state, as foreign language programs and graduation requirements vary.

For those students eligible for European nationality or for employment within the European Union, it is important that they realize that the EU is the largest language services market in the world.

A. Careers as Language Specialists

Careers as language specialists generally fall into two broad categories: translators and interpreters; and foreign language educators.

According to the Occupational Outlook Handbook, the median pay for interpreters and translators is well above the national average and that opportunities are projected to increase at a faster-than-average rate over the next 10 years. Careers in education also provide higher than average earnings, with the rate of growth for elementary school teachers projected to increase at the national average, while opportunities for high school teachers are projected to grow at a slower than average rate.

Selected data from the Occupational Outlook Handbook includes the following:

• Median Pay

Interpreters and Translators -- $45,430.

High School Teachers -- $55,050.

Kindergarten and Elementary School Teachers -- $53,090.

• Projected Rate of Growth 2012-2022

Interpreters and Translators -- 46% (much faster than average)

High School Teachers -- 6% (slower than average)

Kindergarten and Elementary School Teachers -- 12% (as fast as average)

B. Careers Enhanced by Foreign Languages

Many U.S. students do not realize that, in addition to careers in language services and in foreign language education, foreign language and intercultural skills can increase both employability and opportunities for advancement in many apparently non-language-related careers.

While intercultural competence and cross-cultural skills are widely used, the concept of cultural intelligence (CQ), as defined by Livermore (2011), brings a more career- or marketplace-oriented perspective to this skills set.

Careers enhanced by foreign languages fall into three broad categories: those which benefit from cultural intelligence (CQ); careers in international business; and other careers.

A wonderful example of advocacy research is Risner's (2012) video.

C. Cultural Intelligence (CQ)

According to Livermore (2011), Cultural Intelligence (CQ), which is the ability to operate effectively across cultures and includes a broad range of skills, includes an aspect he refers to as "CQ Knowledge," which is where knowledge of other languages is most directly involved.

Cultural Intelligence can be applied to both global and multicultural situations in virtually any profession or business.

D. Careers in International Business

Any discussion of careers, including those requiring, or enhanced by, foreign language skills will generally include career paths within multinational corporations (MNCs), the import-export industry, and U.S. firms doing business in multicultural communities within the U.S.

Highlighting the importance of languages in international business, Bloomberg (2011) organization published a table of the languages most useful for international business, and the top three languages were English, Mandarin Chinese, and French.

It is interesting to note that the September 2014 issue of the Harvard Business Review features a cover on "Adapt Your Strategy to Any Location," and includes an article entitled, "What's Your Language Strategy."

According to Neeley and Kaplen (2014), "language pervades every aspect of organizational life. It touches everything. Yet remarkably, leaders of global organizations, whose employees speak a multitude of languages, often pay too little attention to it in their approach to talent management. (p. 72)"

Companies doing business internationally or within U.S. communities where other languages are frequently spoken can provide foreign language instruction on-site during working hours, fund relevant foreign language instruction taken at nearby colleges and universities, and link foreign language skills to additional compensation or to opportunities for advancement.

Exports have been closely linked to the U.S. economic recovery, and foreign language skills among employees According to the U.S Department of Commerce (2010), "export-supported jobs rose from 7.6 million in 1993 to 10.3 million in 2008, an increase of 2.7 million jobs. This increase accounted for 40 percent of total job growth in the United States during this period."

E. Business Language Education

Foreign language is a marketable skill, especially in international business, and the question of foreign languages concerns both business education and companies themselves.

The Bloomberg (2011) organization determined that the most useful languages for international business are: English; Mandarin Chinese; and French.

Paradoxically, a review by the author of the websites of the top business schools according to USNews revealed that even the most highly-ranked Schools of Business Administration in the U.S., (Harvard, Stanford, UPenn/Wharton, ranked at #1, and Chicago/Booth, and MIT/Sloan rounding out the top 5) do not generally require a foreign language for their MBA students. While they have developed and support a wide range of global experiences for their student, instruction is generally conducted in English.

However, support for foreign language education specifically oriented toward business applications is provided by the Centers for International Education and Research (CIBERs), the Language Flagship, the Network of Business Language Educators (NOBLE), and the American Association of Teachers of French (AATF) Commission on French for Business and Economic Purposes.

The CIBERs were created by Congress in 1988, with the goal of promoting and increasing the global competitiveness of the U.S. There are over 30 CIBERs, which offer both education and assistance to business in developing their international potential. The CIBERs provide a model of excellence for education in international business for the nation's institutions of higher education.

The Language Flagship is a national initiative to develop foreign language skills in languages critical to national security, with programs at over 20 institutions of higher education to foster language skills in the ten languages determined to be critical to national security and to develop corresponding intercultural skills.

NOBLE provides information, support, and networking opportunities for foreign language educators interested in workplace applications of foreign language skills.

The AATF Commission on French for Business and Economic Purposes promotes the "expansion of business French at the secondary and post-secondary level, with the goal of creating a network of business French teachers.

F. Other Careers

Many careers within government, including local, state, and federal government, the military, law enforcement, judicial system, and the State Department offer careers opportunities that either require or prefer foreign language skills, or pay an extra stipend for foreign language skills.

Opportunities for medical interpreters exist and offer a real opportunity to save lives, and career opportunities for those with foreign language skills exits in the fine and performing arts, museums, publishing, exports, professional sports, and many other areas.

Whether you seek a career opportunity within the U.S. location of a foreign company, or whether you work in any industry seeking to do business, or to export products and services to another country, foreign language skills may be considered highly desirable, desirable enough in fact, to potentially give the employee with the relevant foreign language skills the advantage when other qualifications and experience are equal.

III. The Language Enterprise and the Campaign for Foreign Languages -- Advocacy Is the Answer

The proposed campaign for foreign languages would bring together government, business, and education in support of foreign languages. However, while a united campaign is important, an effective campaign would also need to be strategic, using the theories and techniques of marketing for the greater social good -- the opportunity for U.S. students to acquire foreign language skills. It would need to be a strategic social marketing campaign, and it would be framed in best of current theory -- social marketing by Kotler, disruptive innovation by Christensen, change management by Kotter, blue ocean strategy by Kim and Mauborgne, and competitive strategy by Porter. The campaign would also need to be informed by best practices from around the world.

Foreign Language Advocacy in the U.S.

The following are a few selected examples of advocacy (in alphabetical order).

Adelphi University -- Host institution for MLOW (Dr. Robert Scott, President).

The American Association of Teachers of French (AATF) advocates for French language, with Commissions on Advocacy ("Tennessee Bob," Dr. Robert Peckham, Founding Chair), Cultural Competence, French for Business and Economic Purposes, and a Commission for the Promotion of French. It sponsors National French Week, each year in November, as well as contests, and offers grants. This author was honored to have been selected to speak at the Congres annuel in New Orleans in July 2014 on The U.S. Foreign Language Deficit and What We As Foreign Language Educators Can Do about It.

The American Language Enterprise Advocacy (ALEA)

The American Language Enterprise Advocacy (ALEA), an alliance of the Globalization and Localization Association (GALA) and the National Council for Languages and International Studies (NCLIS), is an advocacy initiative launched in 2013.

The American Translators Association (ATA) -- is a professional association whose mission is to advance the translation and interpreting professions and the individual careers of its members. The ATA sponsors a school outreach program intended to promote awareness of the career opportunities available to students at all levels.

The Centers for International Business Education and Research (CIBERs) --The CIBER program was created by Congress to increase and promote international understanding and global competitiveness. There are over 30 CIBER programs on U.S. campuses which provide education to on-campus students and impart best practices to other institutions. The CIBERs were created by Congress in 1988 to foster intercultural competence and global competitiveness.

ELS Educational Services -- The corporate sponsor (Mark W. Harris, CEO) of MLOW and part of corporate foreign language pioneer, Berlitz, which is a corporate member of JNCL -NCLIS.

Foreign Language Immersion Programs in Louisiana, Utah and Delaware -- Louisiana's French Immersion schools, Utah's Dual Language Immersion program, and the Delaware World Language Immersion programs are among the best examples of the growth of foreign language immersion programs in the U.S. and of foreign language advocacy at the state level.

The Joint National Committee for Languages and the National Council for Languages and International Studies (JNCL-NCLIS) (Dr. William P. Rivers, Executive Director) represents professional organizations and the language services sector and advocates for language learning opportunities for all at the national level.

The Language Flagship is a national initiative to develop foreign language skills in languages critical to national security, with programs at over 20 institutions of higher education to foster language skills in the ten languages determined to be critical to national security and to develop corresponding intercultural skills. The Language Flagship has also most recently expanded to include K-12 initiatives and programs such as STARTALK and The National Security Language Initiative for Youth (NSLI-Y), sponsored by the Department of State.

The Modern Language Association (MLA) has maintained statistics on enrollment in languages other than English since 1960. In 2007, the MLA report, Foreign Languages and Higher Education: New Structures for a Changed World, advocated sweeping changes in foreign language education at the postsecondary level and advocated for a partnership with k-12 foreign language education.

The Network of Business Language Educators (NOBLE) provides information, support, and networking opportunities for foreign language educators interested in workplace applications of foreign language skills. This author was honored to present a webinar in October 2014 on How Foreign Languages Can Give You the Professional Edge. (Dr. Mary Risner, Founder and Director)

The United Nations Academic Impact (UNAI) -- UN sponsor of MLOW.

IV. A Brief Documentary History of the U.S. Foreign Language Deficit

According to the National Science Foundation (2009), of the 48,802 research doctorates awarded in the U.S. in 2008, only 627 were in the area of foreign language and literature, and between 1998 and 2008, the figure had fluctuated between 643 and 627.

The current public conversation of foreign languages in the U.S. began with the Presidential Commission report, Strength through Wisdom (1979), and shortly thereafter, Senator Paul Simon published The Tongue-Tied American (1980), opening the current conversation on foreign languages.

The events of 9/11 brought the lack of U.S. foreign language skills to the forefront of the public conversation. Many reports and initiatives on the importance of foreign language skills followed.

The Languages for All: The Anglophone Challenge (2013) initiative culminated in a conference in September 2013 and has served to launch a 5-year plan to promote and advocate for foreign languages in the United States. Although much has been written, and attempted, this plan is interesting in that it focuses on a specific 5-10 year plan with measurable goals and objectives and that it explicitly addresses the global Anglophone foreign language challenge.

The importance of foreign language skills in the United States has been confirmed by research reports, Senate hearings, and Government Accountability Office (GAO) reports.

Selected Documents

Senate Hearings
A National Security Crisis: Foreign Language Capabilities in the Federal Government (2012)
Closing the Language Gap: Improving the Federal Government's Foreign Language Capabilities (2010)
Government Accountability Office (GAO) Reports Defense Contracting: Actions Needed to Explore Additional Opportunities to Gain Efficiencies in Acquiring Foreign Language Support (2013)
Foreign Language Capabilities: Department of Homeland Security, Defense, and State Could Better Assess Their Foreign Language Needs and Capabilities and Address Shortfalls (2010)
Department of State: Comprehensive Plan Needed to Address Persistent Foreign Language Shortfalls (2009)
Research Reports
Forging a 21st-Century Diplomatic Service for the United States through Professional Education and Training (2011)
What Business Wants: Language Needs in the 21st Century (2009)
International Education and Foreign Languages: Keys to Securing America's Future (2007)
Foreign Languages and Higher Education: New Structures for a Changed World (2007)
Education for Global Leadership: The Importance of International Studies and Foreign Language Education for U.S. Economic and National Security (2006)
The Defense Language Transformation Roadmap (2005-)
Securing America's Future: Global Education for a Global Age (2002)

V. FOREIGN LANGUAGE ADVOCACY OUTSIDE THE U.S.

The European Union has embraced multilingualism as a core value and has promoted plurilingualism -- mother tongue plus two -- and the adoption of The Common European Framework of Reference for Foreign Languages (CEFR). Since 2001, the European Day of Languages, an initiative of the Council of Europe, has been observed on September 26th.

The United Kingdom has advocated strongly for languages. The current campaign for foreign language learning, a collaboration of the British Academy and the Guardian has included the publication of several major reports. Educational reform has included the expansion of foreign language to the elementary grades, a reform of the A-level exams, a re-examination of the GCSE requirements and curriculum, a new entry-level for the undergraduate foreign language major.

It is also important that the influence of British "soft power" on the role and importance of the English language as the global lingua franca be recognized. The key to British influence on foreign language education and achievement throughout the English-speaking world lies in the soft power wielded by Great Britain in the Anglophone nations and beyond.

We can -- and must -- not only learn from best practices, but join together with other English-speaking foreign language educators and communities around the world, who share -- to varying extents -- the foreign language deficit, to mount a unified campaign for foreign languages and to effectively address "the anglophone challenge."

The United Kingdom

The state of foreign language skills has been a recurring topic in the news in the UK for several years, and there have been efforts on all sides to effectively address the lack of foreign language skills among Britons and the worsening enrollment and achievement levels in foreign languages among British students.

The key to British influence on foreign language education and achievement throughout the English-speaking world lies in the soft power wielded by Great Britain in the Anglophone nations and beyond. Although the United Kingdom ranks #10 in the Global Competitiveness Index, London is generally considered the global financial center. According to QS Best Student Cities Index 2015 (2014), London is ranked #3 among cities for students, surpassed only by Paris and Melbourne, another Anglophone city. According to the QS World University Rankings 2014/15 (2014), 4 of the top 5 (with one tie) universities are in the UK.

According to the Monocle Soft Power Survey (2013), the United States (#3), United Kingdom (#2) , Australia (#7), and Canada (#9) all figure in the top 10.

A noteworthy example of the Language Enterprise partnership at work in the UK has been "the Case for language learning" series in the Guardian and the annual Language Festival, launched in 2013.

The elimination of the foreign language requirement for secondary school students in 2004 is widely considered a pivotal moment in foreign language education, with a significant decline in enrollments in the subsequent years.

The National Curriculum published in 2013 provides for foreign language instruction beginning in the elementary grades to become mandatory in September 2014, and in April 2014, it was announced that the GCSE foreign language requirements would be revised effective 2016.

According to the Association for Language Learning (ALL), the new languages A levels are effective as of September 2016. New GCSE (General Certificate of Secondary Education) content will be taught in schools from September 2016 for modern and ancient languages.

With foreign language enrollment rising and projected to increase significantly with the new requirements, challenges include the need for teaching training and a shortage of qualified foreign language teachers.

The important factor is that -- in the UK -- the reports and research have led to concerted action at the highest levels.

Recent British Reports include the following:

Manifesto for Languages (July 2014). All Party Parliamentary Group on Modern Languages.

Persuasion and Power in the Modern World - Select Committee on Soft Power and the UK's Influence (March 2014). House of Lords.

The Art of Attraction: Soft Power and the UK's Role in the World (March 2014). British Council.

Changing the Pace: CBI/Pearson education and skill survey 2013. Confederation of British Industry (annual).

Languages for the Future: Which languages the UK needs most and why (2013). British Council.

Lost for Words: The Need for Languages in UK Diplomacy and Security (2013). The British Academy.

National Curriculum (2013)

Languages: The State of the Nation (2013). British Council.

British Academy for the Humanities and Social Sciences. Language Programme (2011-) 5-year program.

Influence and Attraction: Culture and the Race for Soft Power in the 21st Century. (2010) British Council.

Higher ambitions: the future of universities in a knowledge economy (2009)

Language Trends Surveys (2002-). The National Centre for Languages (CILT)

VI. International Education and Foreign Language Skills for Anglophones

International education is a two-way street. International students come to Anglophone countries to seek English as a Second/Foreign Language education, as well as undergraduate and graduate degrees.

Many US students study abroad, in English rather than in the local language, and this author's doctoral research determined that undergraduate major programs in International/Global Studies typically recommended intermediate-level proficiency rather than advanced levels or fluency in one or more foreign languages.

Many US students study abroad, in English rather than in the local language, and this author's doctoral research determined that undergraduate major programs in International/Global Studies typically recommended intermediate-level proficiency rather than advanced levels or fluency in one or more foreign languages.

VII. Sustainable Motivation and Foreign Language Learning Outcomes

In order to get students into the foreign language classroom and to keep them there, motivation is essential. However, this is easier said than done when many consider English to be the global lingua franca, and when foreign language study begins later in the US than in many parts of the world, and with less time and intensity devoted to foreign language study.

Supposing that sequential programs exist and that students are enrolled, the question of sustainability of motivation arises due to the time and effort needed to achieve the long term goal of foreign language proficiency or fluency.

While workplace and career opportunities are often stated as the most powerful reasons for foreign language study, research has demonstrated that cultural affinity is the most powerful motivator and predictor of successful foreign language learning outcome. However, the challenge is to create and maintain motivation in a U.S society with a tradition of lack of interest in other languages and cultures, and to sustain motivation through the inevitable plateaus in language learning in a society focused on short-term results and satisfaction.

VIII. Future Needs -- The Campaign for Foreign Languages

The campaign for foreign languages needs to be strategic, incorporating the best theory and practice in foreign language teaching and learning around the world, as well as inspirational theory from the business literature -- change management from Kotter, strategic social marketing from Kotler, blue ocean strategy from Kim and Mauborgne, disruptive innovation from Christensen, and the competitive advantage from Porter.

In addition, the campaign for foreign languages needs to learn from best practices, as advocated by Pufahl and Rhodes, and the MLA in its 2007 report, Foreign Languages and Higher Education: New Structures for a Changed World. The campaign for foreign languages also need to embrace the Language Enterprise partnership, as stunningly exemplified by "Many Languages One World" (MLOW). In the UK, the Language Enterprise has been effective, as in "the case for language learning" and the British Academy's language programme.

The British Council and the Alliance Francaise are global examples of successful initiatives of this nature.

IX. Conclusions -- The Role and Importance of Advocacy Research

The way forward is clear. Learning from the scholarly literature and best practices is essential, but the key is a unified global campaign for foreign languages across the Anglophone world, inspired by both best practices and successes in the UK and the global literature on innovation, strategy, and social marketing.

It is also essential that foreign language advocacy become part of the scholarly conversation on foreign language.

There are encouraging signs, however. The ACTFL Year of Languages in 2005, the Council of Europe's European Day of Languages, celebrated on September 26th each year since 2001, and the UN International Year of Languages in 2008, the American Association of Teachers of French (AATF) National French Week in November each year, the ACTFL Discover Languages Month each February, and many more.

Most encouraging are the Language Enterprise campaign in the UK, including the British Academy's Language Programme, the "case for language learning," Language Festival, and the "Many Languages One World" (MLOW) Essay Contest and Global Youth Forum at the United Nations, whose purpose was to promote multilingualism and the study of the official languages of the UN.

X. Concluding Thought -- "Languages for All?"

"In recent years, much of the discussion regarding foreign language education has centered on its perceived benefits: a more robust economy, stronger national security, improved cognitive ability, and advantages in college admissions and the job market, just to name a few. Recent surveys show that 85 percent of American adults now believe that it is important for youth to learn a second language, yet 79 percent of Americans are still monolingual. It's time to shift the discussion from 'Why should we learn a second language?' to 'Why aren't we learning languages?'".

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The Good Language Learner Revisited: A Case Study

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Abstract—This study sought to explore, through a case study, the notion of the Good Language Learner in an attempt to identify the key prerequisites for effective second language learning. Data were gathered from an interview with a successful, polyglot second language learner with the aim of gaining an understanding of the approaches, strategies and activities he adopted and utilised as an effective language learner. Analysis of the interview data showed that the subject of the case study exhibited many of the characteristics of the hypothetical Good Language Learner identified from a review of relevant literature. The conclusion is that when learners accept responsibility for their language learning and actively engage in language learning activities, they have a much greater chance of success in second language acquisition.

Index Terms—second language acquisition, second language learning, second language learner, the Good Language Learner

I. INTRODUCTION

One of the major and continuing issues in language studies has been the need to develop a profound understanding of how languages are acquired and, in particular, how second language acquisition occurs. While many people have attempted to learn a language other than their mother tongue, there appear to be varying degrees of success in achieving a high level of proficiency in a second language. Investigations into successful second language learners have provided useful insights into possible prerequisites for effective language learning. Early work by Gardner and Lambert (1972), Rubin (1975) and Stern (1975) led the way for an expansion of literature on second language acquisition such as that by Skehan, (1989), O'Malley and Chamot (1990), and Oxford (1990), and the considerable body of work by Ellis (1985; 1992; 1997; 2008). More recently, the literature has been expanded further (Cohen & Macaro, 2007; Griffiths, 2008; Eckman *et.al.*, 2010; Hinkel, 2011; Mitchell *et.al.*, 2013; Ortega, 2013) to provide even greater insight into second language acquisition and notions of the Good Language Learner.

The purpose of this paper is to ascertain the major characteristics of the Good Language Learner by (1) reviewing some literature related to learner variables; (2) providing a case study of an effective language learner; and (3) comparing the information acquired from the case study with a hypothetical Good Language Learner. Firstly, key factors determining language learning performance will be discussed with reference to relevant literature. Secondly, a model of a Good Language Learner will be drawn from that discussion. Thirdly, a case study of a language learner will be presented. Fourthly, a comparative analysis will be made between the model of a Good Language Learner and the subject of the case study. Finally, conclusions about the Good Language Learner will be drawn.

II. KEY FACTORS DETERMINING LANGUAGE LEARNING PERFORMANCE

Although the term 'individual differences' is often used in the literature (Skehan, 1989; Dornyei, 2009), it appears that most of the research on second language acquisition is focused on similarities between individual learners in the hope that these similarities can be analysed and codified into a scheme of learner training. However, the search for a good second language learning style, like that of other learner factors, is problematic. There appears to be little agreement about what it consists of and, consequently, no agreement about how it should be identified and measured. The purpose in understanding what makes a Good Language Learner is, ultimately, to identify personality traits and strategy use that can be conveyed to, and developed in, language learners through learner training programmes.

Several decades of scholarship on second language acquisition has established that setting, aptitude, motivation, personality and effective use of strategies are all factors determining the degree of language learning success. This body of knowledge has provided a set of criteria which can be matched to the Good Language Learner. To understand how these criteria were derived, it is necessary to briefly review the key findings of research into second language learning and second language learners.

Setting

The learner's attitudes and motivations might be influenced by the social, political and linguistic context of the classroom (Naiman *et. al.*, 1995) and of the wider society. In particular, the classroom, and what goes on in it, might represent a different environment for the efficient (good) and the inefficient (poor) language learner. This is because each learner differs in the way he or she adapts to the de-contextualised learning situation (Skehan, 1989). Initially, the

Good Language Learner will conform to the demands of the classroom setting, but will later find ways of adapting or personalising it as he or she becomes more aware of suitable styles of language learning (Griffiths, 2008; Cook, 2013) and will develop his or her own learning style (Nel, 2008). This process occurs as the Good Language Learner analyses the language demands of the classroom, determines what language skills are required, and devises ways of acquiring the appropriate levels of skills needed to function successfully in that classroom (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990).

Furthermore, the second language learner who not only learns in the formal setting of a classroom, but also in informal, non-classroom settings might devise his or her own rules on how the target language functions (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). Inside the classroom, the learner is usually taught the forms of the language. Outside the classroom, the learner communicates with others in a natural setting in which the language is learnt through functional use (Naiman *et.al.*, 1996). In this case, unlike in the classroom, there is less opportunity for preliminary organisation; therefore, the learner must be adept at imposing structure on linguistic input and output (Skehan, 1989). Hence, the Good Language Learner is one who attempts to use and build upon classroom language in external and informal settings.

Aptitude

Gardner and MacIntyre (1992) conclude that research "makes it clear that in the long run language aptitude is probably the single best predictor of achievement in a second language" (p.215). The two most commonly used aptitude tests, the Modern Language Aptitude Test (MLAT) and the Pimsleur Language Aptitude Battery, (Dornyei, 2010) measure language learner characteristics such as, phonemic coding ability, grammar analysis ability, and memorisation ability. It is believed that possession of these abilities is essential for efficient and successful language learning (Lightbrown & Spada, 2006).

Aptitude and intelligence are inter-related, with language aptitude consisting of aspects of intelligence which are essential to language learning. In classrooms where communicative teaching takes precedence, research shows that learners with a wide variety of intellectual abilities become successful language learners (Lightbrown & Spada, 2006). Indeed, Skehan (1989) argues that "aptitude is consistently the most successful predictor of language learning success" (p.38).

Motivation

Motivation in second language learning can broadly be defined in terms of three factors: (1) instrumental motivation, the communicative needs of the learner; (2) integrative motivation, the attitude the learner has towards the people and culture of the target language; and (3) intrinsic motivation, the interest the learner has in the learning process and the degree of success achieved.

Instrumental motivation is related to the purpose of language learning. The second language might be studied to pass an examination or to get a certain kind of job (Cook, 2013). In many second language learning contexts, for example EFL in mainstream schools, instrumental motivation would appear to be the major factor determining success. In such settings, learners are motivated by the need to achieve specific personal or educational goals rather than the desire to learn and use a second language. Moreover, when the learner's only reason for learning the second language is external pressure, attitude towards language learning might be negative (Lightbrown & Spada, 2006) and instrumental motivation minimal.

In contrast, integrative motivation is related to the degree to which the learner identifies with the people and culture associated with the second language being learnt. The learner who identifies positively with native speakers of the target language, who uses the second language in a wide range of situations, or who seeks to realise professional ambitions, will recognise the communicative value of the second language and will be motivated to become proficient in it (Lightbrown & Spada, 2006). Therefore, when integrative motivation is high, the learner will seek situations to obtain further practice (Garnder, 1985). Gardner and Lambert (1972) conclude that:

'...an integrative and friendly outlook toward the other group whose language is being learned can differentially sensitise the learner to audio-lingual features of the language, making him more perceptive to forms of pronunciation and accent than is the case for a learner without this open and friendly disposition' (p.134).

Further, Schumann (1978) argues that when a learner fails to *acculturate* to the target language group due to an inability or unwillingness to adapt to another culture, pidginisation will occur. The degree of acculturation depends on the extent to which the learner achieves contact with native speakers and the culture of the target language.

Intrinsic motivation is related to "the arousal and maintenance of curiosity and can ebb and flow" (Ellis, 1997, p.76). Factors such as the particular interests of the learner and the extent to which he or she feels involved in the learning process affect levels of intrinsic motivation. In this case, the primary source of motivation is inherent interest in learning, and the degree of pleasure and satisfaction obtained from the learning situation. However, research suggests a circular cause and effect relationships (Lightbrown & Spada, 2006) between intrinsic motivation and success in second language learning. It is argued that the learner who enjoys learning and improves language skills experiences reward and is encouraged to try harder. Conversely, the learner who does not enjoy learning and who shows little or no improvement is discouraged by the lack of success. Therefore, "motivation would be a consequence rather than a cause of success" (Skehan, 1987, p.49).

Undoubtedly, motivation is a major factor in determining second language learning success. Nevertheless, it appears that many researchers view motivation as a static, unchanging phenomenon. On the contrary, motivation could change form one day to the next, affected by a wide range of factors including the mood of the learner, the teacher, the learning

materials,, the learning environment, and even the time of year (Ellis, 1997). However, research has illustrated that a lack of any type of motivation, whether instrumental, integrative or intrinsic, results in failure to learn a second language.

Personality: Introversion and Extroversion

Many language teachers are convinced that the personality of a learner is a major factor in determining the level of success in second language learning (Ellis, 2008). Indeed, many teachers believe that extroverts will be the most successful second language learners since they interact without inhibition in the second language and find many opportunities to practise their language skills (Lightbrown & Spada, 2006). This belief is supported by research (Naiman *et.al.*, 1995) which suggests that learners with sociable personalities are more inclined to talk, more likely to volunteer and to engage in practice activities in the classroom, and more likely to use the target language for communication outside the classroom (Skehan, 1989). Thus, it is argued, that by having the appropriate personality for second language learning, extroverts benefit both inside and outside the classroom because successful second language learning is best achieved by actual language use.

Use of Strategies

In the literature on second language learning, there is little consensus on the definition and classification of strategies, and there is some confusion over the distinction between general learning strategies and language learning strategies. Furthermore, there is little agreement on exactly what strategies are, how many strategies exist, and whether it is possible to create a scientifically validated hierarchy of strategies (Oxford, 1990). Nevertheless, it is important to understand what, in general, researchers have referred to when attempting to identify and discuss second language learning strategies.

Rubin (1975) defines strategies as "the techniques or devices which a learner may use to acquire knowledge" (p.43). This idea has been taken further by Oxford (1990) in her definition of learning strategies as "operations employed by the learner to aid the acquisition, storage, retrieval, and use of information" (p.8). She expands on this definition by stating that language learning strategies are specific actions taken by the learner to make learning the target language easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed and more effective, with the ultimate aim of making the language learnt transferable to a variety of situations (Oxford, 1990). However, learning strategies might refer to a general ability to take the initiative: or simply, an enthusiasm for learning (Willing, 1989). More recently, Cohen (2011) defines language learner strategies as thoughts and actions learners select to help them "learn and use language in general, and in the completion of specific language tasks" (p.682).

Second language learning involves active and dynamic mental processes that can be broadly grouped into three categories: metacognitive strategies, cognitive strategies, and social/affective strategies (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). Metacognitive and cognitive strategies treat language learning like any other kind of learning. Such strategies might benefit academically-inclined learners who view language as a subject to be learnt, but might be less helpful to learners who want to use the language for communicative purposes (Cook, 2013).

Cognitive strategies are essential in learning a new language. Such strategies include repetition, analysis and summary. However, the common function of cognitive strategies is the manipulation of the target language by the learner (Oxford, 1990). Understanding a second language is akin to a problem-solving task with knowledge of vocabulary and grammar, and knowledge of the topic being brought together to construct meaning (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). This capacity to make hypotheses about a language and be able to reconstruct language knowledge is an essential skill for effective language learners (Skehan, 1989). Therefore, the level of the learner's second language comprehension is commensurate with his or her interpretative capacities. The Good Language Learner is able to perceive recurring patterns in language learning problems and to use those patterns to solve language learning problems (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990).

The second language learner also utilises compensation strategies to use the target language despite limitations in his or her knowledge. In particular, he or she makes up for an inadequate range of grammar and vocabulary by using such strategies as guessing meaning and usage, asking questions, using synonyms, recombining and using common routines to help to develop discourse competence and strategic competence (Oxford, 1990) through real-world communicative interaction.

Language learning and language use depend greatly on memory, which itself relies on structured and idiomatic language. It has been suggested that the way in which information is stored in the memory is inextricably linked to language structure and meaning (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). Language is treated in memory just like other information and it is best learnt and retrieved by creating links with related meaning-based concepts, propositions, or schemata. This view implies that successful second language learning depends on the acquisition of, and control over, an increasingly larger range of language components, requiring a huge and complex retrieval system (Skehan, 1989). Although language learners seldom report using these memory strategies, they might simply be unaware of how frequently they do employ memory strategies (Oxford, 1990). This lack of awareness might be because the Good Language Learner proceduralises language skills through practice so that they become automatic and, thus, ease the burden on short-term memory (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990).

Risk Taking

Risk taking is a major strategy that has been associated with effective second language learning. Rubin (1975) and Naiman *et.al.* (1995) identified a willingness to take risks as a characteristic of the Good Language Learner. It is believed the successful learner is able to judge the level of risk involved when using and testing hypotheses about the second language. By identifying medium-risk tasks with a considerable guarantee of success, the learner engages in cumulative learning: that is, learning from past risk taking experiences. Conversely, the unsuccessful second language learner lacks judgment in the level of risk and fails when the risk is too high or makes no progress when the risk is too low because the task is easily achievable. Thus, the medium-risk taker, who achieves success, is more likely to use risk taking as a method for developing understanding and improving use of the target language. Risk taking in communicative contexts allows the learner the opportunity not only for output through speaking and producing written language, but also to obtain input by listening to the target language (Skehan ,1989).

However, risk taking, as all of the strategies outlined above, might depend less on a learner's ability in the second language and more on the personality of the learner: for it is the learner's personality and cognitive style which result in a preference to learn in particular ways (Ellis, 1992). The arrangement and associations made of language factors must be meaningful to the learner, and the learning material must have personal significance (Oxford, 1990). The goal in language learning is to achieve a level of fluency at which learning strategies become automatic to the extent that the learner is no longer conscious that he or she is using them in communicative contexts. Therefore, the ways in which learners choose to utilise, combine, order or reject particular strategies is heavily dependent on the needs and preferences of the individual second language learner.

It is only by taking all of these factors into account together and comprehending their interaction, rather than as individual components, can an understanding of the Good Language Learner be reached. With this goal in mind, this paper will now turn to the identification of the Good Language Learner by highlighting the key characteristics which have been drawn from the preceding discussion.

III. THE HYPOTHETICAL GOOD LANGUAGE LEARNER

As with any model, the hypothetical Good Language Learner presented here cannot fully represent a real second language learner because it necessarily cannot account for all the individual differences (Dornyei, 2009) and wide range of variables that affect each learner. Nevertheless, it serves as a point of orientation from which to view and assess the skills, the performance and the degree of success of the second language learner. The major characteristics of the hypothetical Good Language Learner are identified below.

1. The Good Language Learner possesses a strong reason for learning the second language. His or Her level of motivation, although open to fluctuation, remains sufficiently high to ensure continued second language development.

2. The Good Language Learner is actively involved in language learning. He or she responds positively to, and utilises learning opportunities, engages in a variety of practice activities, intensifies his or her efforts when necessary, and deals constructively with language learning problems. He or she responds to the learning situation in order to overcome negative anxiety and inhibitions about using the second language.

3. The Good Language Learner develops an understanding of language as a system and utilises it to analyse the target language, make effective cross-lingual comparisons and develop suitable learning techniques at different stages of language learning. He or she experiments with the second language and is prepared to take risks in order to achieve a reasonable level of communication.

4. The Good Language Learner develops an understanding of language as communication and utilises it in situations in which he or she can interact with others in the second language.

5. The Good Language Learner constantly revises his or her understanding and use of the second language. This revision is done by monitoring and testing the language already learnt and by making further adjustments as new material is learnt. He or she has effective analytical skills to perceive, categorise and store the features of the target language and also to monitor errors.

Having identified and described the key characteristics of the Good Language Learner, it follows that the hypothesis should be tested. Therefore, the focus of this paper must turn to a more specific presentation and discussion of a particular language learner who has been selected as a suitable subject for study on the basis of his ability as an effective and successful second language learner.

IV. A CASE STUDY OF A SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNER

The subject of this case study, who shall be referred to as 'Adam' throughout this paper, was asked a series of questions in a face-to-face interview to ascertain the extent to which he matched the characteristics of the hypothetical Good Language Learner presented above. Adam is a forty-one year old Malay Singaporean who was born and raised in Singapore, where he has lived his whole life.

Adam progressed "easily" through primary and secondary education. His attitude to school was always positive. He was interested in learning new things and attained excellent grades in all academic subjects. Studying was something he enjoyed, particularly reading and mathematics. However, in his youth he was unable to complete his tertiary education because financial problems within his family forced him to withdraw from a polytechnic engineering course in Year

Two. Upon leaving polytechnic, Adam fulfilled his National Service duty in the army and rose to the rank of sergeant within three years. Later, he spent a year working in a factory, followed by a year as a customer relations officer with a large retail chain. For the past 15 years, Adam has been a flight attendant with a major airline, and has received several awards for his performance on training courses. While working, Adam returned to academic studies as a part-time student, which culminated in him receiving a master's degree in 2008.

Adam's very early years were spent in a Malay-speaking neighbourhood, although at home both Malay and English were used. He reports that his early words were Malay, which he considers to be his mother tongue. However, English was the first language in which he received formal instruction, starting at age five. His family placed emphasis on English as it is the medium of instruction in the state education system in Singapore. In spite of studying English formally for fourteen years, Adam does not consider that he has finished learning the language, citing "more room for improvement in reading and understanding" as reasons for the continued, conscious development of his English language skills.

As a primary school pupil, Adam began learning the Chinese dialects Mandarin and Hokkien because he wanted to understand what other students in his class and people in his new neighbourhood were saying. Later, he took formal instruction in Bahasa Indonesia because it was closely related to his mother tongue and gave him a closer link with his ancestral roots. Adam took up the study of German language at the age of twenty-six because he felt he needed a new language and saw that his employers were expanding their business in Europe. Although Adam took a considerable loss of income to take a two-month, full-time, intensive German course in Singapore, he felt that the long-term financial and career benefits justified the immediate sacrifice. In 2002, he studied German in Berlin for two months, completing three courses of study that usually take six months to complete. In 2006, Adam spent another two-month period in Germany to take more German courses to prepare for German language examinations, which he passed with high marks. For the past several years, Adam has been part of a voluntary tutoring and mentoring scheme for German-language learners in Singapore. In addition, Adam has also studied French and Italian, which are also useful in his career. However, he states his focus is on the languages he needs to use most: English, Malay, Indonesian, German and Mandarin; but he practises his French and Italian whenever his has the opportunity to be in contact with users of these languages.

Adam provided evidence of his level of attainment and proficiency in his second languages by presenting his certificates for the language examinations he has taken over the years. When asked to rate his level current level of proficiency in his second languages, Adam responded that he had reached an advanced stage in all four skills in English and Bahasa Indonesia. He reported that his Mandarin and Hokkien were at an upper intermediate level for speaking and listening, while he was an intermediate reader and writer of Chinese characters. He rated his current level of German as upper intermediate in reading, writing and listening, but advanced in speaking. His current level of French and Italian proficiency he rated at intermediate for all four skills. When asked if he was fully satisfied with his proficiency in each of his second languages, Adam replied in the negative, with the exception of Bahasa Indonesia, stating that he wanted to improve his listening, reading and writing in his other languages.

Adam believes that "the textbook is more important that the teacher" because it offers "standard content". Teachers, on the other hand, vary in their methods and often "complicate things with explanations that don't match those in the book". He suggests that with a good textbook, a learner can follow a consistent format, which allows review as necessary, without resorting to a teacher for clarification. Adam reports that his language learning does not stop at the end of a lesson, but that the lesson is merely a starting point from which he begins his study of the aspect of the language that has been introduced.

Adam used English as a reference point from which to learn Mandarin, Hokkien, German, French and Italian, while he kept Malay and Bahasa Indonesia "separate". He felt that he "related other languages to English more easily than to Malay", in particular with regard to understanding grammar. For improving listening skills and learning the phonology of a language, Adam preferred to listen to and imitate native speakers. For grammar consolidation and vocabulary development, he designed his own charts and word-picture cue cards. These strategies enabled him to categorise and memorise structure and vocabulary and to practise them in real situations "in my own way in order to learn faster". Reading and writing strategies included reading children's books and writing short, simple essays in the target language. Speaking involved "practising with anyone who would talk with me".

In the early stages of learning a new language, Adam preferred to learn some vocabulary items, such as greetings and numbers, followed by simple grammar. When asked to explain his preference, Adam declared, "It's the right sequence. No point in learning grammar if you don't have any words to put together to make sense." In the intermediate stages, Adam believes that more grammar should be learnt because "once you have the basics, it's just natural to build more structure to what you want to say", and to consolidate the learner's understanding of the language structure. A wide range of reading materials, including literature, is preferred by Adam at the advanced stages of learning a second language in order to "develop a wider vocabulary and a deeper understanding of the whole language".

Anxiety about language learning was something Adam felt only at the initial stages of learning. This anxiety was primarily due to a fear of failure. However, such fears were overcome by "jumping in and just trying it", coupled with the determination to "do it right".

When asked if he thought it was important for a learner to have a positive attitude towards the people and culture of the target language, Adam responded in the affirmative, stating that such a attitude "helps you understand the language

better, helps you to grasp the concept of the language". However, when asked about his attitude to the people and cultures of his second languages, he responded by saying that "culture just doesn't interest me particularly. I'm just interested in learning the language, and knowing something about the culture comes with that".

Adam believed that having a "good ear" was important for language learning because "if people can't make out the sound properly, they can't say it correctly". The key to developing a "good ear", he said, was to pay attention to how native speakers sound and to make an effort to reproduce those sounds when speaking. Effort should also be made to reflect not only the sounds but also the structure of what was heard or read. Adam stated that reflection helped him to understand the language better and to realise what he was doing wrong.

Adam found that he became increasingly confident in his language learning as his skills develop. He felt it was essential for him to take control of his learning as soon as possible and believed that "once you reach the intermediate or advanced stages, you don't need any more formal guidance". He attributed his language learning success to his openness to criticism and positive attitude, and because he is "willing to explore and try new things with language". Furthermore, he believed that a combination of immersion, a course of study and close contact with native speakers are factors that have enabled him not only to learn, but also to retain and use his second languages. However, ultimately, Adam concluded that "the best way of learning is to absorb as much as you can in a short period of time, then you won't experience a lack of interest".

Adam would welcome the opportunity to learn another second language and would be willing to try whatever language he might be required to learn for his work. However, given a choice, he would choose to learn Spanish next because he sees good career prospects in his profession for someone who could communicate effectively in such a widely spoken language. His preference for learning would be a combination of immersion and intensive study in a Spanish-speaking country, followed by a long-term course and self-study once the basics have been learnt.

V. A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF THE HYPOTHETICAL GOOD LANGUAGE LEARNER AND THE CASE STUDY SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNER

Attention must now turn to a discussion of the extent to which Adam matches the description of the hypothetical Good Language Learner as defined in this paper. The discussion will follow the order in which the characteristics of the hypothetical Good Language Learner were set out above.

1. *The Good Language Learner possesses a strong reason for learning the second language*. For each of his second languages, Adam has strong instrumental motivation to learn. His reasons for learning Mandarin and Hokkien were that he felt uncomfortable not knowing what others were saying. Adam saw English as a way of progressing within the education system, viewing fluency in English as a tool for academic, social and professional success. Similarly, proficiency in German, and later in French and Italian, was considered by Adam to be a further avenue to professional advancement and economic security. However, he felt no particular affinity with the people and culture associated with any of his second languages. Indeed, he expressed rather negative opinions towards some of them. He considered language learning to be a necessity of life and approached it as "another thing that has to be learnt". Adam was also driven by intrinsic motivation to succeed in meeting the learning challenge and to attain the status and recognition associated with being top of the class. The desire to succeed was itself sufficient motivation, accounting for Adam's drive and ability to learn a variety of languages. While Adam's integrative motivation was minimal, the fact that he possessed strong instrumental and intrinsic motivation indicates clearly that he did have strong reasons for learning his second languages.

2. *The Good Language Learner is actively involved in language learning*. Adam responds positively to learning experiences and fully utilises opportunities for language learning and practice. He subscribes to cable television channels which broadcast in each of his second languages and attempts to watch a variety of programmes on TV and via the Internet on a regular basis. His reading habits follow a similar pattern. Adam also uses short-text messages (SMS) to communicate with friends and colleagues who are native users of his second languages. He finds the informality of the written SMS form to be ideal for immediate communication. However, he noted that when he sends an SMS in German, French or Italian, he is "more conscious of getting the grammar right" than when using this medium in English or Bahasa Indonesia. This habit indicates that Adam deals constructively with his language learning problems by making an effort to produce correct output, particularly in the languages that he has more recently acquired. Furthermore, Adam puts a great amount of effort into ensuring himself success in formal examinations of his second languages. In this regard, he treats language learning not simply as skill, but rather as an academic exercise.

3. *The Good Language Learner develops an understanding of language as a system*. Adam makes effective cross-lingual comparisons by using English as a base from which to comprehend the structure of other languages. To do this, he visualises the grammar by reviewing self-made cue cards. He reported that he was better able to construct grammatically correct output when visualising the images presented on the cards. He also utilised cards to memorise new vocabulary, often including target items in a phrase or sentence: thus, providing meaningful context, which he would later be able to recall to produce in an appropriate situation. Adam believed that the development of these learning strategies helped him to focus on "the right things to learn" for his needs as a user of the target language.

4. *The Good Language Learner develops an understanding of language as communication*. Adam has had ample opportunity to use his second languages both socially and professionally. He has been able to use Mandarin and

Hokkien on a daily basis for much of his life because he lives in a multilingual and multicultural society in Singapore. However, constant exposure to other languages does not necessarily lead to second language acquisition. Nevertheless, Adam's effort to interact with Mandarin and Hokkien speakers has enabled him to reach his current level of proficiency. Similarly, the use of English as the *lingua franca* in Singapore has provided Adam with an abundance of opportunities for a wide range of both input and output in English in academic, social and professional contexts. Being a flight attendant has given Adam the exposure to international varieties of Mandarin (China, Taiwan and Singapore), English (Britain, North America, Australasia, South Africa, the Indian sub-continent, Singapore and Malaysia), German (Germany, Austria and Switzerland). This wealth of linguistic experience has enabled Adam not only to use his second languages in real, meaningful communicative interaction, but also to take note of, and allow for, phonological variations within those languages. In addition, Adam's professional need to communicate with passengers, ancillary personnel and hotel staff in international contexts has motivated him to develop a linguistic repertoire with which to project his identity, regardless of the context in which he might find himself.

5. *The Good Language Learner constantly revises his or her understanding and use of the second language*. Adam has a positive attitude to learning and reported that he rarely viewed correction of his output by others as criticism of his performance. Having a willingness to change and adapt to new aspects of a second language was, he believed, the key to his ability to learn languages. Although he felt that a "trial and error" approach was not very productive, he did make attempts to test certain hypotheses about language when he felt confidence in his convictions. When he had serious problems in understanding, particularly with new grammar, he preferred to study "what it said in the book" and analyse the description or prescription more closely. This approach involved doing writing activities in which he tested his understanding and checked it against the structures presented in the textbook. Thus, while Adam was not averse to making errors in the attempt to use the target language, he did monitor closely the types of error he allowed himself to make. He regarded mispronunciation and inadequate vocabulary as less serious problems than grammatical errors. He had no particular objection to being corrected on his phonological and lexical skills: indeed, he welcomed such advice; but he felt a sense of embarrassment when he had not used a particular structure correctly. The reason Adam gave for this embarrassment was that he felt speech and vocabulary were a matter of practice, whereas comprehension of grammar was an intellectual matter.

The analysis presented above has shown that Adam is actively involved in developing his second language skills and has devised a combination of strategies, which have allowed him the independence necessary for good language learning. His repertoire of strategies and systematic approach to language learning problems enabled him to overcome initial anxiety and to become more aware of himself as a learner of the languages being learnt; thus, motivating himself to advance still further in his pursuit of second language learning success.

VI. Conclusion

The characteristics of any language learner will vary, among other things, according to language learning objectives, educational and cultural background, personality and previous language learning experience (Willing, 1989). Indeed, since each learner is unique, Naiman *et. al*. (1995) concludes "the successful or good language learner, with predetermined overall characteristics does not exist" (p.224). Nevertheless, based on the evidence provided both by the literature discussed and the case study presented in this paper, several key characteristics of the Good Language Learner have emerged. For effective second language learning, it appears that the learner needs to (1) possess a positive attitude towards learning and practising; (2) deal positively with the demands of learning a second language; (3) understand the language as a system; (4) monitor his or her own language development; and (5) use the language communicatively whenever possible. To this extent, it would appear that the case study shows that Adam is a Good Language Learner, in that he meets many of the requirements and exhibits many of the habits necessary for good language learning. However, it could be argued that Adam is an exceptional language learner in that he is highly motivated and has had ample opportunity to practise his second languages through interaction with native users of those languages. While it is true that some learners might be highly motivated, not all are in a position to interact with native users of their target languages. Adam, then, takes full advantage of the opportunities he has to use his second languages and is motivated to gain maximum language learning benefit from those opportunities because he is a motivated language learner. Clearly, Adam is the master and director of his own language learning because he recognises the responsibility he must take for his own performance and progress in learning a second language. It is this responsibility that is essential for the Good Language Learner.

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Multimedia as a Means of Integrating Professional and Linguistic Activity of Non-linguistic College Students

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Abstract—**The paper aims at trying to justify the idea of integrating linguistic and professional training in non-linguistic colleges by means of multimedia. The data are taken from the experiment conducted within the framework of the project by a team of teachers from Kazakhstan. It particularly describes the multimedia complex «English for IT-specialists», designed for the development of professional trilingual competence in students of non-linguistic colleges. The achievement of the article will be a better understanding of the ways of using multimedia in training specialists in various fields creating integrated linguistic-professional environment.**

Index Terms—**multimedia, professional English, IT-specialists, modular technology, level training**

I. INTRODUCTION

The changes taking place in modern society in all spheres of life, including professional foreign language education, confront teachers of specialized secondary and higher educational institutions with the task of training specialists of new formation, whose competence will provide their demand on the labor market.

The specialist of new formation is a competitive specialist with not only professional, but also specific language (linguistic) competences.

Thus, there is a need for integration of professional and language activities of future specialists in learning professional English.

The specificity of discipline "Foreign Language" is in its "irrelevance", which allows to fill the learning process with the content of the special field to which learning a foreign language is directed. In other words, when learning a foreign language in vocational education, not only foreign language competence, but, first of all, professional competence is formed, which is consistent with the training objectives (Loktyushina E.A., 2012).

To implement this task most effectively is possible by using computer technology in educational process, which in the modern sense is pedagogical technology with its own special methods, software and hardware (Guzeev V.V., et al., 2004). To multimedia most frequently used in the learning process belong online tutorials and manuals, training equipment and software testing, educational resources of the Internet, DVD and CDs, video and audio equipment, the interactive whiteboard. Multimedia allows to integrate all forms of information (text, graphics, animation, video, and audio) into a single information environment, and includes an interactive dialogue of the user with the system and various forms of self-studies (www.arsplus.ru).

Relevance of multimedia use in vocational education is due to the development of intellectual and creative potential of students (Moshkarova N.S., 2011). Multimedia technologies allow to create tools for educational purposes, which are fundamentally different from the print media, providing interactive mode between the learner and the "software product" (Anderson B. B., et al., 2007).

Didactic and methodological aims of a certain type of software tools reflect the purpose of its use in the learning process, as well as opportunities to help the transition of education to a qualitatively higher level. It provides creation of homogeneous interactive learning environment, involves the immersion of students in the field of developmental education, organizing for students independent information search and creative thinking in a constantly changing environment, provides a personalized approach, given the characteristics of students (based on the level differentiation of the educational process) (Polat E.S., 1999).

The main methodological points of software use, made by Robert I.V. (1994) involve: (1) individualization of the learning process (the possibility of differentiated learning the material); (2) diagnostics of the results of educational

activities; (3) self-organization; (4) computer visualization of educational information; (5) modeling and simulation of the studied or researched objects, processes and phenomena; (6) the use of information databases and access to network resources; (7) increased motivation of training; (8) the development of a certain type of thinking (e.g. visual-figurative, theoretical), and so on.

In the study of didactic potential of educational profession-oriented multimedia, it was found that they allow to implement the principle of visibility to a new level, by ensuring the unity of concrete and abstract, conceptual and visual, logical and emotional in the learning process; suggest the individualization of the educational process promoting adaptation of the content and process of learning to level differentiation; allowing each to build his own path to knowledge, increase the rate of assimilation of new material (Moshkarova N.S., 2011).

II. METHODOLOGICAL BASIS

A team of teachers of language and information subjects of a number of educational institutions of Ust-Kamenogorsk in the East-Kazakhstan region developed and implemented in the educational process multimedia complex «English for IT-specialists», for students of IT-specialties at non-linguistic colleges. Due to the current active use of three languages in the Republic of Kazakhstan, "The Kazakh language, the state language; the Russian language, the language of international communication; and the English language, the language of successful integration into the global economy" (Nazarbayev, 2011), the proposed complex is directed to the formation of professional trilingual competence of future IT -specialists.

Methodological basis for the development of the multimedia complex made:

- philosophies and educational theories of student-centered learning by Yakimanskaya I.S. (2002), subject-subject relations of the teacher and trainees by Vygotsky L.S. (2005), Leontiev A.N. (1994), Platonov K.K. (1986);

- linguistic ideas of the relationship between language, speech and speech activity;

- lingua-didactic theory of communicative and competence approach in language teaching (Bermus A.G., 2005; Verbitsky A.A., 2004), interconnected teaching bilingual and multilingual students a foreign language with the basic first language and the language of mediation;

- theoretical principles of modular design technology (Polat E.S., 2008), the noosphere technology (Maslova N.V., 2002), multi-level technology of language training;

- the doctrine of a holistic approach to the process of perception, processing, remembering and realization of speech in the society.

The learning process with this multimedia complex is based on the use of a set of modern interactive approaches, methods and principles. These multimedia technologies meet general principles of education - auditory and visual clarity; intensive character of learning process, allowing the teacher to use the time more efficiently, focusing on the most difficult passages of educational material in the study of linguistic disciplines.

To implement the formation of key competences (linguistic and professional) in the learning process of students of IT professions using the multimedia complex, a set of approaches was used.

The most important component of the multimedia complex is the use of the competence approach, which promotes the formation of students' foreign language communicative competence.

Using the multimedia complex also takes into account communicative activity approach (Galskova N. D., 2000; Passov E. I., 1991), as the main task of learning a foreign language at the present stage is the formation of foreign language communicative competence. The latter is regarded as a certain level of language, speech, compensatory, socio-cultural competencies that allow the learner to vary the speech behavior depending on the functional factor of foreign language communication.

The multimedia complex is also based on the profession-oriented approach, as learning a foreign language is an integral part of the process of formation of professional competence. Using profession-oriented approach helps students master communication skills for purely professional purposes (Galskova N. D., 2000; Passov E. I., 1991).

Transformation of learning and cognitive activity into professional competence is implemented by means of contextual approach.

The learning process under this multimedia complex involves the inclusion of a student-centered approach, which allows to use and disclose personal experience of each student, his individual and psychological characteristics, causing the effectiveness of training activities, their interaction with each other and with the teacher.

To implement the above approaches in teaching professional English, the most effective teaching methods are used: audio-lingual, linguistic and socio-cultural, communicative, situational, role-playing, project method (Polat E.S., 2008; Galskova N. D., 2000).

The basic principles of task selection and design are the following:

- the principle of professional-communicative orientation;

- the principle of taking into account individual characteristics of students;

- the principle of student activity;

- the principle of rational combination of students' training and creative activities;

- the principle of system and consistency in presentation of educational material;

- the principle of relativity of materials;

- the principle of academic character of tasks.

The use of principle of a foreign language integration in the curriculum and professional activity is due to the need to create a multicultural environment in the learning process.

III. STRUCTURE AND CONTENT OF MULTIMEDIA COMPLEX

Multimedia complex "English for IT-specialists" is an electronic educational resource of modular architecture. Each training module is an autonomous, complete multimedia product with its content, theme, and functions that solves certain educational goals and objectives.

Presented multimedia complex integrates the capabilities of various educational software: tutorial, reference book, trainer, testing unit.

To design the multimedia complex, Flash technology, which allows to realize all the basic elements of multimedia was chosen. It also combines many powerful technological solutions in the field of multimedia presentation of information.

This technology is a good choice for developing electronic educational resources for a variety of reasons, among which are the following:

- the opportunity to realize all the basic elements of multimedia: images, text, movement, video and audio, interactivity, without help of additional programs;
- compactness: the size of resulting programs is minimal and the result of their work is not dependent on the resolution of the user's screen;
- Flashplayer is very prevalent and is freely available;
- if necessary, the content can be published as stand-alone executable application that allows to distribute it, without requiring FlashPlayer on the user's computer.

Multimedia complex meets the following requirements:

- the possibility of posting and viewing via the Internet; information volume of each training module is about 9 MB, so getting it to the network request is not a fundamental difficulty even for low-flow computer networks;
- easy to use;
- easy navigation system, which allows to quickly navigate through the material of the module;
- ergonomic design.

The modules are interconnected by learning logic; each one has a definite topic, grammatical and lexical material. Each module consists of four sections: Language, Grammar, Reading and Speaking, Test.

Since learning any foreign language is based on the analogy with the native language, the formation of speech competence in the multimedia complex occurs through integration of content in English, Kazakh and Russian languages with professional component of such disciplines as "Operating systems and software of computing systems", "Basics of algorithms and programming", "The hardware complex".

Section «Language» contains lexical material of modules, international words, word-forming elements and consolidation exercises. Since the complex is designed to train IT professionals, its themes correspond to the specifics of the profession and therefore lexical section involves mastering professionally specified vocabulary. Glossary is made in English, Kazakh and Russian. Students are given the opportunity to listen to not only words, but also thematic texts, which contributes to the development of a perception skill as a component of foreign language communicative competence.

Since the core of the proposed complex is professional English training, the content of section «Grammar» is based on English grammar and includes three-level mastery of the English language. Learning the Kazakh language presupposes the basic level. Thus, the content includes grammatical models of the Kazakh language, sufficient for the formation of communicative competence in accordance with the basic level of training.

Section «Reading and speaking» contains thematic texts and exercises for them, aimed at building skills of reading and speaking. The number of texts in different modules varies from one to three.

In the media complex, there are different types of interactive exercises. These are tasks with multiple choice (the student chooses the correct answer (answers) from the set of answers); supplement tasks (the student makes a brief or detailed response); matching tasks (to find the relevance between the elements of two sets); tasks to establish the correct sequence, logical connections among the proposed elements; tasks to intensively memorize key words. The tasks are provided with testing system. After completing the task, one must click 'Check'. Control of creative tasks is carried out by the teacher. On doing creative exercises, the student can print them or save to a file for further transmission to the teacher (USB, LAN, e-mail).

Testing includes a number of tasks on listening comprehension and lexical-grammatical tests in section «Test» of each module.

Intended learning outcomes of teaching Professional English using the proposed multimedia complex are presented in the form of a multi-level system of basic types of speech activities: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. This system consists of three levels: basic, intermediate and advanced. The criteria for each level are developed, which allows the instructor to evaluate students' learning outcomes, and students - to self-assess their knowledge and skills.

IV. IMPLEMENTATION RESULTS OF MULTIMEDIA COMPLEX

Multimedia complex «English for IT-specialists» was piloted in the college of Kazakh-American Free University and Polytechnic College in Ust-Kamenogorsk, East-Kazakhstan region. The aim of approbation was to confirm the effectiveness of using multimedia complex «English for IT-specialists» for developing trilingual competence of students of non-language colleges majoring in IT.

To participate in it, a preliminary selection of educational institutions in accordance with the following criteria was made:

- territorial availability of educational institutions participating in the project;
- willingness of administration and subject teachers to participate in the experiment;
- possibilities to create experimental groups;
- necessary equipment of colleges with ICT tools (a sufficient number of computer labs equipped with modern facilities, including audio output devices, printers, multimedia projectors, as well as a broadband connection that provides access to the Internet for lessons in groups participating in the experiment);
- size of groups involved in testing; at least 10-15 students;
- the possibility to involve control groups with characteristics similar to those of experimental groups.

Thus, professional English teachers, 23 KAFU college students and 30 students of Polytechnic College, participated in testing the multimedia complex. Of these, control groups made 11 and 15 students. Experimental groups consisted of 12 and 15 students respectively.

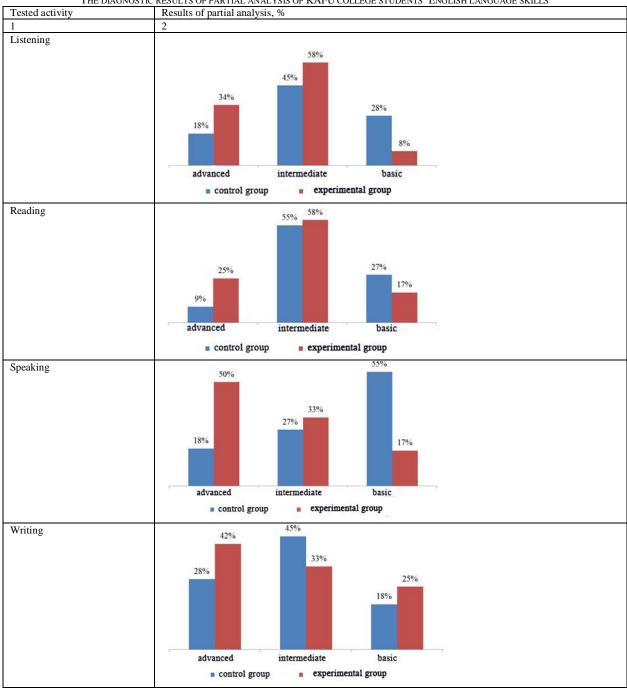During testing, the following activities were carried out:

(1) The analysis of existing institutional and regulatory-legal framework was made: the programs are in accordance with state educational standards and curricula of the specialty.

(2) Advisory Council with the appropriate expert group was chosen: colleges' method experts, heads of Methodical centers of linguistic and information subjects, teachers of Professional English, Kazakh Language and Computer Studies.

(3) Methodological instructions for teachers on the use of the multimedia complex in the learning process were worked out.

(4) Diagnostic system of educational achievements of students participating in the project was built: on the basis of entrance test, experimental and control groups were formed, control test was designed to determine the level of language skills: listening, speaking, reading, writing.

(5) Data on the use of the multimedia complex in learning process, teachers' reviews and students' survey results were collected.

(6) Overall analysis of the test results and the effectiveness of the use of the multimedia complex in educational process was fulfilled.

Based on the results of the experiment the following was carried out:

(1) Analysis of the development of trilingual communicative competence of students of experimental and control groups.

(2) Analysis of teaching, methodical, educational and other opportunities of the use of multimedia complex in educational process.

(3) Analysis of the socio-economic benefits of the use of multimedia complex in educational process.

(4) Hygienic safety analysis.

To identify the level of development of trilingual communicative competence, the main types of speech activities: listening, reading, speaking, and writing were tested. Tests on Professional English and Professional Kazakh were standardized tests, consisting of four sections (listening, reading, speaking and writing). Professional English test involved monitoring at three levels: basic, intermediate and advanced. Test on Professional Kazakh controlled basic level. Based on the test results (Tables I, II), it can be concluded that using multimedia complex «English for IT-specialists» is effective. The figures show an increase in performance and quality of knowledge in experimental groups of both colleges, despite the fact that initially the groups had approximately the same percentage of achievement and the quality of knowledge before the experiment.

TABLE I.
THE DIAGNOSTIC RESULTS OF PARTIAL ANALYSIS OF KAFU COLLEGE STUDENTS' ENGLISH LANGUAGE SKILLS

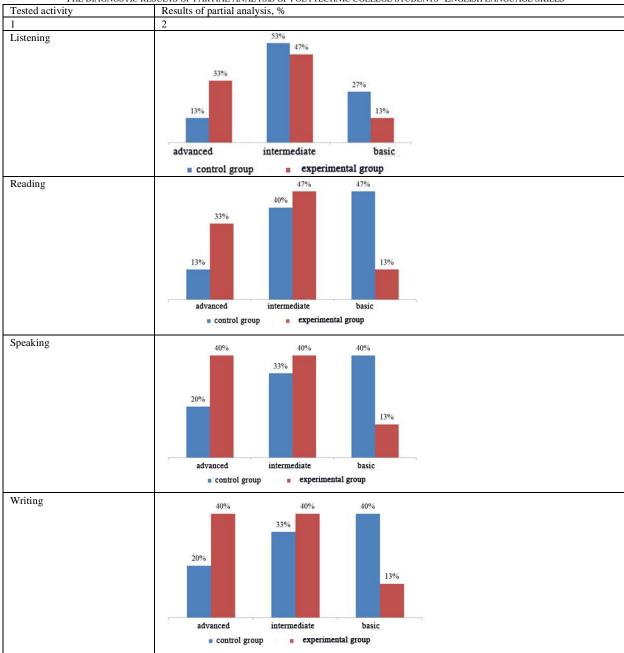| Tested activity	Results of partial analysis, %
1	2
Listening	
Reading	
Speaking	
Writing	

TABLE II.
THE DIAGNOSTIC RESULTS OF PARTIAL ANALYSIS OF POLYTECHNIC COLLEGE STUDENTS' ENGLISH LANGUAGE SKILLS

Tested activity	Results of partial analysis, %
1	2
Listening	
Reading	
Speaking	
Writing	

It can be also stated that training with the multimedia complex allows significantly increase the linguistic and professional level of students. The number of advanced students in experimental groups is by 14% more than in control groups in both colleges; the number of intermediate students is by 13% more in KAFU College and by 17% - in Polytechnic College, than in control groups. The number of students who speak English at a basic level, decreased by 20% in Polytechnic College and by 19% in KAFU College due to their transition to higher levels. Regarding Kazakh language, basic level testing showed that the quality and performance of students of experimental groups is higher than in control groups.

Analysis of the test sections showed that both groups of students in general had successfully coped with the task of listening. However, the students of experimental groups showed a more detailed understanding of the text. Reading, with a total coverage of the content was not difficult for students. However, students of experimental groups more successfully read the text with detailed understanding. The task for "speaking" revealed a better mastering of lexical and grammatical material of the students of experimental groups; they also demonstrated better abilities to apply it in speech. Those students largely used logic for building monologue utterances, demonstrated creativity, and expressed their own opinions. In writing task, students of experimental groups made smaller number of grammatical, lexical and spelling errors.

In our opinion, these results were achieved due to including of a large number of special training and communicative exercises aimed at the development of skills. Selection of the content provided professional orientation in language teaching, creative assignments, the presence of illustrations, audio and other types of visibility enhanced the absorption of material.

Thus, the students of experimental groups showed a higher level of the development of trilingual communicative competence.

Analysis of teaching, didactic and other opportunities of using the multimedia complex in educational process showed, that training offered by the multimedia complex allows to:

- implement a student-centered approach to learning;
- develop system thinking;
- be aware of linguistic phenomena, form linguistic abilities, create communicative situations, automatize language and speech actions;
- ensure intensification of students' independent work;
- improve the practical focus of learning process, enhance students' motivation, develop intellectual and creative abilities, ability to independently acquire new knowledge, since the tasks included in the training complex, involve seeking additional information necessary to perform a particular exercise;
- train various kinds of speech activity and combine them in different ways (monologue and dialogue speech, listening, writing, reading);
- organize perception of educational material through activation of not only sight (text, color, still images, video, animation), but also hearing (speakers' voices), that allows to create necessary emotional background, which increases the efficiency of training;
-fill up the main part of the program with new material: vocabulary and types of exercises;
- organize students' work in the classroom as communication with the teacher, through interactive computer programs and audiovisual media;
- apply modular-credit and distance learning technologies.

As for hygienic safety of the multimedia complex, it should be noted that it is lighter than traditional paper textbooks, it contains no allergen - paper dust. In addition, the colors of illustration material are presented in soothing tones that do not harm the students' eyesight. The presence of hyperlinks and various types of exercises allows to frequently change activities and not to accumulate fatigue.

The socio-economic benefits of using the multimedia complex in educational process are achieved through the development of students' communicative trilingual competence, as well as integration of professional and language training. As a result, students become more mobile and competitive on labor market.

V. CONCLUSION

Integration of professional and linguistic components by means of using multimedia gives much more opportunities for training competitive specialists with a set of competencies, which are required by state educational standards on one hand, and job market on the other hand.

In this respect, the multimedia complex "English for IT-specialists" proved main methodical and didactic ideas of advantages of combining different teaching aids. According to the results of approbation, teachers' reports, reviews and interviews, it contributed to college IT-students' developing trilingual linguistic competence and abilities, automating language and speech actions, training different types of language skills and combining them (monologue and dialogue speech, listening, writing, reading). They developed system thinking, learned how to analyze, collate, and summarize the facts; intensified independent work in learning linguistic phenomena and creating communicative situations, tested themselves using built-in test systems, which provide instant control of gained knowledge.

Teachers managed to create subject-subject learner-teacher interaction in the classroom, mediated through interactive computer programs and audiovisual media, implemented the learner-centered approach to teaching. Thanks to the interactive computer program, learners had the ability to manage the process of learning the language. Individualization was reflected in self-selecting the material complexity (level) and the sequence of exercises. Online mode also allowed learners to take control of the rate of studies; branched structure of hyperlinks made it possible to receive information from the glossary and grammar handbook. Also, practical orientation of learning process increased, and students were motivated to develop their intellectual, creative abilities and abilities to acquire new knowledge, as the tasks included in the multimedia complex, involve seeking additional information necessary to perform a particular exercise. In addition, the tasks imply the creation of booklets, computer presentations, videos or movies using computer programs (PowerPoint and others). It is possible to add new material to the main part: vocabulary, texts, or types of exercises. Colorfully decorated teaching aids, such as text, graphics, drawing with animation, audio, video were used. Perception of educational materials was activated through eyesight (text, color, still images, video, animation) and hearing (actor's or presenter's voice, music, or noise in the background), that created a predetermined emotional background, which increased the efficiency of learning process and met the principles of didactics—using audio and visual aids. Overall, a favorable social and psychological atmosphere in the classroom was created, as learners could evaluate their knowledge through self-control, avoiding censure, were able to choose for themselves the level of training that gave them

confidence.

Thus, the proposed multimedia complex "English for IT-specialists" is focused on the new historical conditions and the needs of today, as it is aimed at the development of trilingual competence, which ensures equal access to knowledge in the field of professional English both for students speaking official language, and for students who speak Russian. The complex is recommended for the classroom, students' independent work and distance learning in the Internet environment.

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The Internationalization of African Languages: A Communication Leap in the Present Millennium

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Abstract—**African languages have, for the most part of the immediate past millennium, remained in the dark ages – thanks in part to the disparaging effects of colonialism. Fortunately, though ironically, the colonialists' tools of oppression, i.e. their languages, have turned out to be linguistic assets for the African who can henceforth use them as a springboard to launch a new linguistic offensive in the present millennium. The African linguist can achieve this by first studying the characteristics of currently acknowledged international languages, and then technically developing his indigenous language to reflect the same qualities. Internationalization in the modern sense presupposes the worldwide use of a language by a large section of speakers, with access to modern communication means such as the electronic media, the print media, the internet, the worldwide web, etc. African linguists and communicators owe it to themselves to develop their own communication systems and thereafter integrate them into the technological culture as being practiced in the present millennium. This will ensure a viable communication leap for African languages in the present scientific and technological era.**

Index Terms—**African languages, linguistic tools, internationalization, technological culture, communication leap**

I. INTRODUCTION

Latest information and communication systems which continue to make giant strides everyday have now succeeded in reducing the size of the whole planet to a small access-zone. This is because it is henceforth possible to have access to a myriad of information occurring in any part of the terrestrial globe (and even beyond), no matter how country- or village-bound one is.

This possibility is however not without a major condition: one would need to be, if not a speaker, then a hearer or a reader of at least one prominent international language. So major is this condition that its non-observance could be tantamount to being cut off from the information, and indeed the entire communication network of the larger world. One would then be as good as a deaf-mute living in the heart of New York.

To be a member of the international community in the present millennium would involve being a participant as well as an observer of current global trends. The starting point is often one's own language. To communicate effectively and make a significant impact in an age that is characterized by great scientific discoveries and technological breakthroughs, the African needs to develop a linguistic apparatus that would lend his language the required sophistication to earn the appellation: ' international language'.

What is an International Language?

What then is an international language? Or, rather, what qualifies a language to be called 'international' while others are only 'national' or 'local'? It would appear that one basic criterion is that the language should have speakers in 'many nations', the number of its speakers notwithstanding. The fact of the speakers being in many nations can be viewed as more important than the total number of speakers of a given language, otherwise a language like Mandarin Chinese which is recorded as having 726 million speakers (Crystal, 2003, p. 289) would have attained a more prominent place on the international level than a language like English with 427 million speakers or even French with only 116 million speakers. Perhaps the importance of this criterion can be better appreciated by comparing the two tables provided by David Crystal (2003) below in respect of languages with the highest number of speakers, and languages spoken in the highest number of countries:

TABLE A:
WORLD'S TOP 15 LANGUAGES
(ACCORDING TO FIRST-LANGUAGE SPEAKER ESTIMATES IN)

Language	Number of speakers
1. Mandarin Chinese	726
2. English	427
3. Spanish	266
4. Hindi	182
5. Arabic	181
6. Portuguese	165
7. Bengali	162
8. Russian	158
9. Japanese	124
10. German	121
11. French	116
12. Javanese	75
13. Korean	66
14. Italian	65
15. Panjabi (West and East)	60

TABLE B:
WORLD'S TOP 10 LANGUAGES
(ACCORDING TO NUMBER OF COUNTRIES WHERE SPOKEN)

Language	Number of speakers
1. English	42
2. French	30
3. Arabic	22
4. Spanish	19
5. Portuguese	7
6. German	6
7. Dutch	4
8. Swahili	3 (with 20 million speakers)
9. Malay	3 (with 19 million speakers)
10. Mandarin Chinese	2

In the above lists, it will be observed that some languages which occupied top positions in the first list are near the bottom of the second list (e.g. Mandarin Chinese), while others which were near the bottom moved to top places in the second list (e.g. French). Again, there are quite a few languages which, even though they featured prominently in the first list, did not appear at all in the second (e.g. Hindi, Bengali, Japanese, Italian, etc.).

One thing that is however clear from the displayed lists is that English, among a few others, is considered an international language. Why so? Giving a first response, Edward Finegan (1987, p. 82) remarks that, although according to the renowned Irish Nobel Prize winner Bernard Shaw, English spelling holds the distinction of being the most chaotic in the world, it is remarkably uniform throughout the world, and printed material can be distributed internationally without adaptation. Moreover, the spread of technology, notably the diffusion of American technologies in the 20th century can be said to be an added reason for the internationalization of the English language.

From the foregoing therefore, one might safely deduce that for a language to be considered international, it must:
- Have a number of speakers in many nations of the world;
- Enjoy widespread use in many countries;
- Have a lot of literature written and diffused in it;
- Be amenable to scientific and technological dissemination;
- Facilitate international communication worldwide.

International Language Models

In this section, international language models refer to languages that meet some or all of the requirements enumerated in our preceding section. They are mainly languages that, due to early industrialization or a sophisticated writing system, are widely used for international trade and communication. In this study, we have chosen English and French as our international language models.

► English

Edward Finegan (1987, p. 78) observes that, although Mandarin Chinese is spoken by a greater number of people, English is spoken around the globe and has wider dispersion than any other language. According to its linguistic classification, English belongs to the Germanic phylum of the Indo-European language family. It is the principal language of the United States, Canada, Great Britain, Ireland, Australia, New Zealand, and many newly independent islands in the Caribbeans. It is also the official language of more than a dozen African countries.

In its orthography, English can be seen to be more out of harmony with the spoken language than that of many other languages. Nevertheless, many observers note that advantages exist to the relative distance between orthography and speech in that written English is remarkably uniform throughout the world, and printed material can be distributed internationally without adaptation.

Concerning its vocabulary expansion, Comrie (1987) explains that compounding, prefixing and suffixing are largely responsible for adding to the word stock of the English language. A few examples from English technical vocabulary may suffice to illustrate this process:

Lexeme	Prefixation	Prefixation + Suffixation
Radiate (verb)	irradiate	irradiation
Efficient (adj.)	inefficient	inefficiency
Generate (verb)	regenerate	regeneration
Ionize (verb)	de-ionize	de-ionization
Pole (noun)	bipolar	bipolarity

Syntactically, English is an S-V-O language, a fact which has been adduced as one of the reasons for its current widespread use in the world. A further fact noted by Finegan is that S-V-O languages like English are perceptually simpler than languages whose basic word orders are S-O-V or V-S-O. It is also noteworthy that, in addition, to their granted sociological and political statuses, Chinese, French, Russian and Spanish (all of which are S-V-O), are languages of wider diffusion, and so is the spoken form of Arabic. Incidentally, these six languages, i.e. including English, constitute the official languages of the United Nations. Apparently, the perceptual advantages of S-V-O languages is the ready identification of subjects and objects which are separated (by verb) in S-V-O, but not in S-O-V or V-S-O languages.

This similarity in syntactic structure is also shared by the Yoruba language and should facilitate its lexicological modeling, as concerns technical expression, on French and English which are both established S-V-O languages. It might also be added at this point that, another reason that has been attributed to the extension of English, is the spread of technology, notably the diffusion of American technologies during the twentieth century. Since the focus of this paper is equipping African languages with the appropriate linguistic tools to attain internationalization, it can be inferred that adopting the processes responsible for technical discourse in French and English would contribute significantly towards attaining the same goal in Yoruba, an African language.

► French

Rowlett (2000, p. 3) affirms that the French language is currently classed as the 10th or 11th most widely spoken language in the world. It is a Romance language which derives, via Latin, from the Italic branch of the Indo-European language family. Statistics provided by Battye *et al* (2000, p. 2) show that, according to a 1999 French government report, about 112,660,000 French speakers are classified as *francophones réels (*i.e. first or second-language speakers who use French daily) *,* while another 60,612,000 speakers are classified as *francophones occasionnels* (i.e. speakers often living in developing countries or bilingual societies, using French occasionally). To these numbers are added approximately 100 to 110 million learners of French as a foreign language. Taking the upper limit therefore, one could safely place the current number of French speakers and French users at 283,272,000 million worldwide. Crystal (2003, p. 384) also mentions that, apart from the large number of autonomous French speakers within Europe, outside Europe, indigenous French is spoken in Francophone Canada, in the West Indies, and in the Maghreb (Algeria, Morocco and Tunisia). In Black Africa, French is the official language of sixteen independent Francophone states.

Phonologically, French sounds are mostly not indicative of their orthography (cf. bleu, peur; brun, brune; vielle, ville; etc.). However, French is similar to Yoruba in that it is also a language that makes use of tone or accent marks to aid pronunciation and distinguish between certain words in the language (cf. la, là; ou, où; du, dû; mais, maïs; etc.). This is probably what informed the lexicographer, R. C. Abraham, in his choice of French words as examples to illustrate the Yoruba tonal system in his dictionary! (cf. Abraham, 1958, p. xi).

Harris informs that, in its syntactic structure, the order of basic constituents in standard literary French is S-V-O, i.e. the subject (which is obligatory) precedes the verb, which precedes the complement(s) in positive, declarative utterances. Also noteworthy is the fact that alongside this S-V-O order, there is a wide variety of other possible orders, involving the dislocation of one or more nominal elements associated with a verb to the left and/or to the right of the core sentence.

E.g. J'aime Marie (Je-Subject, aime-Verb, Marie-Object/Complement)

But: Marie, je l'aime; Moi, j'aime Marie; Je l'aime, Marie, etc.

With respect to its morphological configuration, the derivational processes of the language are here examined with particular emphasis on word formation techniques which appear to facilitate technical expression in the French language. Whereas prefixation is the more productive word formation process in Yoruba, suffixation is the affixal process which ensures, to a greater extent, the lexical growth in the French language. Words which depict an action or a process mostly bear the suffix '-age' or '-ion' in the language. To portray the doer or agent of an action, the suffix 'eur' is used and this is often derived from the '-age' suffixal formation. Some examples, drawn from Vigner and Martin (1976, pp. 22-23) are given below:

Verb	Noun (Process)	Noun (Agent)
Broyer(to grind)	broyage(grinding)	broyeur(grinder)
Démarrer(to start)	démarrage(starting)	démarreur (starter)
Souder (to weld)	soudage(welding)	soudeur (welder)
Forer (to drill)	forage (drilling)	foreur (driller)

As a technical discourse paradigm, we shall attempt to replicate the above technical model in Yoruba further on in this paper.

African Languages as International Languages

At this point, another question, one more relevant to the present study, could be raised: can African languages be considered international languages? For us in this paper, the answer would be a resounding 'yes'. Already, as can be noted from the second list in Table B, Swahili, an authentic African language, made it to number 8, over and above Mandarin Chinese which has a higher number of speakers. This is because Swahili is officially spoken in at least 3 countries of the world, thereby satisfying one of the conditions for internationalization.

It should be mentioned that many African languages remained oral languages for very long. This situation was compounded by colonial masters who, not content with colonizing the continent, also colonized the languages found in it. According to Bamgbose (1986, p. 29), only very few indigenous languages, Yoruba being one of them, were tolerated; and this was basically because these languages allowed foreign missionaries to better evangelize, or reach the people they were evangelizing. As Curtin, Feierman, Thompson, & Vansina (1997, p. 418) put it:

"One of the immediate concerns of missionaries on founding a station was the question of language. Not only did they have to learn the vernacular language near their stations to be able to preach the gospel, it was their duty to translate the Holy Scriptures into the vernacular."

In the case of Swahili, Fasold (1984, p. 267) reports that the German colonizers exploited the fact that Swahili was already a trading language understood by a large section of the indigenous population. A German administrator could therefore learn a single African language like Swahili that was understood by key people over a wide area, instead of a local language that would be of no use elsewhere.

It is however an interesting twist of fate that, at the breaking of the new millennium, African countries find themselves in a situation where they can equally bask in the global limelight and partake in an international culture by making full use of the former weapons of linguistic oppression. A rapid look at the languages in Table B reveals that about six or seven of the present top ten languages in the world are linguistic legacies of Africa's former colonial masters (*viz* English, French, Arabic, Portuguese, German, Dutch, and Spanish).

II. METHODOLOGY

Strategies for Internationalization

In a language analysis situation, Awoniyi (1995, p. 441) takes a pragmatic look at how to achieve linguistic popularity by proposing three options for independent African nations, namely:

i. Using one or more indigenous languages for all educational and other purposes;

ii. Giving equal status to one or more indigenous languages and an international one;

iii. Adopting an international language for all educational and other purposes.

In our view, although the first option appears viable, it would be too restrictive. International communication is not only about communicating with members of the same language group but also with other members in the international community as well. If therefore, a language is known only to one homogeneous language group, regardless of the number of its speakers, that language cannot be internationalized. The third option of adopting an international language for all educational and other purposes could be a shortcut to achieving internationalization, especially if the international language being adopted happens to be English or French which already has a number of speakers in a number of different African countries. But then, this would be done at the expense of the continent's own indigenous languages and would amount to a case of linguistic neo-colonialism from within, and perhaps a final goodbye to internationalizing the continent's own languages.

From the standpoint of this paper, Awoniyi's second option appears preferable for the purpose of achieving a communication leap for the African continent in that, the adopted international language could provide a practical model for the indigenous one and both of them could develop *pari passu*. Such was the case with Swahili in the early 1960s when Tanzania's politicians (the country was then named Tangayika by the British) led by Julius Nyerere, tolerated English for the purpose of negotiating their independence from Britain and communicating with the outside world to help their case, but promptly designated Swahili the country's national language in 1961 after independence, and declared it the country's official language in 1967, alongside English. Swahili is the stronger for it today.

As stated earlier, many African languages remained at the oral stage for long, but then, many were able to make the transition to the written stage. Ralph Fasold (1984), quoting Ferguson, helps us to understand what is involved in this transition which is basically a language development process (p. 248). According to him, the process takes place in three stages:

a) Graphization, which involves the adoption of a writing system and the establishment of orthographic conventions;

b) Standardization, which has to do with a particular variety of the language being widely accepted by all members of the speech community as the 'best' form of that language;

c) Modernization, by which Ferguson means "the process of…… becoming the equal of other developed languages as a medium of communication".

However, Fasold's implication that some languages are 'undeveloped' has been unacceptable to linguists because every natural language has been found to be developed enough to allow its speakers say anything in it. Terminological development is always going on, making a language able to cope with evolving aspects of modern life.

As seen earlier, the diffusion and dissemination of technologies has been as one of the factors responsible for the spread of English as a world lingua franca. It could therefore be said that one very potent avenue for the internationalization of African languages would be through technical language development.

Wider Diffusion through Technicalization

What then is technical language? Vigner and Martin (1976) define it as "a language that is used to describe technical matter" (p. 19). On his part, David Crystal (2000, p. 384) outlines some of the characteristics of technical language, noting that it is a language which requires 1) objectivity; 2) systematic investigation; and 3) exact measurements. He adds that there is usually an overriding concern for impersonal statement, logical exposition and precise description.

As noted by erudite linguists generally, all languages are amenable to linguistic sophistication, and African languages are no exception. Already, a lot of effort is being deployed in this direction. For example, the proceedings of the roundtable conference jointly organized by the International Federation of Translators and Interpreters (FIT) and the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) which held in Dar-es-Salam in August 1989, featured such titles as: 'The Coining of Scientific Affixes in Kiswahili', 'Problems of Coining Chemistry Terms for Secondary Schools', 'The Dissemination of Technical Terms', etc. Among the Kalabari, an Ijoid language spoken in the Niger-Delta region of Nigeria, members of the Kalabari Language Development Unit of a larger group called the Kalabari Bible Translation and Liturgical Committee, are proposing the introduction of a metric method of counting to reflect modernization and identification with a larger world technological culture. For them, it would be a way of saving the Kalabari language from an anachronistic existence and a more compliant way of facilitating its learning by the younger generation, who are more used to a metric method of counting, prevalent in the era they live in.

III. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

African Technical Language Model

In this study, our chosen African language model for internationalization is the Yoruba language. We shall here present a brief overview of its linguistic configuration with a view to exploiting areas for technical discourse that can pave the way for internationalization.

► Yoruba

According to Williamson's classification (1989, p. 23), Yoruba belongs to Benue-Congo, a sub-group of the Niger-Congo language family. The vast majority of speakers are found in Nigeria in the Southwestern States of Ekiti, Lagos, Ogun, Osun, Oyo, and in some parts of Edo, Kogi and Kwara. Speakers are also found in the West Indies, Brazil, Cuba, Sierra Leone, and in some West African countries like Benin and Togo. Recent figures provided by Crystal (2003) put the number of Yoruba speakers at 25 million worldwide (p. 289).

Pulleyblank (1987, p. 142) informs that, morphologically, the word formation processes in Yoruba are for the most part derivational and not inflectional, and they involve two basic processes: prefixation and reduplication. These again fall into two classes: an 'abstract' class and an 'agentive' class. Prefixes of the agentive class include 'a-', 'o/ò' and 'olu-' among others. With respect to the prefixes that form abstract nouns from verb phrases, there are basically two: 'i-' and 'a-' (Rowlands, 1969, p. 184). Both prefixes may attach to a simple verbal base, e.g. 'imọ' – knowledge (mọ - know); 'alọ' – going (lọ - go). In many cases, 'i- ' and 'a- ' can be freely substituted for each other, e.g. 'isọye', 'asọye' (explanation). A case has been made by Bamgbose (1992, p. x) for using these two prefixes for semantically distinctive purposes, i.e. the prefix 'i- ' used for the abstract noun (i.e. the process), and the prefix 'a-' or ' à-' for the concrete noun (i.e. the result).

Concerning the syntactic structure of Yoruba, it could be said that its basic word order is S-V-O, i.e. Subject preceding Verb preceding Object. Pulleyblank gives an example of this word order in the following sentence:

- Baba (Noun) ra (Verb) Bata (Object) – Father bought shoes

The same word order appears as Subject-Predicator-Object in Awobuluyi (1979) with the following example as illustration:

- Ojo ra moto (Ojo bought a vehicle). (p. 20)

This word order is however not fixed and could be differently altered by versatile language users. Nevertheless, it is generally agreed that the S-V-O structure of the Yoruba language makes it easy to learn and, as will be demonstrated further on, it is a feature Yoruba shares with many other widely diffused languages of the world.

Semantically, words in Yoruba can be made to say almost anything. The language displays all the semantic processes of polysemy, antonymy, synonymy, homonymy, etc. To ensure its vocabulary expansion, one of the techniques employed is what NEIDA & NERDC (1988) refer to as semantically-motivated coinage. This is described as a technique which involves the meaning-bearing elements of one language with a view to capturing the meanings or essence of a term or expression in another language (e.g. 'ranmupe' – nasalization). Another semantic resource is the technique of semantic extension. This is a process aimed at increasing the number of distinct meanings found in the language. An example, to cite just one, is the word 'opo', which in the language means 'an upright pole supporting the

roof', but has, by semantic extension also come to mean, 'the stem of a word' (morphology), 'an electric pole' (lexis), or 'an extreme point in an electrical circuit' (Physics).

Phonologically, Yoruba is a tonal language and tone marks play a distinctive role in it. There are also diacritic signs placed under certain letters to mark a down step or low-tone as in 'e/ẹ'; 'o/ọ'; 's/ṣ'; etc. This phenomenon also occurs in Kalabari. There are basically three tones: High, represented by an acute accent (´); Mid, generally unmarked; and Low, represented by a grave accent (`). As noted by Katzner (1995), these accents do not indicate stress but rather the rise and fall of the voice. More importantly, however, it can be noted that several words or sets of lexical items are often distinguished by tone in Yoruba. Examples include: 'igbá' (calabash); 'igba' (two hundred); 'ìgbà' (time). 'ọkọ' (hoe); 'ọkọ' (husband); 'ọkọ' (vehicle), etc. Awobuluyi (1979) also draws our attention to the fact that the vast majority of Yoruba verbs are monosyllabic, of the form CV, i.e. Consonant-Vowel, as featured in the following verbs: 'wa' (come); 'lọ' (go); 'mu' (drink); 'ri' (see); 'ra' (buy), etc.

At this point, we wish to reproduce the technical discourse paradigm that was developed in French, but this time in the Yoruba language. This was achieved using the morphological processes of prefixation and partial reduplication as demonstrated below:

Verb	Noun (Process)	Noun (Agent)
lọ (grind)	lilọ (grinding)	alagbalọ (grinder/human) ọlọ (grinder/non-human)
ṣina (start engine)	ṣiṣina (starting engine)	aṣina (starter/human) iṣina (starter/non-human)
jorin (weld iron)	jijorin (iron welding)	ajorin (welder/human) ijorin (welder/non-human)
gbẹho	gbigbẹho (hole drilling)	agbẹho (driller/human) igbẹho (driller/non-human)

IV. DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

Given that the world of today is the world of science and technology, and going by the assertion of a former Director General of UNESCO, René Maheu that, "unless it has its own scientists and technicians, no country can call itself free" (cf. Salam, 1989, p. 62), it would appear that those who are best placed to achieve 'technicalization', and consequently internationalization of African languages, are the continents' own scientists and technologists. They can, after first attaining literacy in their own indigenous languages, write out their research findings and disseminate same through the internet, the worldwide web or any other modern communication means. Of course, not all African languages will develop and achieve internationalization at the same time. The languages would first need to go through Ferguson's suggested stages of language development, especially the second stage of standardization, whereby a particular variety would be accepted by all members of the speech community and be jointly promoted by them.

Among the list of top 40 first-language speakers provided by Crystal (we reproduced only the first 15 in Table A of this paper), Hausa, an African language, features as No. 28 with 24 million speakers, while Yoruba, our featured African technical language model, occupies the 35th position with about 20 million speakers. Swahili features as No. 8 among the list of top world languages (cf. Table B). Going by statistics alone, these languages can emerge as the most viable choices in which to achieve internationalization through, first, widespread use on the continent in particular, and second, widespread use in the world at large. It was probably with this in mind that Swahili featured prominently in the colloquium on adopting one African language as the continent's lingua franca during the 2nd World Black African Festival of Arts and Culture (FESTAC) which took place in Lagos, Nigeria in the year 1977. Unfortunately, there is yet to be a dynamic follow-up to this highly commendable initiative.

Nevertheless, it is easy to envision that once African linguists and communication experts overcome their initial inertia and embark on a linguistic offensive to place African languages on the world map, the many wonders of science and information technology would be those of Africans to enjoy in their own language(s). It would be possible to imagine sending electronic messages in Kalabari or Swahili or Hausa and having such messages accessed at http://www.nigercongo.com/researcher/language/rl where 'http' stands for Hyper Text Transfer Protocol, and www.nigercongo indicates the name of the web server, and where the last part of the web address indicates the web document to be perused and comprehended. It is noteworthy that a group of Yoruba speakers have recently established a website called Centre for Yoruba Language Engineering where the founders aim at promoting the Yoruba language as a major instrument for transmitting scientific and technological knowledge. This site can be accessed at www.ceyoleng.org

Indeed, it is easy to imagine that in the present millennium, with the myriad opportunities for linguistic sophistication, African languages need only adhere to the basic steps necessary for wider recognition and dissemination to be assured a place on the information superhighway. This can be achieved through well-coordinated linguistic efforts aimed at internationalizing the continent's indigenous languages in the present millennium. Such actions would, most hopefully, provide the much needed communication leap for African languages in particular, and the African continent in general.

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Perceptions of and Experiences with Vocational College English Majors' Out-of-class English Learning in Taiwan

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Abstract—**The purpose of this study was to investigate vocational college EFL students' experiences with and perceptions of out-of-class English learning. The research involved a survey, comprising three sets of questionnaires concerning learners' perceptions of and experiences with out-of-class English learning. Four intact classes of 164 EFL vocational college students participated in the study. Eight semi-structured interviews were conducted with eight successful EFL learners. The intentions were to highlight the perspectives of the eight successful English learners with in-depth understandings. The results showed that the successful EFL learners more aggressively and voluntarily participated in their out-of-class English learning because they were highly motivated. To conclude, this study may be of importance for explaining the dynamic relationship between learning outcomes and learners' autonomy as well as in providing English teachers with a better understanding of how students' out-of-class learning outcomes relates to their motivation and autonomy.**

Index Terms—**learning autonomy, out-of-class learning, motivation, learning outcomes, successful EFL learners**

I. INTRODUCTION

English is a lingua franca, which makes communication possible across cultures and boundaries. To increase students' comparative advantages and competitiveness on the world stage, students in Taiwan, especially vocational college students, have been encouraged to increase their English proficiency. The government has launched several programs to help create a friendly English-learning environment because exposure to English is considered one of the most crucial conditions for achieving proficiency. Directly focusing on college students, the government has provided funding that helps them improve their English proficiency on standardized tests such as the Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC) and the General English Proficiency Test (GEPT), which in turn has prompted most of the colleges in Taiwan to set up an English proficiency threshold as a requirement before graduation (Executive Yuan, 2005).

Despite these many actions taken by the government, vocational college students' English proficiency has not seen much improvement. According to the 2011 Educational Testing Service (ETS) report (TOEIC Newsletter 28, 2011) in Taiwan, the average TOEIC score for undergraduates at institutes of science and technology is 422 points, whereas the average for students at comprehensive universities is 585 points. Given that, there is an urgent need to increase vocational college students' overall English proficiency to better prepare them for their future career and employment.

In more recent years, we have seen mounting evidence of the usefulness of learners' incorporating self-learning strategies into their English acquisition processes because exposure to a foreign language outside of the classroom is considered one of the most crucial conditions for achieving proficiency (Dörnyei & Skehan, 2003; Freeman, 1999). Out-of-class learning is important in creating necessary motivation for learners to advance and progress (Lamb, 2002; Nunan, 1990; Scarcella & Oxford, 1992; Rubin & Thompson, 1994). Woo(2003) noted that out-of-class learning should be considered a necessary skill outside of normal class settings because it promotes learning in a way that is not constrained by time and space and it cultivates one's autonomy that can be useful for a lifetime. Research done by Pickard (1996) and Ruben (1975) demonstrated that successful English learners were those who made good use of their time by developing personal learning strategies outside of normal class settings.

The purpose of this study was to investigate vocational college English majors' experiences with and perceptions of out-of-class English learning. Along with successful English majors' experiences and perceptions, it is hoped that the study may provide alternative solutions to the problem of autonomous English-learning outside of normal class settings, especially for those who struggle to keep pace with their English classes at vocational colleges. The participants of interest were English majors at a vocational college in central Taiwan. It was assumed that English majors would have a stronger motivation to learn English compared with non-English majors. Surveys were distributed to all English majors at this institute for initial data collection. Following the survey, semi-structured interviews were conducted with purposefully selected successful English learners. The successful learners who volunteered were interviewed for their

out-of-class English-learning experiences and perceptions to provide in-depth understandings and perspectives from their point of view.

A. Definition of Terms

Out-of-class English learning in this study is defined as any English-learning activities performed outside of normal class settings, such as reading English magazines, listening to English radio programs, and watching English movies and TV programs (Pickard, 1996); it also includes attending cramming programs.

According to Pickard (1996), successful English learner is defined as anyone who performs better than average or better than the standard. Based on the 2011 ETS report (TOEIC Newsletter 28, 2011) in Taiwan, the average TOEIC score for undergraduates at institutes of science and technology is 422 points, whereas the average for students at comprehensive universities is 585 points. To be further promoted at work, it is suggested that one needs to have a TOEIC score of 700 points or higher (Chang, 2012). Therefore, students with a TOECI score of 750 points or higher are considered successful English learners in this study.

B. Research Questions

To emphasize the issues outlined, the present study was designed to address the following research questions:
1. What are vocational college English majors' experiences with and perceptions of out-of-class English learning?
2. What are successful vocational college English majors' experiences with and perceptions of out-of-class English learning?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Out-of-class learning should be promoted in classes. It is a teacher's job to motivate students to learn and to be persistent in learning in class and outside of class over time. Throughout the process, students develop skills that are relevant to learning, and they learn to take control of their learning. Liu (2010) noted that teachers should take the initiatives to help promote out-of-class learning. During the process, teachers gradually shift away from the role of instructor to coordinator and then to promoter; teachers do not limit or confine students' learning but provide resources and suggestions for them to aggressively and voluntarily participate in their own progress. Studies (Deci, Nezlek, & Sheinman, 1981; Deci & Ryan, 2000) have shown that autonomy-supportive teachers tend to help increase learners' motivations, whereas controlling teachers were prone to decrease learners' interests in and motivation for learning. According to Deci and Ryan (2000), autonomy-supportive teachers help trigger learners' self-initiation, which is critical regarding motivation. The study (Kiany & Shayestefar, 2011) further revealed that students' English performance was lower when teachers were more controlling compared with autonomy-supportive teachers. As shown, motivation is such an important factor that leads to successful learning outcomes. If motivation could be generated and gradually increased, learning outcomes would be expected to improve over time (Csizer, Kormos, & Sarkadi, 2010; Hsiao, Tu, & Chung, 2012).

In the process of becoming aggressive autonomous learners, students need to learn to take control of their learning and understand the importance of self-management, self-initiation, and self-disciplines to achieve their goals (Liu, 2010). More importantly, the key to learning is not what to learn but more how to learn. Betts and Kercher (1999) noted that it was not an easy task to build up autonomous learning skills. Learners first need to assess their own capabilities, set up appropriate goals, generate their motivation for autonomous learning, and constantly make necessary adjustments to their goals. Furthermore, autonomous learning is beneficial to self-perception and perceived self-efficacy because students learn to gradually take control of their learning and advance their studies. According to Bandura (1986 & 1997), perceived self-efficacy is defined as people's beliefs in their ability to successfully achieve what they have planned, and perceived self-efficacy is closely related to an individual's motivation and ultimate learning outcomes.

Hergenhahn and Olson (2001) and Benson (2001) emphasized that learners themselves should initiate out-of-class learning and that the ultimate goal of out-of-class learning should center on cultivating people's autonomous learning skills and mastering concepts that they can apply throughout their lives. More importantly, teachers are coordinators and promoters who help facilitate the learning development, not instructors who give commands about what to accomplish. Consequently, students are motivated to participate in learning voluntarily and encouraged to take control of their learning.

Out-of-class learning has become an important issue that educators and researchers have advocated for in colleges in Taiwan for the past several years because of a highly autonomous learning environment in colleges. With the shift away from the highly structured learning environment in high school in Taiwan, out-of-class learning skills are critical regarding learning outcomes for college students (Chiu, 2010).

Classroom instruction is often conducted for a group of students, and individual learners' differences cannot be taken into account. Therefore, out-of-class learning is considered significant for an individual's progress and advancement. A substantial amount of research (Benson, 2001; Pearson, 2004; Sato, 2002) has revealed that successful learners are those who developed out-of-class learning strategies to provide themselves with more effective and efficient learning outcomes. Pickard (1996) and Ruben (1975) emphasized that successful English learners were those who aggressively

sought out out-of-class opportunities to practice English. In Lamb's (2002) and Nunan's (1995) research, out-of-class learning was a contributing factor to successful learning outcomes.

Kao (2008) noted that successful learners possessed the characteristics of an explorer, usually seeking out opportunities to learn and revised actions based on past mistakes. Furthermore, Brown (1994) emphasized that successful English learners did not particularly rely on textbooks or lectures given in classes; instead, they would try to develop customized learning strategies that fit with their own learning styles and characteristics. In the research conducted by Ruben (1975) and Ellis (1989), the findings revealed that successful language learning outcomes significantly correlated with an individual's characteristics. These findings imply that developing individualized learning strategies based on one's characteristics is significant for improving one's learning and increasing motivation.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. The Participants

This study employed a mixed method approach. This approach incorporates quantitative survey questionnaires and qualitative face-to-face semi-structured interviews. Bryman (1988) and Creswell (2003) note that a combination of different methods helps present a general overview of an issue because of the differences in approaches.

To ensure some homogeneity in educational background, all participants were selected from the Department of Applied English at a vocational university in central Taiwan. That is, the participants in this study were English majors from the same institute. A survey (see Appendix A) was distributed to all of the students, 191 in total, in the Department of Applied English with a return rate of 85.86%. Among the participants, eight successful English learners volunteered to take part in the semi-structured interviews to further reveal their personal perceptions of and experiences with out-of-class English learning. The following table (Table 1) shows the details of the population. It was also worth noting that only 20 out of 191 students had a TOEIC score of 750 points or higher at the time of participation. TOEIC test was chosen as a measurement instrument of the participants' overall evaluation of learning outcomes was due to the fact that TOEIC test score had been widely accepted as a graduation threshold in most of higher education institutes in Taiwan. At the participants' institute, all English majors are required to pass a TOEIC test of 650 points or higher before the end of their senior year.

TABLE 1:
THE DETAILS OF THE POPULATION

Year \ Gender	Male	Female	Total
Freshmen	13	29	42
Sophomore	4	32	36
Junior	6	32	38
Senior	7	41	48
Total	30	134	164

Based on the literature review, the survey questionnaires were developed (see Appendix A). The self-developed survey questionnaires were intended to explore English majors' experiences with and perceptions of out-of-class English learning. The developed questionnaires were reviewed by three field experts and pilot-tested by 20 students (not included in this study). The survey questionnaires were further revised based on the suggestions from the three experts and the 20 students. The survey questionnaires were forced-choice items because forced-choice questions motivate respondents to answer (De Vaus, 1991).

The purpose of the survey questionnaires was to explore the experiences with and the perceptions of the participants' out-of-class English learning. The questionnaire consisted of three sections, the first of which was intended to elicit demographic information on the respondents. The second section asked respondents to assess their experiences with out-of-class English learning. Section three focused on perceptions of out-of-class English learning. To further understand the successful English learners' detailed perceptions of and experiences with out-of-class English learning, semi-structured interviews were conducted.

B. Data Analysis

Descriptive statistics were calculated, analyzing the experiences with and perspectives of the English majors' out-of-class English learning. To further understand the successful English majors' perspectives of and experiences with out-of-class English learning, semi-structured interviews were conducted to gain an in-depth and holistic understanding. That is, I aimed for detailed descriptions of the individual cases. All of the interviews were conducted in Chinese, which is the native language of the participants and the investigator. Each interview lasted 60 to 90 minutes. None of the interviewees were blind as to the nature of the interviews. They were told prior to participating that they were being further interviewed to present their perspectives of and experiences with out-of-class English learning; they were not told, however, what types of results were expected. Each interview was transcribed and translated by the investigator. The transcripts, in Chinese and English, were sent back to the interviewees to further confirm the content via e-mail.

To analyze the transcribed data, the interview transcripts were first broken down into parts based on the interview protocols (see Appendix B). The parts were reviewed repeatedly in order to be condensed and reduced. The reduced data were then coded. Once coding was saturated and completed, codes were reviewed and further linkages among the codes were revealed. Finally, patterns of the linkages and themes were developed to represent the interviewees' perspectives, and quotations were added to emphasize the interviewees' views.

IV. RESULTS

A. Vocational College English Majors' Out-of-class English-learning Experiences

As shown in table 2, the majority (96.4%) of the English majors conducted certain out-of-class activities. 67.7% of all respondents revealed that they either sometimes or frequently participated in out-of-class English activities; only 3.7% of all respondents had never conducted any form of out-of-class English-learning activities. Among those who had conducted their activities, up to 41.4% did so over the weekdays.

TABLE 2:
ENGLISH MAJORS' OUT-OF-CLASS ENGLISH LEARNING EXPERIENCES

Factor	Choices	N	%
The frequency of out-of-class English learning(n=164)	always	6	3.7
	usually	19	11.6
	sometimes	86	52.4
	rarely	47	28.7
	never	6	3.7
Time for conducting out-of-class English learning(n=157)	weekdays	65	41.4
	weekends	52	33.1
	Summer/winter vacation	17	10.8
	Other time	23	14.6
Motivation for conducting out-of-class English learning(please mark everything that applies)	Request from parents	32	20.4
	Suggestions from teachers	15	9.6
	Preparation for English certificates	113	72.0
	For future job requirement	36	22.9
	For study-abroad	45	28.7
	For self-improvements	82	52.2
	Personal interests	51	32.5
	As leisure activities to spend time	27	17.2
Location for conducting out-of-class English learning(please mark everything that applies)	School	48	31.0
	Cramming school	45	29.0
	At home	126	81.3
	Off-campus libraries	25	16.1
	Others	3	1.9
Skill(s) that have been emphasized(Please mark everything that applies)	Listening	107	66.0
	Speaking	61	37.7
	reading	105	64.8
	writing	41	25.3
	Translation	33	20.4

Regarding the motivation for conducting out-of-class English-learning activities, 28.2% of those who had done so expressed that the most important reason was to prepare for tests, followed by improving English proficiency (20.4%). In terms of the location for conducting out-of-class English-learning activities, most of the English majors (51.0%) stated that they did so at home. Among the out-of-class English-learning activities, 30.8% emphasized listening skills, followed by reading skills (30.3%). Speaking, writing and translation-related activities were comparatively not as popular as listening and reading activities.

Table 3 shows that listening to English songs was the most popular activities among the choices. Just under two-thirds (61.5%) of those who chose listening to English songs as their out-of-class English-learning activity believed that it was effective in helping improve their English proficiency. The second most popular activity was vocabulary memorization. Over half (56.4%) of those who chose vocabulary memorization as their out-of-class English activity expressed that vocabulary memorization was effective in improving their English-learning outcomes.

TABLE 3:
OUT-OF-CLASS ENGLISH ACTIVITIES CONDUCTED BY ENGLISH MAJORS.

Learning outcome Way of out-of-class English learning	Very good	Good	Fair	Bad	Very bad	Number
Listening to English songs	15(14.4%)	49(47.1%)	37(35.6%)	3(2.9%)	0	104
Vocabulary memorization	12(12.8%)	41(43.6%)	37(39.4%)	2(2.1%)	2(2.1%)	94
Watching English movies	18(20.7%)	38(43.7%)	31(35.6%)	0	0	87
Practice English listening for English proficiency tests	17(24.3%)	39(55.7%)	12(17.1%)	2(2.9%)	0	70
Practice English reading for English proficiency tests	17(24.6%)	37(53.6%)	12(17.4%)	3(4.3%)	0	69
Reading English magazines	13(20.0%)	29(44.6%)	21(32.3%)	2(3.1%)	0	65
Singing English songs	16(26.7%)	19(31.7%)	25(41.7%)	0	0	60
Listening to English stories or CD	9(15.8%)	22(38.6%)	24(42.1%)	2(3.5%)	0	57
Listening to English radio programs	3(5.8%)	21(40.4%)	24(46.2%)	4(7.7%)	0	52
Sending messages in English (including text messages, online instant messages, *Facebook* messages etc.)	11(21.2%)	20(38.5%0	20(38.5%)	1(1.9%)	0	52
Browsing English websites	8(18.2%)	18(40.9%)	14(31.8%)	4(9.1%)	0	44
Practicing English speaking with others	16(39.0%)	14(34.1%)	11(26.8%)	0	0	41
Attending cramming school	7(17.1%)	20(48.8%)	13(31.7%)	1(2.4%)	0	41
Reading English novels	7(18.9%)	16(43.2%)	11(29.7%)	3(8.1%)	0	37
Read-aloud English articles	6(16.2%)	22(59.5%)	9(24.3%)	0	0	37
Watching English news	7(20.0%)	17(48.6%)	10(28.6%)	1(2.9%)	0	35
Reading English news	2(7.1%)	10(35.7%)	14(50.0%)	1(3.6%)	1(3.6%)	28
Memorizing idioms or articles	5(17.9%)	11(39.6%)	11(39.6%)	1(3.6%)	0	28
Writing mails in English	9(39.1%)	4(17.4%)	9(39.1%)	1(4.3%)	0	23
Reading English comic books	2(16.7%)	5(41.7%)	3(25.0%)	2(16.7%)	0	12
Keeping a diary in English	1(9.1%)	4(36.4%)	6(54.5%)	0	0	11
Study-abroad	4(66.7%)	1(16.7%)	1(16.7%)	0	0	6
Hiring tutors	1(20.0%)	3(60.6%)	1(20.0%)	0	0	5
Attending working holidays abroad	2(66.9%)	1(33.3%)	0	0	0	3

More than 50% (64.4%) of those who conducted out-of-class English-learning activities revealed that watching English movies yielded good results in their language learning. An interesting phenomenon was that English certificate-related activities came in the forth and fifth places among the participants' choices, whereas those activities were considered very effective regarding learning outcomes from the perspectives of the participants (80.0% and 78.3% respectively). For the majority of the English majors, learning effectiveness of English proficiency tests was not a decisive factor in conducting out-of-class English-learning activities. Interest and entertainment-related activities seemed to dominate most English majors' choices.

Table 4 showed that 85% of those who conducted out-of-class English-learning activities decided for themselves how they wanted to pursue out-of-class English learning. Whenever they encountered difficulties and problems, they usually went to their teachers or friends for help and suggestions. Finally, when they were asked whether out-of-class activities had had a positive effect on their in-class learning, 60.8% of those who conducted out-of-class English-learning activities agreed.

TABLE 4:
PERCEIVED EFFECTS OF OUT-OF-CLASS ENGLISH LEARNING ON IN-CLASS LEARNING

Factor	Choices	N	%
How do you make decisions of the methods for out-of-class English learning? (Please mark everything that applies).	Recommendation by teachers	23	14.2
	Recommendation by friends	15	9.3
	Your own decision	136	84.0
	Others	1	.6
How do you solve the problems encountered?	Seek for help from teachers	88	56.4
	Look for solutions on your own	87	55.8
	Ignore the problems	6	3.8
	Others	2	1.3
Out-of-class English learning is helpful (N=166)	Agree	101	60.8
	Fair	61	36.7
	Not agree	4	2.4

Overall, the results from Table 1, 2, and 3 showed that out-of-class English-learning activities were generally well-received by the majority of the English majors, and that listening to English songs and memorizing vocabulary were significantly more popular than any other activities among the respondents' choices. Finally, the results appeared to emphasize that out-of-class English-learning activities yielded positive effects on the participants' in-class learning.

B. Vocational College English Majors' Out-of-class English-learning Perspectives

Table 5 shows that the majority of the English majors believed it was necessary to conduct out-of-class English-learning activities (M=4.21) because out-of-class English-learning activities were helpful in improving individual English proficiency (M=4.29), passing English proficiency tests (M=4.12), and promoting learning motivation (M=4.08). The majority of the English majors did not consider out-of-class English-learning activities a waste of time.

TABLE 5:
ENGLISH MAJORS' OUT-OF-CLASS ENGLISH LEARNING PERSPECTIVES

	Mean	SD
1. You are supposed to conduct out-of-class English learning with or without taking English classes.	4.21	.673
2. Out-of-class English learning is helpful in improving your English proficiency.	4.29	.656
3. Out-of-class English learning helps you pass English related certificates.	4.12	.783
4. Out-of-class English learning helps improve your motivation for learning English.	4.08	.772
5. Out-of-class English learning is considered a waste of time.	1.74	.769
6. It is flexible to conduct out-of-class English learning.	4.14	.673
7. Out-of-class English learning resources are diverse.	4.27	.657
8. There is no pressure when it comes to out-of-class English learning.	3.94	.868
9. It is not easy to persist in out-of-class English learning.	3.20	1.051
10. Compared to in-class English curriculum, out-of-class English learning is more structured.	3.26	.831
11. Out-of-class English learning is more fun than in-class English classes.	3.86	.776
12. Out-of-class English learning is considered more important than in-class English learning.	3.54	.828
13. Out-of-class English learning is more beneficial than in-class English learning.	3.57	.721
14. Out-of-class English learning helps you with your in-class English learning.	4.01	.735
15. It is necessary to set your study plan for out-of-class English learning.	3.66	.843
16. It is necessary to have you guided for the out-of-class English learning.	3.08	.926
17. It is more efficient to have a study partner for your out-of-class English learning.	3.67	.946
18. To conduct out-of-class English learning, English proficiency is considered a prerequisite.	3.92	1.021
19. Compared to non-English majors, it is more important and urgent for English majors to conduct out-of-class English learning.	3.67	.971
20. The learning outcomes of out-of-class English learning cannot be easily measured.	3.09	.928

The majority of the English majors found it flexible to conduct out-of-class English-learning activities (M=4.14), and they felt stressed about learning compared with in-class learning (M=3.94). They believed that it was more difficult to persist with out-of-class activities in the long run (M=3.20). In addition, most of the English majors agreed that there were a variety of English-learning resources available on the market (M=4.27).

The results revealed that out-of-class English-learning activities were more fun to learn (M=3.86) and more important (M=3.54) compared with the participants' in-class English learning. Further, the participants believed that out-of-class English-learning outcomes were indeed helpful in promoting their in-class English learning (M=4.01). That is, learning outcomes from out-of-class English learning were crucial to supporting the participants' progress in class and their persistence over time.

In conducting out-of-class English-learning activities, the participants believed that planning was prerequisite (M=3.66) and that study groups would also help promote out-of-class English learning (M=3.67). The participants in this study revealed that fluent English proficiency was necessary to conduct out-of-class English learning (M=3.92). They tended to agree that English majors should conduct more out-of-class English learning than should non-English majors (M=3.67). Finally, the participants agreed that the learning outcomes from out-of-class English learning could not be easily measured (M=3.09). Overall, the participants believed that out-of-class English learning was necessary and beneficial, especially for English majors.

C. Successful Vocational College English Majors' Out-of-class English-learning Experiences and Perspectives

Through semi-structured interviews, the eight successful English majors' out-of-class English-learning experiences and perspectives were further explored. Table 6 shows the demographic information on the eight participants.

The semi-structured interview protocols were based on the research questions (see Appendix B). To further explore the differences between the successful English majors and the rest, the results from the surveys were considered crucial to further revealing the successful English majors' underlying thoughts and beliefs.

TABLE 6:
THE DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION OF THE SUCCESSFUL ENGLISH MAJORS

Pseudonym	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H
Year	Senior	Senior	Senior	Senior	Senior	Senior	Freshman	Freshman
Gender	Male	Female	Female	Male	Female	Female	Male	Female
TOEIC score	790	825	820	815	795	760	755	755

Several themes emerged from the interviews with the successful English majors: 1) Out-of-class English learning helps the students prepare for English proficiency tests; 2) the students incorporate online resources into out-of-class English learning; 3) they emphasize listening and reading activities; and 4) the students further their personal interests.

All of the eight successful English majors conducted out-of-class English learning and were able to maintain that as part of their daily routines. When asked to comment on why they conducted out-of-class English learning, the responses were generally positive and centered on improving English proficiency and preparing for English proficiency tests.

Six out of the eight interviewees revealed that they were motivated to conduct out-of-class English learning because they wanted to improve their English proficiency test scores. It was obvious that their goals were clearly set and were test-oriented.

Out-of-class English learning could help me prepare for my TOEIC exam. Plus, I would like to study abroad in the future. I believe that practicing my English is important. My TOEIC score is 790 points now. I would like to reach at least 900 points before I graduate in June. (Student A)

You definitely need to study English out of classes if you would like to achieve a certain level of English proficiency. The classes at school do not necessarily focus on or include English proficiency test-related skills, so you would have to be on your own if you would like to see improvement on your tests or even develop English learning as an interest. (Student B)

I started my study because I had only 510 points when I first took the TOEIC test. I was so upset because English majors should at least achieve at least 750 points in their sophomore year. After that, I started to plan my own out-of-class English learning while attending a cramming program for the TOEIC test. (Student C)

I conducted out-of-class English learning simply because I wanted to improve my TOEIC score. I know that I could have a better job if I have a good TOEIC score…in-class English is not enough if you would like to polish your English skills. (Student F)

All of the interviewees responded that they had incorporated online resources into their out-of-class English learning because of the great variety. Unlike the English textbooks, the online resources were more interesting and more related to their day-to-day interests.

To practice my speaking skills, I use Skype to talk to my net-friends from around the world. With a click, the world is simply like a small village. Everything is so available. Aside from *Skype*, I also have a *Facebook* account that I can use to send messages to my friends from different countries. Talking in English is really different from the in-class exercises (in-class English tests). If you want to be able to use English, you really need to talk (with emphasis) in English first. (Student A)

I usually listen to online English radio programs, such as *ICRT*, to practice my listening skill. And, *YouTube* is also a great choice if you like to watch clips on particular topics. I like out-of-class English learning because I can pick the topics that interest me, and learning is not confined in any way. I can do that at any time and any place. Learning is supposed to be fun. Plus, English learning nowadays is very convenient because of easy access to lots of resources online. (Student C)

To make myself more competitive regarding English proficiency, I watch *CNN* news every day. *CNN* news is a great way to improve my listening skill. Besides that, I have a social exchange account online, a *Facebook* account. *Facebook* provides me wonderful opportunities to get to know people from English-speaking countries. I believe that speaking with native speakers of English will help me improve my speaking skill. (Student E)

Most of the interviewees reported favorably on listening and reading activities. Only one of the interviewees conducted speaking activities because he had friends from around the world that he occasionally chatted with. *Facebook and YouTube* were widely accepted as resources for conducting out-of-class English learning. To the interviewees, listening and reading activities were easier to conduct. Furthermore, the TOEIC test does not include speaking test, which might have directed them to focus more on listening and reading activities.

Since TOEIC test focuses on reading and listening tests, I tend to focus more on those two parts. Plus, it was difficult to find someone that you can practice speaking with for long. Of course, I met friends online and talked to them. But, those social exchange communications usually do not last for long. (Student B)

Speaking is definitely an important skill. But, without solid foundation in reading and listening, it is difficult to produce appropriate and effective output in speaking. I love to talk in English. For now, I would simply focus on listening and reading. (Student C)

There are speaking resources available online. But, you would have to pay for the service. I think I have to practice my listening and reading for now…speaking is another level of advancement when I am good enough in English. I expect myself to be able to really speak fluent English in the future. (Student E)

Based on reports from all interviewees, it was obvious that they were motivated to conduct out-of-class English-learning activities because of personal interest and that they had been doing out-of-class English learning for a period of time. It was a common thread that all of the interviewees started their out-of-class learning in preparation for English proficiency-related tests and that they all ended up keeping out-of-class English learning as an interest they developed over time.

English learning shouldn't be separated from one's real life. So, I try to incorporate my day-to-day topics into my English learning. I surf on the Internet every day, and I learn English online as well. Gradually, you feel like English learning is part of your life…it is even better if you can find someone to work with you as a team. (Student B)

I love my own out-of-class English learning because it gives me information about what I am interested in. English helps you explore the world around you, and it provides you updated news. I love exploring the world in my own way. Learning is not as boring as you think if you develop an interest in it. (Student C)

It is great to use English in a practical way. We always learn how to take tests but not really about how to use the language appropriately and effectively. Being able to really use English makes me more curious about what people from different cultures think. Without English, I wouldn't be able to communicate with them. (Student D)

I always know that English proficiency provides an individual comparative edge, which is especially important for graduates from technology universities. I need to get ready for my future employment…English is fun to learn. What I learn from out-of-class contexts really helps improve my in-class tests. But, I would consider out-of-class learning more important because it paves the way for your lifelong learning. (Student F)

In order to improve my TOEFL score, I realized that I needed to do something extra to help me practice. Out-of-class English learning gradually became part of my routine because I was determined to make it happen. During the process, I developed the passion for learning English. Learning English was no longer for grades, but for my own interest. (Student H)

V. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

To conclude, the present study is preliminary a research study on vocational college English majors' out-of-class English learning, but its relevance to motivation and autonomy can also be seen. A major finding is that the successful vocational college English majors were more motivated and interested in conducting out-of-class English learning because all of them had developed out-of-class English learning as part of their learning routines, in contrast with their peers. The results indicate that the successful English majors participated more aggressively in their English learning. Based on the successful English majors' accounts, it can be reasoned that their motivation and interest support and persist them in learning over time. The findings confirm those of Eslami-Rasekh, Rezaei, and Davoudi (2012) that motivation will eventually lead to better learning performance. That is, the better performance of the successful English majors seems to indicate that their motivation and interest in out-of-class English learning played a crucial role in their English learning journey. As emphasized by the successful English majors, out-of-class learning proved to be a useful skill for helping to increase their motivation and learning outcomes. More importantly, their out-of-class learning motivation mainly derived from personal interests and determination. However, exactly how their interests were generated in the first place remained unclear.

For about one-third of the vocational college English majors, out-of-class English learning was initiated to help improve their English proficiency test scores because they believed that out-of-class English learning would help improve their learning outcomes on English standardized tests. In other words, the reason for conducting out-of-class activities was test-oriented. Despite this motivation, a small percentage of the English majors started their out-of-class English learning because they wanted to develop their interest in English. As for the out-of-class English activities, listening to English songs and watching movies were the most popular among their choices. It was shown that the students' out-of-class English learning was focused more on entertainment-related activities. As indicated in prior research (Kumaravadivelu, 2003), extracurricular activities, namely out-of-class activities, that incorporate learners' personal interests are significant for increasing learning opportunities beyond regular in-class settings. Enjoyable learning activities based on learners' interests can help maintain and increase learners' motivation (Dörnyei, 2001). Eventually, motivation would help improve students' learning outcomes.

For most of the vocational college English majors, their out-of-class English learning did not provide them expected outcomes. According to the records at the time of participation, only 20 students had a TOEIC score of 750 points or higher. Although out-of-class studying was common among the participants, it did not provide most of them with significant improvements to their English learning outcomes. As the survey results indicated, learning effectiveness was not a decisive factor for most of the English majors when it came to out-of-class English learning. Unlike the successful English majors, most of the English majors did not conduct their out-of-class English learning as goal-oriented and determined as the successful English majors.

Among the successful English majors, five of them (Student A, B, E, F, H) started their out-of-class English learning to prepare for English proficiency tests, such as the TOEIC and the GEPT. Most of the successful English majors tried to improve their English proficiency by conducting entertainment-related activities, such as watching movies or listening to music. Prensky (2007) noted that integrating entertainment-related activities and learning would help improve learning outcomes. Compared with the rest of the English majors, the successful English learners incorporated their English learning into their leisure activities, set a goal, and persisted over time.

Based on the results of the study, most of the successful English majors tended to focus their out-of-class learning on listening and reading related activities, such as listening to English radio programs, watching *CNN* news, and reading English magazines. The major differences between the successful English majors and the rest were that the successful English majors were more capable of persisting with their out-of-class English learning over time, set feasible goals

more aggressively, and continuously revised their actions to achieve what they had planned. Betts and Kercher (1999) noted that autonomous learning is not an easy task. Pierson (1996) and Chan (2001) emphasized that successful autonomous learning relied greatly on learners' motivation and attitudes. It appears that the key to successful learning outcomes lie in learner's motivation and persistence over time. The participants (Students A, B, G, H) showed great motivation to improve their English proficiency through out-of-class English-learning activities; students B and G were interested in English learning when they started their out-of-class activities. The common threat among the successful English majors was that they were able to maintain their out-of-class English learning over time. However, it is also worth noting that motivation is constantly and dynamically changing. As language instructors, it is important that we be aware of this reality and be flexible about making necessary adjustments to help increase learners' motivation.

Another finding also suggested that the successful English majors were more capable of setting feasible goals and continuing to work toward their goals. The successful English majors were motivated because they had goals to work towards; they developed their own learning styles and extended their in-class learning into their day-to-day lives (HoffMacan & Shahani, 1990). More importantly, out-of-class learning activities should not be separated from learners' in-class learning; the successful English majors noted that out-of-class learning indeed helped them progress significantly in classes.

As revealed by the English majors, study groups and guidance were needed to help promote out-of-class English learning. Unlike the successful English majors, most of the English majors needed to rely on their peers or teachers to further guide their out-of-class learning because out-of-class learning is usually not as structured and organized as the in-class curriculum. Although most of the English majors felt the need to conduct out-of-class English learning, they were somewhat discouraged by their perceived proficiency as they reported. According to the survey results, the English majors believed that fluent English proficiency was a prerequisite for conducting out-of-class English learning. The results further demonstrated that encouragement, support and instruction were needed to help promote out-of-class learning.

The present findings confirm previous evidence that motivation is positively correlated to learning performance (Gardner, 2001; Hsiao, Tu, & Chung, 2012). The successful English majors seemed to more aggressively conduct their out-of-class English-learning activities because they were more motivated to do so. Compared with their peers, the successful English majors were more capable of persisting with their out-of-class English-learning activities and continuously setting feasible goals. Being able to extend in-class learning into their day-to-day lives was crucial for the successful English majors to not only customize their learning but also integrate learning in a way that could be developed as a hobby and an interest over time. In a macro view of education, learning is meant to develop an individual's life-long learning skills. Learning how to learn is more crucial and significant to an individual's development over time. As a language teacher, it is important to develop learners' autonomous learning skills, which will benefit them in the long run.

VI. RECOMMENDATIONS

Teachers have dramatic impacts on students' learning (Alton, 2006; Covill, 2011). If teachers could act as coordinators, facilitators and promoters to help learners develop autonomous learning in out-of-class contexts, long-term learning outcomes can be reached. In addition, it is suggested teaching materials be integrated with students' interests so that learning can be more fun and enjoyable (Dörnyei, 2001). Online learning resources are recommended for use as homework assignments outside of regular class sessions because they provide a variety of topics for students to choose from.

Future research is obviously required, and an important area for future research in the years to come will be in how to motivate low-achievers to conduct out-of-class learning so that their interests can be developed over time. Finally, it is hoped that the study will shed some light on several issues or at least pave the way for new research projects that will help low-achievers find more appropriate and personalized ways to learn foreign languages in vocational college settings.

APPENDIX A. OUT-OF-CLASS ENGLISH LEARNING SURVEY

Part 1: Background Information
(Please mark inside box)
1. Program: □Day program □Night Program
2. Year: □Freshmen □Sophomore □Junior □Senior
3. Gender: □Female □Male
4. Certificates obtained:
□TOEIC Grade:
□GEPT elementary level: □First Stage □Second Stage
□GEPT intermediate level: □First Stage □Second Stage
□GEPT High-intermediate level: □First Stage □Second Stage
□Others: Grade:

□Plan to obtain the following certificates in the future: □GEPT Level:____
□TOEIC □TOEFL □Others: (Please name)
Please leave your name, cell phone number, and e-mail for further interviews. Thank you!
Name: Cell number:
E-mail:
Part 2: Experiences of out-of-class English learning
1. When did you start to learn English (including any informal out-of-class English learning, such as attending cramming school)
□Kindergarten □First-second grade □Third-forth grade □Fifth-sixth grade □The summer before attending junior high school □Junior high school
2. Where did you first start your English learning?
□At school □Cramming school □Tutoring □Self-studying at home □Overseas □Others
3. Have you ever conducted any out-of-class English learning (If **never**, please go to Question 8.)
□always   □often   □sometimes   □rarely □never (Please briefly describe the reason if you answer "**never**".)
4. When do you usually conduct your out-of-class English learning?
□weekdays □weekends □summer and winter vacation □other time:
5. What is (are) the primary motivation(s) for your out-of-class English learning?(Please mark everything that applies to you)
□Requests from your parents □Suggestions from teachers □Preparation for English certificates □For your future job requirement □For study-abroad □For self-improvement □Personal interests □As leisure activities to spend time □Others (Please explain):
6. Where do you usually conduct out-of-class English learning? (Please mark everything that applies to you.)
□At school □At cramming school □At home □At off-campus libraries □Others
7. What are the resources that you use for out-of-class English learning? (Please mark everything that applies to you)
□On the Internet □Self-learning software □On TV □Watching movies □Listening to radio programs □CD/MP3 □Books □Magazines □Newspaper □Dictionary □Attending cramming school □From peers □From foreign friends □Others_____
8. Which skill(s) do you emphasize more? (Please mark everything that applies to you.)
□Listening □Speaking □Reading □Writing □Translation
9. What are your ways of out-of-class English learning? How are the perceived learning outcomes?

Ways of Out-of-class English Learning	Perceived Learning Outcomes
□Listen to English songs	□Very good □Good □Fair □Bad □Very bad
□Listening to English radio programs	□Very good □Good □Fair □Bad □Very bad
□Listening to English stories or CD	□Very good □Good □Fair □Bad □Very bad
□Practicing English listening for English proficiency tests (includes TOEIC or GEPT etc.)	□Very good □Good □Fair □Bad □Very bad
□Practicing English reading for English proficiency tests (including TOEIC or GEPT tests, etc.)	□Very good □Good □Fair □Bad □Very bad
□Reading English novels	□Very good □Good □Fair □Bad □Very bad
□Reading English comic books	□Very good □Good □Fair □Bad □Very bad
□Reading English magazines	□Very good □Good □Fair □Bad □Very bad
□Reading English newspaper	□Very good □Good □Fair □Bad □Very bad
□Browsing English websites	□Very good □Good □Fair □Bad □Very bad
□Watching English movies	□Very good □Good □Fair □Bad □Very bad
□Watching English news	□Very good □Good □Fair □Bad □Very bad
□Practicing English speaking	□Very good □Good □Fair □Bad □Very bad
□Singing English songs	□Very good □Good □Fair □Bad □Very bad
□Read-aloud English articles	□Very good □Good □Fair □Bad □Very bad
□Memorizing idioms or articles	□Very good □Good □Fair □Bad □Very bad
□Vocabulary memorization only	□Very good □Good □Fair □Bad □Very bad
□Writing letters or e-mails in English	□Very good □Good □Fair □Bad □Very bad
□Sending messages in English (including text messages, online instant messages, *Facebook* messages etc.	□Very good □Good □Fair □Bad □Very bad
□Keeping a diary in English.	□Very good □Good □Fair □Bad □Very bad
□Attending cramming school.	□Very good □Good □Fair □Bad □Very bad
□Hiring tutors.	□Very good □Good □Fair □Bad □Very bad
□Joining study-abroad programs.	□Very good □Good □Fair □Bad □Very bad
□Attending working holidays abroad	□Very good □Good □Fair □Bad □Very bad
□Others	□Very good □Good □Fair □Bad □Very bad

10. How do you make decisions of the methods for out-of-class English learning?
□Recommendation   from   teachers   □Recommendation   from   friends   □Your   own   decision   □Others
_____
11. Have you encountered any difficulties in the process of out-of-class English learning? □Yes □No

If so, how do you solve your problem(s)?

□Seeking suggestions and advices from others □Looking for solutions yourself □Ignore the problems □others_____

12. Does out-of-class English learning help your **in-class** learning in any way?

□Yes □Somehow □Not at all

Part 3: Perceptions of out-of-class English Learning

	Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1. You are supposed to conduct out-of-class English learning with or without taking English classes.					
2. Out-of-class English is helpful in improving your English proficiency.					
3. Out-of-class English learning helps you pass English related certificates.					
4. Out-of-class English learning helps improve your motivation for learning English.					
5. Out-of-class English learning is considered a waste of time.					
6. It is flexible to conduct out-of-class English learning.					
7. Out-of-class English learning resources are diverse.					
8. There is no pressure when it comes to out-of-class English learning.					
9. It is not easy to persist in out-of-class English learning.					
10. Compared with in-class English curriculum, out-of-class English learning is more structured.					
11. Out-of-class English learning is more fun than in-class English classes.					
12. Out-of-class English learning is considered more important than in-class English learning.					
13. Out-of-class English learning is more beneficial than in-class English learning.					
14. Out-of-class English learning helps you with your in-class English learning.					
15. It is necessary to set your study plan for out-of-class English learning.					
16. It is necessary to have someone guide you with your out-of-class English learning.					
17. It is more efficient to have a study partner for your out-of-class English learning.					
18. To conduct out-of-class English learning, English proficiency is considered a prerequisite.					
19. Compared with non-English majors, it is more important and urgent for English majors to conduct out-of-class English learning.					
20. The learning outcomes of out-of-class English learning cannot be easily measured.					

APPENDIX B. THE INTERVIEW PROTOCOLS

1. What are your perceptions of out-of-class English learning?
2. What are your experiences with out-of-class English learning?
3. How has out-of-class English learning influenced your English learning?

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Examining the Effectiveness of Group Counseling in Reducing Anxiety for Jordanian EFL Learners

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Abstract—This study aimed at examining the effectiveness of Rational Emotive Behavior Therapy (REBT) as used in group counseling to reduce the level of anxiety for Jordanian learners of English as a foreign language. The study sample consisted of 32 male and female students at Ajloun National University. The students were all at the undergraduate level and have received the highest anxiety scores on the foreign language anxiety scale. The students were randomly divided into two groups; an experimental group and a controlled group. Each group consisted of 16 male and female students. The experimental group received training on REBT, while no remedial training was given to the controlled group. Results of the study revealed that REBT was more effective in reducing the anxiety level for learners of English compared to the absence of using the remedial program for members of the controlled group. Statistical analysis showed a statistically significant difference between the experimental group and the controlled group (α= 0.05). The use of REBT was not gender specific since statistical analysis revealed no statistically significant difference between males and females (α= 0.05).

Index Terms—anxiety, English language, foreign language anxiety, REBT, Jordanian students

I. INTRODUCTION

Language is a very crucial component of any culture. It is the most important means of communication and understanding among people. Members of any society attempt to prove themselves primarily through their language at the level of intercultural dialogue and exchange of knowledge among different societies. The process of first language acquisition takes place under natural circumstances as an indivisible part of the development of an individual and his/her social and psychological maturity (Aly & Walker, 2007).

Learning a second or foreign language is different from acquiring the native language since it is acquired under normal and completely natural circumstances as mentioned above. The age factor in which a foreign language is learned is one of the most important factors in the process of foreign language learning (Bialystok & Hakuta, 1994). This is due to the flexibility of the brain before the age of puberty which enables the child to acquire language more effectively and easily. It becomes more difficult for the learner to acquire language after the age of puberty especially the phonetic system of language (Singleton & Lengyel, 1995).

Motivation is one of the most important factors in foreign language learning which stands behind the goal of learning a target language coupled with intelligence, readiness, hard work as well as the strategies used in second or foreign language learning (Al-Damegh, 2011). This is in addition to other emotive factors such as anxiety, which is considered as one of the most effective factors in foreign language learning and causes an obstacle that prohibits the learner from becoming fully competent.

II. STUDY PROBLEM

Foreign language anxiety may be considered as one of the most common psychological disorders among foreign language learners at the university level in particular. A considerable number of university students complain from the symptoms of foreign language anxiety which could become severe and serve as an obstacle on the way of learners when learning or acquiring a foreign language.

Former theoretical studies in this field point to the fact that there is a lack of studies in Arabic or any other language that attempted to examine the effectiveness of group counseling in dealing with the issue of foreign language anxiety. This is exactly what justifies the authors to carry out this study. This is done as an attempt to investigate the effectiveness of REBT as a treatment program to university students who attempt to learn English as a foreign language.

III. PURPOSE

The purpose of this study is to examine the effectiveness of REBT in treating the phenomenon of foreign language anxiety for male and female undergraduate university students at Ajloun National University in Jordan. The study attempted to investigate the following hypothesis: "There are statistically significant differences ($\alpha = 0.05$) in the treatment of foreign language anxiety which is due to the impact of the group or gender or the interaction between them".

IV. SIGNIFICANCE

This study may be considered important and significant due to the following reasons:

• It is concerned with discovering the individuals who suffer from foreign language anxiety and attempts to help them in restoring self-esteem and confidence and enables them to get rid of the problems and obstacles that hinder their learning process.

• It provides psychological counselors with a treatment program which can be utilized to help learners who seek counseling due to foreign language anxiety.

• It contributes to the encouragement of researchers and educators in designing additional counseling programs that are preventable, developmental and remedial in nature and which are suitable and effective in reducing the level of anxiety for learners of English as a foreign language. This undoubtedly contributes to fostering and achieving a higher level of performance.

• It is hoped that this study will serve as a new beginning and a steppingstone for further educational and scientific research that specifically deal with the very issue of foreign language anxiety in general and anxiety associated with learning English as a foreign language in particular.

V. DEFINITIONS

Foreign language anxiety: A number of physiological, behavioral and knowledge related responses that accompany an individual's feelings as a result of his or her own negative expectations and of failure in terms of negative performance related to foreign language learning. This concept of anxiety is measured in this study by a foreign language anxiety scale adopted by the authors for this particular purpose.

Rational Emotive Behavior Therapy (REBT): This is one of the approaches of psychological treatment which relies primarily on teaching individuals how to prioritize their belief systems to a great extent and how they feel towards events in their life and surrounding environment and how they react towards such events (Bachman & Palmer, 1996). Irrational beliefs that cause foreign language anxiety are identified and justified and later replaced by other beliefs that are considered to be rational through a treatment program which consists of ten group counseling sessions.

VI. METHODOLOGY

For purposes of this study, 32 male and female undergraduate students were chosen from those university students enrolled at Ajloun National University during the Fall semester of the academic year 2013-2014. Participants in the study based on their foreign language anxiety scores. Students with the highest anxiety scores were selected and asked to take part in the study. Participants were randomly divided into two groups: An experimental group and a controlled group. The REBT treatment program was administered to students participating in the experimental group leaving participants in the controlled group without any treatment programs. Each group consisted of 16 participants.

For purposes of this study, the authors used the foreign language anxiety scale (Horwitz, E., Horwitz, M. & Cope, 1986). The scale consisted of 33 items. The scale was translated into Arabic, the students' native language, then distributed to participants who were asked to respond in a 5-level gradual grading system (0= strongly disagree - 5= strongly agree). The lowest score on the scale is; therefore, 0, while the highest score was 165.

The foreign language anxiety scale may be described as a scale which measures the level of anxiety of learners in a situation where they attempt to learn English as a foreign language. The scale consists of 33 items (please see appendix).

The researchers translated the original language anxiety scale from English into Arabic. The scale was then evaluated by a number of specialists in the areas of educational psychology, psychological counseling and English language. They were all requested to offer their opinions regarding language style, clarity of meaning and any other modifications they may feel necessary based on their experience and knowledge. The items on the scale were modified according to the comments and suggestions of the reviewers.

The researchers applied REBT as a remedial program on the experimental group which consisted of 16 students. Participants in the group received a total of 10 treatment sessions over a period of five weeks. Students received two sessions a week with each session lasting for approximately 50 minutes.

The application of REBT aimed at assisting students who suffer from foreign language anxiety by getting rid of negative destructive thoughts which cause them anxiety and make them feel discouraged when attempting to learn English as a foreign language. The REBT program consisted of the following sessions:

- First session: Getting to know each other. This session was concerned with fostering the relationship between the counselor and members of the group. The purpose of the treatment program was explained and an explanation of REBT was given to participants. Possible activities were discussed and a homework assignment was given to students.
- Second session: Foreign language anxiety. In this session, the previous homework assignment was reviewed; foreign language anxiety was explained including its definition, causes and consequences through lecturing, discussing and interaction. The session was concluded with a homework assignment.
- The third session: Explaining REBT. In this session, the previous homework assignment was reviewed. The theoretical concepts of REBT were discussed. Irrational thoughts that cause foreign language anxiety were discussed through dialogue and interaction. The session was concluded with giving a homework assignment.
- The fourth session: The importance of relaxation in facing language anxiety. In this session, the previous homework assignment was reviewed. The method of relaxation was discussed along with its importance in facing English language anxiety learning. This was primarily conducted through discussion and dialogue along with exercises related to relaxation. The session was concluded with giving a homework assignment.
- The fifth session: Relaxation training. In the beginning of this session, the previous homework assignment was reviewed. It consisted mainly of using the practical method of relaxation training through explain what relaxation means and how it may be achieved along with applying it to members of the group. This session was also concluded with a homework assignment.
- The sixth session: Rebuilding constructive knowledge. The session consisted of reviewing the previous homework and explained the meaning of rebuilding constructive knowledge along with logical analysis of thoughts. Irrational thoughts were investigated. This was conducted also through discussion and dialogue and concluded with a homework assignment.
- The seventh session: Training on the method of reconstructing knowledge. This session started with reviewing the previous homework. It discussed the method of rebuilding knowledge through discussion, dialogue and self suggestion. Focus was given to distinguishing between irrational thoughts and associating that with REBT and how irrational thoughts can be turned into rational ones. The session was also concluded with another homework assignment.
- The eighth session: Argumentative dialogue. This session began with reviewing the previous homework. Questions were directed to members of the group to clarify the irrational beliefs and their approval of these misconceptions and the approval of the rational beliefs instead. The session was concluded with another homework assignment.
- The ninth session: Facing self talk. The session began with reviewing the previous assignment. Individuals were taught how to face negative self talk and how to replace it with a more positive talk. It was also concluded with another homework assignment.
- The final session: Evaluating the program and thanking participants for their participation and discipline. In this session, participants were thanked for their efforts and participation after the program was evaluated. Students were urged to stay in touch with the counselor and asked not to hesitate in asking for any future counseling if it is ever needed.

VII. LIMITATIONS

This study is limited to a sample of 32 male and female students currently enrolled at Ajloun National University at various undergraduate programs. The study was conducted during the Fall semester of the academic year 2013-2014. The study dealt with anxiety related to learning English as a foreign language leaving out any other foreign languages.

VIII. LITERATURE REVIEW

A number of previous studies point to the significant, but negative role that anxiety plays in the process of learning a foreign language (Supon, 2004). Spielberger (1983) defines anxiety as an emotional state that triggers the natural nervous system at a given moment characterized by fear, stress and nervousness. It is also defined as a state of exhaustion at the knowledge level as well as the emotional, behavioral and physiological levels (Scholing & Emmelkamp, 1993). Moreover, anxiety may be defined as a state of annoyance and discomfort accompanied with physiological responses such as accelerated heart beats and irregular breathing. Other behavioral responses include weakness in performance and the deliberate avoidance of being in certain situations (Barlow, 1988).

Anxiety differs according to its types which include anxiety about the future, marital anxiety, death anxiety, social anxiety, test anxiety and foreign language learning anxiety among other kinds of anxiety which different people in society face at relatively different levels of seriousness including university students who have to face anxiety as a result of psychological and academic pressure related to the different life circumstances that they have to face which includes the process of foreign language learning.

The process of foreign language learning in general and learning English in particular is considered the gateway to different cultures, sciences and technologies. Thus, studying the obstacles that hinder the learning of English is extremely important and represents one of the most important ways of learning and acquiring the language. Therefore, Foreign Language Anxiety (FLA) is one of the factors that affect the level of competence for students in the process of foreign language learning especially the English language.

The English language has a special status and importance in the life of university students. This is true since it is extremely important for university students to pass university placement tests especially at the graduate level since passing an English proficiency test with a certain score is now a prerequisite for graduate admission for Jordanian students at all levels of graduate studies and applies to all majors. This makes it crucial for Jordanian college students to be proficient in English in order to pass such exams. However, there are so many challenges that go along with learning English as a foreign language at Jordanian universities. Anxiety may be considered as one of the most salient challenges that students have to face when learning English since it makes them feel unqualified to pass English placement tests. This feeling is negatively reflected on the level of achievement and empowerment.

In a study conducted on Chinese students learning English as a foreign language, the results of the study showed that anxiety was one of the most important factors affecting language learning (Xu & Li, 2010). In another study conducted on American students learning Arabic as a foreign language, the study results revealed that anxiety was negatively associated with achievement and the ability to learn a foreign language (Campbell, 1995). Foreign language anxiety was given a lot of attention by scholars and linguistic researchers since it is a determining factor in the learning process (Hu, 2003).

Foreign language anxiety may be defined as an emotional state accompanied by physiological and behavioral aspects that become apparent on the case of the individual learning languages other than his or her native language. Anxiety is also defined as a state of instability on the knowledge and cognitive aspects which negatively affects students' performance when attempting to learn a foreign language (Horwitz, E., Horwitz, M. & Cope, 1986).

There are several factors that contribute to foreign language anxiety: Aly & Walker (2007), for example claims that the methods and approaches of foreign language teaching, the lack of time set aside to language learners and the unavailability of native language speakers constitute the most important reasons behind foreign language anxiety (Tanveer, 2007).

There are also other factors associated with foreign language anxiety which include: Age, gender and personal traits of learners (Campbell, 1995 & Dewaele, 2002). Chazan & Jackson (1971) claims that factors which cause foreign language anxiety may be classified into two major categories namely: Factors directly related to the teaching process and factors directly related to the learners. Factors related to the teaching process are represented by activities that accompany the learning process, methods of teaching and the interaction between learners themselves. As for factors related to the learners themselves, they include variables associated with such language learners, age, educational level, gender and personal traits (Baron, 1993).

There is a negative impact associated with foreign language anxiety and the factors that cause it. These negative factors cause the learners to lose their sense of self effectiveness which is extremely important to possess a strong will and motivation. This kind of motivation enables the learners to reach a high level of performance. Some of the consequences associated with foreign language anxiety, as stated by (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994), are directly related to academic, knowledge and social consequences. Academically, foreign language anxiety affects the sense of accomplishment, performance and the ability to pronounce English words correctly, or even using the grammatical rules of language properly. Knowledge wise, information processing is influenced by the expected speed with which language is learned or acquired. Socially, foreign language learners who suffer from a high level of anxiety may face ridicule by other individuals with whom they deal on a regular basis.

In order to deal effectively with the phenomenon of foreign language anxiety that affects the learners when attempting to learn English, this study executes a group counseling program which relies on the application of REBT. This treatment program was used on a number of students who constitute the sample of the study from Ajloun National University in Jordan. The application of the treatment program lasted for ten sessions. Group counseling here may be defined as a series of meetings between counselors and students systematically. Such groups are usually small and those students usually suffer from similar obstacles and desire to reach solutions for their problems.

The benefits of group counseling are most apparent in saving effort, cost and giving each participant the chance to participate others in the same group sharing their feelings and emotions. A group is usually considered as a source of positive modeling. Members of the same group usually support each other and if one member succeeds in a certain skill, the remaining members reinforce this success and appreciate it highly. The group in this case becomes a source of support. Another benefit of group counseling is that it is considered as a good opportunity for feedback from other members which gives the members the chance to see things as they are.

Based on the studies reviewed above, it is noticed that studies that dealt with the concept of foreign language anxiety, it becomes obvious that these studies are for the most part limited to surveying this topic in a shallow manner or in association with other issues. This kind of language anxiety was not dealt with through the use of treatment and counseling programs.

One thing that distinguishes this study from other previous studies is that it seeks to investigate the level of effectiveness of REBT in treating foreign language anxiety for undergraduate university students in Jordan. It may be claimed that this study is the first of its kind which deals with counseling programs and how they may be used in learning English as a foreign language.

IX. RESULTS AND CONCLUSIONS

The study hypotheses were tested using the following statistical procedures:

• The means and standard deviations were calculated for the scores of sampled individuals on the foreign language anxiety scale.

• Dual differentiation analysis was used to investigate if there were any statistically significant differences in the level of foreign language anxiety which are due to group, gender or interaction between the two.

The researchers first calculated the means and standard deviations in light of the variables of group and gender as shown in table I below:

TABLE I.
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR FOREIGN LANGUAGE ANXIETY
PRE-TEST ACCORDING TO GROUP AND GENDER

Group	Gender	Mean	Standard Deviation	N
Experimental	Male	3.48	0.252	8
	Female	3.55	0.654	8
	Total	3.51	0.480	16
Control	Male	3.50	0.325	8
	Female	3.26	0.292	8
	Total	3.38	0.323	16
Total	Male	3.49	0.281	16
	Female	3.40	0.511	16
	Total	3.45	0.408	32

Dual differentiation analysis was used to show the statistically significant differences between these means as illustrated in table II below:

TABLE II.
DUAL DIFFERENTIATION ANALYSIS FOR THE IMPACT OF GROUP AND GENDER AND INTERACTION
BETWEEN THE TWO ON FOREIGN LANGUAGE ANXIETY PRE-TEST

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Group	0.133	1	0.133	0.778	0.385
Gender	0.061	1	0.061	0.356	0.555
Group * Gender	0.193	1	0.193	1.132	0.296
Error	4.772	28	0.170		
Corrected Total	5.159	31			

Data in table II above show that there were no statistically significant differences ($\alpha= 0.05$) which can be due to the impact of the group, gender or interaction between them. This reflects the fact that the groups are equal in terms of group, gender or interaction between the two.

To investigate the reliability of the study hypothesis, means and standard deviations were calculated for the scores of both controlled and experimental groups on the scale of foreign language anxiety in the post test.

Table III below shows that means and standard deviations on the foreign language anxiety scale in light of the variables of group and gender.

TABLE III.
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR FOREIGN LANGUAGE ANXIETY POST TEST ACCORDING
TO GROUP AND GENDER

Group	Gender	Mean	Standard Deviation	N
Experimental	Male	2.72	0.412	8
	Female	2.67	0.390	8
	Total	2.70	0.388	16
Control	Male	3.11	0.472	8
	Female	3.21	0.085	8
	Total	3.16	0.332	16
Total	Male	2.92	0.474	16
	Female	2.94	0.389	16
	Total	2.93	0.427	32

Dual differentiation analysis was used to show the statistically significant differences between these means as illustrated in table IV below:

TABLE IV.
DUAL DIFFERENTIATION ANALYSIS FOR THE IMPACT OF GROUP AND GENDER AND INTERACTION BETWEEN
THE TWO ON FOREIGN LANGUAGE ANXIETY POST TEST

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Group	1.737	1	1.737	12.575	0.001	0.310
Gender	0.004	1	0.004	0.030	0.864	0.001
Group * Gender	0.041	1	0.041	0.300	0.588	0.011
Error	3.867	28	0.138			
Corrected Total	5.649	31				

Table IV above shows the following:

• The existence of statistically significant differences (α= 0.05) due to the impact of the group with a great impact in favor of the experimental group.

• The fact that there are no statistically significant differences (α= 0.05) due to gender.

• The fact that there are no statistically significant differences (α= 0.05) due to interaction between group and gender.

Based on data analysis as illustrated in the four tables above, results of the study revealed that there were statistically significant differences between the experimental and controlled groups. The results showed that the REBT treatment program was more influential in reducing foreign language anxiety for Jordanian university students with a significantly high level of influence regarding the study sample. This finding supports the hypothesis related to the impact of the group. This result may be interpreted in light of the level of effectiveness in using REBT as a treatment program in reducing foreign language anxiety for Jordanian university students as shown in the study sample. Therefore, it may be claimed that foreign language anxiety in general and English language anxiety in particular can be treated effectively using this particular method. Furthermore, results of the study show that REBT is extremely influential in group therapy as a means to reduce foreign language anxiety since it affects students' knowledge and thinking behavior trends. This in turn shows that foreign language anxiety is not at all justified or realistically substantiated.

The use of REBT works in two parallel directions namely knowledge based and behavior based. The anxious person's knowledge influences his or her information and thoughts. REBT attempts to get rid of such negative feelings and unrealistic thoughts. The behavioral side attempts to work in the same direction to put the anxious person in realistic situations which help him or her realize how to get rid of the feelings of fear regarding different situations.

In an attempt to compare and contrast using or not using REBT as a treatment program, the foreign language learner's feelings of anxiety will no doubt increase if REBT is not used especially in the beginning stages. It may be safely concluded that using REBT as a group therapy program to reduce anxiety will be a very effective tool in helping foreign language learners overcome their fear of learning a foreign language. REBT contributes to extinguishing the fear and anxiety associated with foreign language learning in general and English learning in particular as clearly shown in this study. It does so through effectively reducing sensitivity towards learning English as a foreign language and reducing the fear and anxiety associated with the process of language learning. These findings reaffirm the findings reached by Alghonaim (2014), who conducted a study that involved 52 English major students at Qassim University, Saudi Arabia in an attempt to determine their attitudes towards communicative and non-communicative activities and their relationship to foreign language anxiety. Findings of his study suggested that oral activities which require students to speak before their peers were seen as a source of most anxiety felt by English language learners. On the other hand, group-oriented activities were found to increase the possibility of producing less anxiety.

In relation to the same hypothesis in light of gender and interaction between group and gender, there were no statistically significant differences found in the study which may be specifically due to the impact of gender or the interaction between gender and group. This finding may be interpreted in the sense that male and female students participating in the study have received the same training which results in all students possessing the same concepts and skills and with relatively the same level of proficiency. Program instructions and treatment and whatever activities it included were directed specifically towards participants in the experimental group regardless of gender. This is in addition to the fact that participants from both genders were exposed to the same circumstances and that they belong to the same cultural and educational environment and that they study at the same university.

This may also be interpreted in light of foreign language anxiety that students suffer from regardless of gender. The level of effectiveness for this program is related to the kind of instruction and conditions put forth to insure the success of the treatment program. This success is greatly impacted by the learner's approval, co-operation, acceptance, discipline and motivation. This is not gender specific by any means but rather applies to all learners regardless of gender and it has to be applied to all participants to ensure the success of the treatment program.

Finally, it may be safely stated that gender has no impact whatsoever in achieving the level of effectiveness or success for the treatment program that is used in group therapy since success and effectiveness of such a program depends primarily on following certain instruction and conditions, which is substantiated by a large number of previous studies regarding the appropriate environment for treatment.

X. RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the results and conclusions discussed above, the following recommendations may be reached:

• REBT should be used in group counseling to reduce the level of anxiety for students learning English as a foreign language based on the positive results of this method as shown by the results of this study.

• Further research dealing with foreign language anxiety should be conducted since studies in this area are relatively scarce. Furthermore, the level of seriousness for the spread of foreign language anxiety should be investigated in order to find better ways to treat it.

• Professional training courses should be held for educational and psychological counselors in order to foster their knowledge and abilities in using special methods and treatment programs to reduce and overcome foreign language anxiety.

APPENDIX. FOREIGN LANGUAGE CLASSROOM ANXIETY SCALE

(1) I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in my foreign language class.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

(2) I don't worry about making mistakes in language class.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

(3) I tremble when I know that I'm going to be called on in language class.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

(4) It frightens me when I don't understand what the teacher is saying in the foreign language.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

(5) It wouldn't bother me at all to take more foreign language classes.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

(6) During language class, I find myself thinking about things that have nothing to do with the course.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

(7) I keep thinking that the other students are better at languages than I am.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

(8) I am usually at ease during tests in my language class.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

(9) I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in language class.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

(10) I worry about the consequences of failing my foreign language class.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

(11) I don't understand why some people get so upset over foreign language classes.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

(12) In language class, I can get so nervous I forget things I know.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

(13) It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my language class.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

(14) I would not be nervous speaking the foreign language with native speakers.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

(15) I get upset when I don't understand what the teacher is correcting.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

(16) Even if I am well prepared for language class, I feel anxious about it.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

(17) I often feel like not going to my language class.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

(18) I feel confident when I speak in foreign language class.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

(19) I am afraid that my language teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

(20) I can feel my heart pounding when I'm going to be called on in language class.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

(21) The more I study for a language test, the more con‑fused I get.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

(22) I don't feel pressure to prepare very well for language class.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

(23) I always feel that the other students speak the foreign language better than I do.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

(24) I feel very self‑conscious about speaking the foreign language in front of other students.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

(25) Language class moves so quickly I worry about getting left behind.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

(26) I feel more tense and nervous in my language class than in my other classes.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

(27) I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my language class.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

(28) When I'm on my way to language class, I feel very sure and relaxed.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

(29) I get nervous when I don't understand every word the language teacher says.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

(30) I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules you have to learn to speak a foreign language.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

(31) I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak the foreign language.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

(32) I would probably feel comfortable around native speakers of the foreign language.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

(33) I get nervous when the language teacher asks questions which I haven't prepared in advance.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

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The Ideology of Buginese in Indonesia (Study of Culture and Local Wisdom)

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Abstract—**The purpose of this research is to know the characteristic of the ideology of Buginese in Indonesia. Ideology is a form of purpose or vision to accomplish something. Ideology can be a formula or a mutually agreed draft either oral or writing. It becomes a principle that will be guidelines for the benefit of certain Community. Ideology can be a driving factor and principles of life for a person, group, organization and society of the country. The data of this research were in the form of sentences sourced from script of *lontarak* and *surekugik*. In the local wisdom, ideology that became characteristic of the idea and thought of the Buginese people is found. It was concluded in *Sirik napesse*. The ideology is elaborated in four rounds of *sirik*. The first is '*adanagauk*' (speech and actions). The second is '*sipakatau*' (humanity). The third is '*asseddingeng*' (Unity). The fourth is *teppe*'(belief).**

Index Terms—**ideology, Buginese communities, cultural studies, local wisdom**

I. INTRODUCTION

The research was based on the existence of ideology of Buginese communities that is embedded hereditary on their young generation. The ideology can be found in the form of spoken and written embodied in the *pappaseng* and *surekugik*. The concepts of ideological State and Buginese in Indonesia have similarity and difference. The difference is in terms of language and how to instill the ideology on the younger generation. The similarity is in terms of substance who wants to instill in the young generation for the formation of character. The ideology of State is *Pancasila* contained five precepts in it. It is spelled out in the education of the nation's character. Meanwhile, the ideology of Buginese is *SiriknaPesse* contained four *Sirik*. This study discusses the ideology of the Buginese, which became part of the formation of character for the younger generation of the Buginese.

How does ideology embraced by the Buginese communities in Indonesia? This question becomes the problem in this research. This research aims at uncovering and explaining the ideology embraced by Buginese in Indonesia.

The benefits of this research are theoretically referable by teachers and lecturers on subjects of the local content and character education in the nation. Practically, it can be a reference of policy makers in formulating national character education and mental revolution for a generation of young people.

II. METHODOLOGY

This research used an ethno methodology approach. It is based on the phenomenon of sociocultural. Ethnology is the science about the elements or issues of culture, ethnic, and community of the area around the world. Comparatively, these sciences aim at obtaining the definition about the history and evolution of the process as well as the dissemination of the culture of the Muslims of this earth (dictionary of Indonesian Language Edition IV 2012, p. 383).

This research used an ethno methodology approach focusing on cultural issues by examining Buginese ideology as a socio-cultural product. The Buginese ideology contained in *paseng* or *pappangngajatomatoa* embodied in *Lontarak*and *surekugik* as well as other Buginese story allegedly creates cultural phenomena in the form of local wisdom. This research tries to understand a particular ethnic group in South Sulawesi in producing cultural products in the form of the ideology of the society.

The data of this research were in the form of sentences sourced from script of *lontarak* and *surek ugik*.in the form of *pappaseng*. The data sources were from the script taken from the book of *PappasengTomatoa* and the results of interviews with community leaders and humanist.

III. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Ideology in literary works can be found in oral form that implied. The term of ideology derived from the word idea and logos. Literally, the ideology can be defined as the rules or laws about ideas. The idea can be traced to its origin to the concept of idea and ' the world of the idea' by Plato. He was a great philosopher who lived in Greece in the 3rd century BC. In his view, the idea is the real truth. It is a reference to the objects that exist in the physical world occupied by humans right now. Each object is modeled on one idea. Takwin (2009) divides the ideology into four groups. First, ideology as a science about ideas expects to separate knowledge, metaphysics, religion and other beliefs (the definition of the Condilac of Tracy included here). Second, ideology as consciousness cause human distorted in capturing and understanding reality (Marx and some of his successors included in this group). Third, ideology as an unconscious embedded deeply in every human being as a result of the presence of various structures. The third concept is divided into two, namely, thought state that the ideology determines the human fully (Althuser) and on one side of the ideology as a delimiter is not a determinant in the other side (Bourdieu). Fourth, ideology shows the linguistic construction. This concept is also divided into two. First, the ideology planted through the process of semiotic affect language and human consciousness as stated by Voloshinov. Second, the ideology is formed by the process of definition of the mark that has been frozen, as revealed by Barthes.

There is no standard definition of ideology because no one can give a definition of ideology adequately. However, there are several definitions of ideology that has been circulated as cited in Takwin (2003, p. 3) of Eagleton. First, ideology is a set of characteristics of the ideas or thoughts of a particular group or class. Second, ideology is a form of thoughts that motivated the social interest. Third, ideology is a set of beliefs that became the orientation for action. For example, the ideology of Indonesia is *Pancasila*. It involves lordship, humanity, unity, populist and social justice. Every item of *Pancasila* aims at shaping the national character.

Ideology is one form of purpose or vision to accomplish something. Ideology can be a formula or a mutually agreed draft either oral or writing. It becomes a principle that will be guidelines for the benefit of certain Community. It can be a driving factor and principle of life for someone in the Buginese community to enforce norms, morals, values, and customs.

Buginese Ideology

Ideology in literary works can be found in oral form that implied. The term of ideology derived from the word idea and logos. Literally, the ideology can be defined as the rules or laws about ideas. The idea can be traced to its origin to the concept of idea and ' the world of the idea' by Plato. He was a great philosopher who lived in Greece in the 3rd century BC. In his view, the idea is the real truth. It is a reference to the objects that exist in the physical world occupied by humans right now. Takwin (2009) divides the ideology into four groups. First, ideology as a science about ideas expects to separate knowledge, metaphysics, religion and other beliefs (the definition of the Condilac of Tracy included here). Second, ideology as consciousness cause human distorted in capturing and understanding reality (Marx and some of his successors included in this group). Third, ideology as an unconscious embedded deeply in every human being as a result of the presence of various structures. The third concept is divided into two, namely, thought state that the ideology determines the human fully (Althuser) and on one side of the ideology as a delimiter is not a determinant in the other side (Bourdieu). Fourth, ideology shows the linguistic construction. This concept is also divided into two. First, the ideology planted through the process of semiotic affect language and human consciousness as stated by Voloshinov. Second, the ideology is formed by the process of definition of the mark that has been frozen, as revealed by Barthes.

Palmouis (2006) states that the ideology is any set of ideas that often insightful when viewed objectively outside the application of the political (mistakenly) that is presented in such a way so that "those who believed" perceive that they have a monopoly on the truth. Ideology is systems of thoughts arranged neatly that not only treated as myths by people who "live in it", but also imposed on those who do not want to accept the myth. For example, political ideology that heralded at the end of the second millennium before the third millennium is a democracy. It seeks to convince all countries that democracy is a political system the most correct, perhaps this myth is a myth that most rarely questioned among our cultural myths.

In line with the definition of ideology in General and specifically above, then it is understood that the Buginese community has had the ideology since ancient times. The ideology is highly valued by generations. The ideology of Buginese communities is *SiriknaPesse*. This ideology is useful for retaining the values, norms, and customs of Buginese that are universally in the defense of humanitarian values. Palmouis (2006) states that the ideology is any set of ideas that often insightful when viewed objectively outside the application of the political (mistakenly) that is presented in such a way so that "those who believed" perceive that they have a monopoly on the truth. Ideology is systems of thoughts arranged neatly that not only treated as myths by people who "live in it", but also imposed on those who do not want to accept the myth. *Siriknapacce* is sometimes regarded as a myth and often must do violence to murder to defend this ideology. By holding to the concept of ideology, the norms of the community are highly appreciated in arranging a number of concepts of community life such as social stratification, agriculture, trade, shipping, and marriage.

The Buginese ideology is understood and applied in the Buginese communities. It is considered to be strong characters for them hereditarily. Their ability is to move in order to start a new life by upholding the ideology of sirik na pessẽ. This ideology held as a message of their ancestors. It is as presented in the following descriptions. The first is social strata. If someone of higher social status were standing or sitting and talking, then people who pass by with a

lower social status should open sheath folds (bidak) and fix it with the attitude of respect or bowed. If it is not performed, it is a violation of ethics. It is shame (sirik) for someone who has a higher social strata because he is not respected anymore. Their actions will cause reactions from parties who feel unappreciated, such as hitting or isolating them from the social environment as a family that has no ethics. The second is the agricultural system. in the Buginese communities, the agricultural system is an irrigation from the river that flows through a waterway that have been created and passed through neighboring rice fields because there are no a special waterways. This is due to the terraced rice field model such as stair steps. The owner of a rice field at the top could not hold water as a whole. Meanwhile, the bottom still get water as the top. If farmers hold water without customs approval, it will cause a strong reaction from other farmers. Their attitude is regarded *sirik* by the communities, because it can harm others. *Sipappasseang* is mutual understanding among farmers in case of lack of water. It comes from the word pass é which means that they got the customary sanctions, such as excommunication and even they could be killed by fellow farmer. The third is marriage system. If the marriage system is not in accordance with customary procedures, it violates the norms of the buginese habit. The marriage taking place without the consent of the family is elopement. Violations of customary law marriages by the bridal couples are a shame (sirik) for families, because they violate the norms of legitimate marriage by custom. Family parties punish both sides with a family punishment, and they usually do not hesitate to kill the bridal couple if they find them before the event of maddeceng. The fourth is trading system. The buginese people have a high respect for honesty *(lempu)* and mutual respect (*sipakatau*) in the trade. People cannot bid before traders decided the first bidder on price. If they do offer higher before there is a decision on the first bidder, it would be considered a shame (*sirik*) for the first bidderThe second bidder is not appreciate other buyers. In the buginese language the phrase of "*de nasipakatau*" means that it is not appreciate each other.

According to Mattulada (1985, p. 16) and Awaluddin (2009, p. 91) the *lontarak* is the manuscripts or written notes originally written on *lontarak* leaves. Lontarak comes from the word of ' *rontal* ' or ' *raung'* in buginese language it means leaves and ' *talak'* means a type of Palm tree. The *talak* leaves are processed and used as a place to write by using a pointed tool that is spiked with black color.

Jufri (2006, p. 1) reveals that *Lontarak* is the original work of Buginese communities. *lontarak* has three functions for the Buginese communities. They are (1) symbol of identity, (2) symbol of pride, and (3) the supporting means for the regional culture. it is declared as identity because it contains a variety of cultural values that characterize the Buginese communities. It is expressed as a symbol of pride because of the attitudes that encourage a group of communities making lontarak as a symbol of their identity and at the same time it can differentiate them with the other group. It is expressed as a supporting mean for regional culture because it contains cultural information to build the social order in order to strengthen the national culture. *lontarak* remain preserved and conserved by the Buginese community because of its function that is very important. Consciously or not, the treatment of Buginese communities toward *lontarak* seems to be in line with the mandate of the constitution of the republic of Indonesia of 1945 article 32. It stated that the cultural elements of the nation will continue to be respected and maintained by the State. Jufri (2006, p. 1) also states that the script of lontarak is a document related to the events of Buginese communities in the past. Therefore, the script of Lontarak can be viewed as a source of information on the history, society, and culture in the past. In this regard, the script lontarak is a product of the Buginese culture. In addition, it can be seen as the reality of the use of language that reflects the behavior and philosophy in the community life. *Lontarak* is used to express the various forms of rituals, prayers, and stories. Therefore, it can be stated that the script of *lontarak* is seen as a language and cultural indexes perceived as a cultural symbol that shows the ethnic cultural identity.

Lontarak is the main reference which can be used to browse the typical character of the Buginese community and the nature of culture. *Lontarak* becomes one of the official means for the delivery of the cultural value of the Buginese from generation to generation. In addition, lontarak has a lot of value, such as the political, philosophical, educational, etc. (Sikki, 1996). Signs of sound or alphabet used are called lontarak script. The original Lontarak is hard to be found right now. After paper replaces lontarak leaves as a means to write using a pen or a stick fiber called Kallang, Lontarak name is still maintained. Manuscripts or written notes of *lontarak* in various contents grouped by Mattulada as follows: *Paseng, attoriolong, tolok atau pau-pau, pangngajak, ulu ada, surekk bicara ottoriolong, pau kotika, Surek Bawang.*

IV. RESULT AND DISCUSSION

The following findings were explained about the parts of the ideology Bugis summarized in *Sirik na Pesse*. Ideology consists of four sirik; the first sirik is *ada na gauk* (words and deeds), the second sirik is *Sipakatau* (humanity), the third sirk is *asseddingeng* (unity), the fourth sirik is *teppe* (belief).

1) Ada Na Gauk (Words and Deeds)

Ada na gauk meaning of words and deeds. It can also be understood as the result of real work or work of a person talks. People who do not adjust to the word called actions have not envious or there is no shame. Buginess believe ada na gauk ideology which must be upheld as part of the translation *sirik napesse*. The concept of *ada na gauk* are a manifestation of the character of *lempuk* (honest), *matinulu* (hardworking), *getteng* (firm), *independently*, *macca* (smart) and *makacoa* (generous).

In the data also rose about the Bugis ideology that puts the Bugis culture notion of *ada na gauk* taught by parents to their children from an early age. Parents have an obligation to introduce the importance of words and deeds. It is

commonly found in local wisdom in the form of *paseng*. If the spoken word is not in accordance with the words and behavior of a person then it is a violation of that shames the family called *sirik* (envious).

Here is the translation of the grains *ada na gauk* ideology in Bugis character:

a) lempuk (honest character)

Lempuk character (honest) is a character born from *ada na gauk* translation. Someone has an honest character because it fits their words and deeds, in accordance with behavior, which is discussed and implemented. Honest character can be honesty with oneself, self honesty to God, honesty Lord to His servant, self honesty for others, honesty and honesty of government to the people of the people against the government. Honest character in Bugis society is a translation of ideology of *ada na gauk*. If someone does not have the character of an honest then for the Bugis people are not allowed in the given mandate. People who commit fraud in the Bugis community can have an impact on the family, the family may feel embarrassed 'sirik'. One who commits fraud then that person does not have the character to be honest. Material can be gossip or teasing so families feel embarrassed. For people who do not have the character of an honest very difficult to develop because it is not trusted by others and even his family. Difficult to grow in all aspects of life such as commerce, government, the social network thing that makes an honest character as part of sirik na pesse. It can cause embarrassment and pity for their families are related because of the association can be isolated.

b) matinulu (hardworking character)

Hardworking character is part of the translation of '*ada na gauk*'. A character working hard had been doing things that are said and done. They stated golas with actions to achieve the success of aspired. People of character are always workinghard with the real work has been spoken or aspired. Instead of people who have wanted to do something slacker character aspired or spoken but is reluctant to do so did not produce work. Slacker character usually does not have *ada na gauk ideology*. People who have diligently character in Bugis society typically have no ideological principle *ada na gauk*, which is working to produce. Paseng supporting character diligent is:

Rẽsopa temmangingngi naletei pammase Dẽwata

artinya:

Working without the boredom that gets the grace of God

Resopa temmangingngi word Symbol is working hard without bored or without fatigue. People who do not get tired of the work is workinghard doing. Existence of working hard character is a trait that is not bored working to produce work.

c) getteng (unmoved character)

Getteng is means unmoved. Unmoved means strong artificial; tight, strong (bond; stronger hold on to customs, promises, words), remained unchanged (heart, faith, conviction, loyalty) (KBBI Edition IV (2012, p. 1419). Unmoved character owned by a person who holds an promise in the firm or mandate given; has a strong principle of life. Persons who have strong principles for believing what is right and bring the benefit of the people it is usually believed to be a stronger person as a fiduciary. In establishing these characters in the Bugis instill principles in the children. It means principles which must be held firmly in shaping character. Persons who have the character 'getteng' is given title of ripangngalik to respect a person.

d) acca (intellectual character)

Macca or acca (bb) intelligent or intellectual. Intelligent; perfect development of her mind to think, understand, sharp mind. Scholar; perspicacious, perceptive (if being told about something), smart clever; quickly understand something and are good at finding a way out (clever use of the opportunity) KBBI (258, p. 2012). Intelligent characters is intelligent properties (sharp thinking) and quickly understands something and are good at finding a way out of a problem. Bugis people call *'to matareng otakna '*it means the brain sharp' means (intelligent), *to acca* (bb) intelligent people, *to Panrita* (bb), *to* (bb),of the tau (people) word, *ita* (bb) means 'see' *panrita* (b) see. People who see, understand, knowledgeable people. *Panrita* shortened to '*panre*', Bugis society has many groups of people who have the intelligence or knowledge that they are given the title of *Panrita*, such as *Panrita lopi* (panre lopi) people who have the expertise to make a boat, *Panrita ada* (*panre ada*) means that smart people process words , a good choice and beautiful words. *Panrita Bessi* (*panre Bessi*) means the person who has the expertise to process iron, making a machete knife, dagger and kinda, *Panrita Ulaweng* people who have the expertise to form gold. *Panrita aju* people is who have the expertise to make home.

2) Sipakatau (Humanity)

Sipakatau in the sense humanize humans. As in *ada na gauk* ideology, *sipakatau* ideology is part of *paseng* frequently spoken by the parents to their children so that it becomes a living ideology. It is derived from the word 'tau' means 'people' who gets the prefix 'sipaka-' to be *sipakatau* means humanity. Sipakatau is grain of two of *Sirik napesse*. Sipakatau ideology manifested in *deceng* character (well), *marenreng perru* (loyal), and *sitinaja* (conscionable).

a) deceng (well)

The word of '*deceng*' (bb) means 'well'. Both in the sense of elegant, orderly (neat, nice, no blemish), respectable (behavior, manners, descent, honest, not a bad person). Kindhearted; good character, (IV edition KBBI 2012, p. 118). *Madeceng* is nice. Nice character is a sincere and pleasant nature/beautiful is inherent in a person because it has the ethics and manners. Goodness that comes from the heart is called kindhearted. Both the expectation of reward is also nice chararcter, but not grouped in a kindhearted person. Deceng as an adjective that can be turned into a noun like *to*

deceng means kindhearted people. *Deceng* character is divided into several sections, namely; *Deceng kininnawa* (either wishful thinking / heart*), madẽcẽng tuona* (good life), *madẽcẽng linona* (good human race), *madẽcẽng akhẽrakna* (good afterlife), *madẽcẽng gauk (*good manner), *madẽcẽng urukna* (good offspring), *madẽcẽng ampe* (kindhearted).

Madẽcẽng kininnawa means kindhearted person or good dreams. The person who called *madeceng kininnawa* will pleasure to help others, love to interact and be loved by others, feels glad to see others succeed. *Madeceng Kininnawa* existence is pleasure. *Madẽcẽng tuona* means the good life; succeed in a career or job and happy family.

Madeceng linona means good in human race same with madeceng tuona means good in humanity. People has not difficult lives because of the adequacy of the material and do not have severe family problems.

Madeceng akherakna means significantly better understanding of the afterlife, those who are called to *madeceng akherakna* is abiding people carry religious orders, understand religion correctly. People who understand religion very well and the Bugis community to *madeceng akherakna* highly respected. Usually become religious leaders like *ustadz*, chaplain and tutor and those who are considered *Makbul* (answered) prayer.

Madeceng Gauk means kind people in manner. Good manner to the family and to others. Kind peoples' manner is a person who is able to maintain good manner so as not to do things that are contrary to ethics and social habits. *Madeceng Gauk* is a good character that is owned by someone, so that persons belonging to *Madeceng Gauk* very loved and respected by the community.

Madeceng uruk-urukna means the good offspring, a good family. *Uruk-urukna* means family or family tree.

b) marenreng perru (loyal)

Marenreng perru (bb) means loyal, the marenreng word (bb) meanins beating, moving, then perru means intestine, intestine that connects children and their parents called the placenta. It symbolize of a very close relationship between mother and family relatives. People who marenreng perru has the fast symbol distress sorry to hear of pains of family, friend, leader and who that loves. It is associated with loyalty. Loyalty in Bugis society belongs to loyalty to the government, and loyalty to family. Loyalty can be tied through promises or oath. Loyalty to the government usually bound by an oath called *mangngaruk* and loyalty to family ties tied with promise. People who take an oath to represent the people in government are usually done before the traditional council as a witness who conducted the ceremonial acceptance. Vows spoken to family in front of headman and witnessed by close family.

Sitinaja (bb) have a sense of consciable, appropriate, proportionate. Implies Mappasitinaja adjust, proportionately, giving rights to others in proportion. consciable (adjective) having the same sense of weight; not one-sided; does not take sides: side with the right; cling to the truth; fitting; not arbitrary (KBBI, 2012, p. 10). Fair is a typical character trait that is owned by someone who embraces the truth and not biased in making a decision or in treating others ririskiky proportional (sitinaja). consciable can be divided into fair to yourself, to others and fair justice to God. Fair to yourself that takes into account the ability to do something that does not persecute yourself, pay attention to personal hygiene and food and clothing. Fair to the others with no treats that they do not like, give rights that should they see themselves get, Fair to God is by not doing the forbidden and make his recommendation.

Conscionable character in Bugis society called sitinaja is upheld by always instilled these characters to the younger generation. It was revealed in KLB Bugis by promoting the situruk talk, teppek talk means conscionable by consensus, just based on faith.

3) *Asseddingeng* (Unity)

Asseddingeng (unity) is Bugis ideology that always exists in the form that is represented in *paseng* the character of *marenreng perru* (loyal), and *asseddi-seddingeng* (mutual assistance).

a) Marenreng Perru (loyal)

Marenreng perru (bb) means loyal, the marenreng word (bb) meanins beating, moving, then perru means intestine, intestine that connects children and their parents called the placenta. It symbolize of a very close relationship between mother and family relatives. People who marenreng perru has the fast symbol distress sorry to hear of pains of family, friend, leader and who that loves. It is associated with loyalty. Loyalty in Bugis society belongs to loyalty to the government, and loyalty to family. Loyalty can be tied through promises or oath. Loyalty to the government usually bound by an oath called *mangngaruk* and loyalty to family ties tied with promise. People who take an oath to represent the people in government are usually done before the traditional council as a witness who conducted the ceremonial acceptance. Vows spoken to family in front of headman and witnessed by close family.

a. Assimellereng(concern)

Assimellereng means concern. *Melle* means butter. *Melle perru* means butter to do something with the *perru* symbol means umbilical cord, have the heart to break the bonds of the umbilical cord. There is a brotherhood relationship among fellow human beings are connected and disconnected. Another term that means breaking up the pettu perru meaningful dropped humanity. No more compassion. Assimellereng means caring human beings. Words of melle followed by a form of the word melle Ininnawa, melle perru, melle ati means butter.

b. asseddi-seddingeng (mutual assistance)

Asseddi-seddingeng is a form of cooperation in Bugis society, from the word seddi is one, masseddi is united, asseddingeng is gathered people to do something. Asseddingeng also be meaningful united, united in doing the job, can be a deal in the grind, worked together to build, do the job.

Mutual assistance is working together, help each other, mutual assistance; have joined together to work together or make something. Dictionary 4th edition (2012), mutual assistance character is inherent in the nature of rural communities in general in working together helping others, help to do something. Have joined together to build a public place, place of worship, assist in the work of the wedding celebration or thanksgiving, worked together in helping our fellow human beings who get unfortunate or who need help.
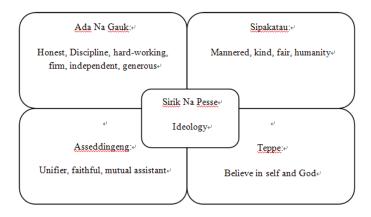
Abbulo sibatang

Meaning:

It is like a piece of bamboo, which are taken from nature bamboo stand strong, united hand in hand.

4) *Teppe* (The Conviction)

The concept of community confidence in Bugis is divided into two namely confident against God and sure of yourself. Sure to God hereditary can be seen from the religion professed by the naming of selleng. The Bugis people claimed the means selleng Muslim. people who believe there is a God. Selleng is loan words from Arabic which has undergone changes and melting of the origin of the word Islam said. The Bugis people habit of always changing the loan words from Arabic characterize bugis like Usman are called Semmang, unbelievers mentioned kapere, present called hadere, Prophet of hadist called prophet of haddẽse. For the Bugis, ideology or doctrine about Islam in the beginning since the entry of Islamic doctrine in Bugis kingdoms circa 1612 m. Islam started in personal religious beliefs by the Kings of Gowa, followed by its people and deployed to a variety of kingdoms around them. With a pledge of Islam means oneness of God, believes the pledge and have only one God. Acceptance of the principles of Islam for the East Coast so that it understands the ideology of the Lord's they call her 'selleng ummak'

Believe of ourselves with the ideology implanted by a parent to have the confidence to do something work, confidently expecting to live without compassion. The application of the concept of envious against teppe people who don't have that confidence towards God then is envious or there is a shyness towards others. So it is with people who don't have the conviction against him in doing something then there is always the sense of envious of her.

Chart of the ideology of the Bugis:

V. CONCLUSION

The findings in this study were the formulation of the ideology of the Bugis in the form of sirik na pesse. The first is the envious ada na gauk (words and deeds, the second is the sirik sipakatau (humanity), the third is envious asseddingeng (Unity) and the fourth is the teppe sirik (conviction). First, the ideology of ada na gauk applied in character lempuk (honest), matinulu (Avid), getteng (firm), independent, macca (smart) and malabo (benefactor). Second, the ideology of ' sipakatau ' (humanity) is applied in the character's manners, be clean and fair. Third asseddingeng (Union) ideology which applicated in the unifying character, loyal, cooperation. Fourth, the ideology of the teppe (belief) which applicated in religious character.

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The Effect of a Program Based on the Lexical Approach on Developing English Majors' Use of Collocations

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Abstract—As nonnative preservice teachers of English face many difficulties when using collocations, the present study seeks to identify the areas of collocation difficulty where learners have the biggest trouble. A training program based on the practices of the lexical approach (Lewis, 2008) was thus developed to solve this problem. Senior English majors at two Egyptian Universities represented the sample of the study. Instruments included a test on lexical collocations, and a training program based on the practices of the lexical approach (a framework, a teacher's guide and students' worksheets). Results showed that explicit teaching of collocations through various corpus-based activities helped learners get an intuition unto the right collocates, and drastically raised their scores in the posttest.

Index Terms—collocations, the lexical approach, vocabulary intuition, teacher education

I. INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

Collocation, as a linguistic term, refers to the tendency of certain words to keep company with other words. For example, *take a shower, strike a balance, armed forces* instead of *have a shower, make a balance and armed powers* respectively. Crystal (2008: 86) defines collocations as "the habitual co-occurrence of individual lexical items … Collocations are, then, a type of syntagmatic lexical relation. They are linguistically predictable to a greater or lesser extent". For Lewis (2008), collocations refer to "the readily observable phenomenon whereby certain words co-occur in natural text with greater than random frequency" (p.12). Thornbury (2002) treats collocations as part of a continuum of strength of word associations.

A person may communicate well even if there are major errors in grammar, however communication is lost if the errors are in vocabulary. David Wilkins observed many years ago, 'Without grammar little can be conveyed; without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed'. (Cited in Lewis, 2000, p.8). Some applied linguists consider collocations to be the most important element in learning a foreign language as it is this linguistic aspect that distinguishes native from nonnative speakers of a language (Hsu, 2009; Keshavarz and Salimi, 2007; Durrant and Schmitt 2010; and Nation 2001 for example).

The problem with collocations is that there are no fixed rules for word collocates. Traditional Grammar books do not normally include chapters on collocations or ways to detect them. Traditional dictionaries tend to list synonyms for a lexical item with pronunciation symbols and a few examples with very little information about the word natural or most frequent collocates. Learning collocations then depends on practice, more experience with native speakers of a language and insightful intuition unto the system of the foreign language.

While collocations constitute an essential part in learning a foreign language, very few studies and training courses have been devised for this purpose in the Arab world. One reason may be due to the fact that most student rely heavily on using synonyms or paraphrasing in their speech, and instructors find it sufficient to have this basic successful communication (Farghal and Obiedat, 1995). Another reason may be the difficult and intriguing nature of developing intuition unto an unexpected linguistic phenomenon. Shokouhi and Mirsalari (2010) confirm this nature by showing that EFL learners' general linguistic knowledge is not significantly correlated with collocational knowledge. Collocations are thus central to vocabulary acquisition and may be the most important process in learning a language (Lewis, 1993; Hill, 2002). That's why there is a dire need for benefiting from the promising applications of the lexical approach.

The lexical approach has been introduced basically as a lexical way for teaching language. Michael Lewis (2008), the founder of the lexical approach, sees that the rationale behind this approach is that "the most fundamental linguistic insight of the Lexical Approach is that much of the lexicon consists of multi-word items of different kinds" (p.8). Like Krashen's Natural Approach, and in the tradition of the Communicative Approach, the Lexical Approach places communication of meaning at the heart of language and language learning. This leads to emphasis on the main carrier of meaning, vocabulary. The concept of a large vocabulary is extended from words to lexis, but the essential idea is that fluency is based on the acquisition of a large store of fixed and semi-fixed prefabricated items, which are available as the foundation for any linguistic novelty or creativity. Without a clear understanding of the different kinds of lexis we cannot begin to look at classroom implications.

Lewis (2008) lists areas where the Lexical Approach pays more attention and areas that are not as much concerned in the following table (p. 15):

More attention will be paid to:	Less attention will be paid to:
Lexis - different kinds of multi-word chunks	Sentence grammar - single sentence
• Specific language areas not previously standard in many EFL texts	gap-fill and transformation Practices
• Listening (at lower levels) and reading (at higher levels)	• Uncollected nouns
• Activities based on L1/L2 comparisons and translation	• Indiscriminate recording of 'new
• The use of the dictionary as a resource for active learning	words'
• Probable rather than possible English	• Talking in L2 for the sake of it
• Organizing learners' notebooks to reveal patterns and aid retrieval	because [we] claim to use 'a
• The language which learners may meet outside the classroom	communicative
• Preparing learners to get maximum benefit from text	approach'

Corpus linguistics and the development of language corpora facilitated the way we look at the frequency of word uses and word collocates. This is a rather radical change after the early attempts to calculate word frequencies in English done by Thorndike in the beginnings of the 20th century (Alexander, 1981). In their basic form, those word frequencies constituted the general service list for Basic English courses that were developed by Charles Ogden (Ogden, 1940). Studies based on various corpora thus began to explore different areas of language and language acquisition (for example Kennedy, 2003; Webb and Kagimoto, 2010; Hang, Rahim, Hua and Salehuddin, 2012). Modern developments in technology, and language teaching materials facilitated the teaching and learning of collocations. Examples include the use of search engines like "Google", online specialized dictionaries like "ozdic.com" and Oxford dictionary of collocations (2003), well designed series like McCarthy and O'dell's "English collocations in use" (2005), conventionalized grammar books like Thornbury's "Natural grammar"(2003).

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The literature around learning and teaching collocations seems to fall within three main lines of research: a) studies focusing on analyzing errors on collocations committed by learners of a foreign language, b) studies focusing on the identification and use of collocations through analyzing corpora and comparing native and nonnative uses of collocations, and c) studies experimenting programmes for developing collocations or using training on collocations to develop other areas in language.

The first type of studies includes Farghal and Obiedat study (1995) in which they surveyed students' and teachers' language ability in using collocations. Senior and junior English majors at Yarmouk University in Jordan along with their language instructors were assessed by using a fill-in-the blanks test around general topics like food, weather, and color. Although the researchers used the same test with both teachers and students, the result was shocking as both teachers and students proved to have a very low level in understanding and using collocations. The authors see that such a deficiency in dealing with English common collocations sets an alarm towards paying more attention to integrate collocation training in university courses of English. In 2003, Nesselhauf reported on a study that analyzed errors in verb-noun collocations committed by advanced German students. She identified the types of errors and investigated the degree of restriction of a combination and the role of learners' mother tongue. She found out that learners' L1 had a high degree of influence on learners' production of collocations in a foreign language. While such a study draws the attention to the role of L1 in acquiring L2, European languages should not be taken as an example to follow when it comes to the role of non-European (i.e., Semitic) languages in bearing the responsibility for learners' error in English collocations. This claim is supported in Yamashita and Jiang's study in 2010 where the author investigated the influence of first language on the acquisition of second language collocations by comparing the performance of Japanese EFL learners, Japanese ESL learners and native speakers of English. The test included both congruent and incongruent examples of collocations. Results suggested that both L1 congruency and L2 exposure affect the acquisition of L2 collocations, and that L2 collocations are processed independently of L1 once they are stored in memory.

Likewise, Kuo (2009) analyzed errors in the use of collocations by intermediate EFL college students in Taiwan. The author had 98 writing samples under two topics by 49 students. The British National corpus in addition to a collocation checker were used as the main tools of the study for identifying errors in collocation in addition to having two native speakers of English comment on students' writings. Results showed that students' errors are attributed to three main causes: the use of synonyms (31%), negative transfer (20%), and approximation (49%).

In Malaysia, Hong, Rahim, Hua and Salehuddin (2012) investigated the types and sources of verb-noun collocational errors. The corpus consisted of 130 essays written by Malay students from three different districts. Their error analysis showed that the collocation area that had the most frequent errors was the preposition-related collocations. Sources of errors included dependence on synonymy, overgeneralization and intralingual transfer, with the latter found to be the most prominent among students' errors. In Iran, Shokouhi and Mirsalari (2010) investigated whether acquiring collocations is correlated with having a good background knowledge in Linguistics. He screened 35 students through a proficiency test of 90 MCQ items. Results showed that there was no significant correlation between general linguistic knowledge and use of collocations by EFL learners.

The second line of research includes Siyanova and Schmitt's study (2008) where they investigated problems in collocation intuition between native and nonnative speakers. Essays written by Russian EFL learners were taken as a corpus of analysis. Results showed that there was a very little difference between native speakers (NS) and nonnative speakers (NNS) in the use of appropriate collocations. However, NNSs showed poorer intuition than NSs regarding the frequency of collocations, and they (NNSs) were slower than NSs in processing collocations. In 2011, Alsakran compared the use of collocations by 38 Saudi EFL and 30 Arab ESL learners using three guided tests where the initial letter of the collocant was provided and where the meaning of the phrasal verbs was also provided. ESL learners outperformed EFL learners in all the tests. Results suggest that learners' learning environment had a strong effect on the acquisition of L2 collocations both on the level of receptive and productive knowledge of collocations.

The third line of research can be divided into two broad categories; studies that aim to develop the use of collocations, and studies that use collocations to develop other areas of language. Of the first category, Fan's study (2005) was conducted to investigate the effect of different levels of attention on the acquisition of verb collocations. She indicated 4 levels of attention: semantic processing (embedded collocations), memorization for recall (for a later recall test), rule given (a study of the target collocation rules), and rule given plus negative evidence (impossible collocates). A sample of 94 Mandarin University students was divided into four groups assigned to the four types of attention practice. Results showed that the semantic processing group was the least efficient in learning L2 collocations, while learners in the rule-oriented groups (the third and fourth conditions) excelled in various parts of the test: recalling of passage collocations, producing new collocations, and judging bad collocations.

In a similar track, Fahim and Vaezi (2011) evaluated the effectiveness of visual/textual input-based enhancement on the acquisition of verb-noun collocations by Iranian EFL learners. The researchers selected 96 intermediate students and assigned them to three groups; an experimental who received training where collocations were capitalized or bolded in the reading passages, another experimental who had collocations taught conventionally within enhanced visuals in the reading passages, and a control group who had no collocation instruction in their reading passages. Results showed that those who studied with the aid of visually enhanced collocations surpassed their counterparts in the other two groups.

Both Fan's and Fahim and Vaezi's studies shed light on the importance of explicit collocations teaching, as does the study carried out by Seesink (2007). Seesink examined how explicit collocation teaching via a blended learning programme could affect the writing development of six EFL learners. Data were collected through a questionnaire, observations, students' journals and sample writings in addition to interviews and reflections. Results showed that learners benefited from explicit teaching of collocations in developing the quality of their writings which by themselves reflected rich use of collocations. Similar to Seesink blended learning programme, Amer (2010) developed a mobile learning application to assess its effect on developing the use of idioms and collocations by 45 EFL learners. While results showed that students didn't score above an average of 70%, learners' usage of the application correlated with their average scores on the collocation quiz; the more learners used the application, the higher they scored on the quizzes. Likewise, Zengin (2009) explored the potential benefits of Google search engine in learning and teaching collocations. Her results showed that the higher number of search results can be macro indicators of collocations. She concluded that Google may be used as a practical free-of-charge tool for the EFL learner to make informed guesses about the tendency of collocations.

Finally both the studies of Falahi and Moinzadeh (2012) and Webb and Kagimoto (2009) investigated the effects of receptive vs. productive tasks on the development of certain types of collocations (verb-noun, and noun-noun with Iranian and Japanese students respectively). In both studies, there were two experimental groups and one control group. While the first experimental group dealt with receptive tasks (reading passages including collocations), the second experimental group dealt with productive task types (cloze tests). The control group didn't receive any training on collocations. Results for both studies showed that both the experimental groups manifested significant enhancements in their knowledge of collocations. The Japanese study, however, found out that when participants were grouped according to level, the productive task was more effective for higher level students, and the receptive task was more effective for lower level students.

On another vein, the second category of experimental studies made use of collocations for developing other areas of language. Hsu and Chiu (2008) assessed the effectiveness of training on collocations on the speaking proficiency of Taiwanese EFL learners. Results showed that there was a significant correlation between the learners' knowledge of lexical collocations and their speaking proficiency. However, no significant correlation existed between their use of collocations and their speaking proficiency. This draws our attention to the importance of practicing collocations in speaking not just to recognize them once we hear them. In 2009, Hsu assessed the effects of collocation instruction on the reading comprehension skills and vocabulary learning of the same type of learners. Three groups of Taiwanese college English majors were divided according to their academic levels. Each group received 3 different types of instruction—single-item vocabulary instruction, lexical collocation instruction, and no instruction—in separate classes. Results indicated that collocation instruction improved the subjects' vocabulary learning more than their reading comprehension across all three academic levels. Again, this study suggests that direct collocation instruction can be a worthy option for exploration in teaching vocabulary and reading. Lin (2009) examined the effects of explicit and long-term collocation instruction on the development of reading proficiency of EFL vocational high school students in Taiwan. She designed an instructional programme based on Lewis' (2000) lexical approach and Van Lier's (1996) 3A

curriculum design (*awareness, autonomy, and authenticity*) and implemented it with 40 EFL learners for six months. The results showed that the experimental class made significantly more progress than the control class in their English reading proficiency.

III. CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

A. Statement of the Problem

English majors in the college of Education at Sohag University, among other Egyptian universities, have always shown low levels in recognizing and using collocations. Most students tend to follow the prescribed rules written in grammar textbooks, and since collocations represent a missing area in traditional grammar books, students seem to be unaware of their importance nor the importance of developing an intuition unto their use. In a pilot study, 30 students in the fourth year English department couldn't score higher than 50% in the average on a sample MCQ test on collocations.

Based on this low level, the present study proposes a program that aims to develop that missing intuition unto collocations through making use of various activities within the lexical approach.

B. Hypotheses of the Study

The following main hypothesis will be tested:

There is no statistically significant mean difference between the scores of the experimental group students and those of the control group students in the posttest of collocations.

From this main hypothesis, the following sub hypotheses branch:

There are no statistically significant differences between the scores of the experimental group students in posttest and those of the control group students with regard to recognition and use of:

1- Adjective + noun collocations
2- Noun + verb collocations
3- Noun + noun collocations
4- Verb + adverb collocations
5- Adverb + adjective collocations
6- Verb + preposition
7- Adjective + preposition

IV. METHODOLOGY AND MATERIALS

A. Programme on Lexical Collocations

To develop students' skills in recognizing and using collocations, a programme based on the practices of the lexical approach was developed. The programme consisted of seven units, each devoted to one type of collocations, Students' worksheets, teachers' notes for each unit, in addition to a framework of the programme. The main objective of the programme was to introduce the concept of collocations and train students on the use of English collocations to develop their intuition unto the right word collocates in the seven types of collocations.

In each unit, the structure was as follows:

1- Objectives of the unit: objectives are listed for students to know what to expect in this unit and the learning outcomes they are supposed to produce.

2- Raising awareness: graded examples of collocations are presented to students and they are required to underline, circle or highlight certain words to direct their attention to.

3- Exploring collocations: Contrasting examples are given and analyzed for students to let them see the relation between the two parts of the collocation.

4- Analyzing collocations: students are asked here to analyze other examples are followed in the parts above.

5- Corpus work: screenshots from different corpora software results are presented to students to analyze the frequent words that collocate with other words. They are then encouraged to try their own searches on similar collocation search engines.

6- Homework: Students are asked to undertake additional collocation work based on the focus of the unit.

7- Students' resources: Some of the materials students may need to answer some of the exercises or the homework are attached here. In addition, reference sheets of different language areas that are related to the focus of the unit are also attached (i.e., list of common phrasal verbs, list of uncountable partitive expressions, list of animal collective nouns. etc.) The resources part is meant to be a reference for students once in doubt about a collocation in this programme or in their future study.

For samples of the training programme, refer to appendices (B) and (C).

B. The Achievement Test

To assess students' knowledge and intuition unto using collocations, a pre-posttest was developed. The test consisted of 70 items of the MCQ type, ten items corresponding to each of the seven units in the suggested training programme. The test was piloted on a sample of 30 students from Qena college of Education at South Valley University to measure

its validity and reliability. For validity, a jury of EFL professionals assessed the content of the test items against the objectives of the training programme as specified in the framework of the programme.

Validity and reliability of the test:

In addition to the views of the TEFL jury members, internal consistency of the test was calculated using alpha coefficient, and was found to be 0.524 which reflects a reasonable validity of the contents of the test.   The reliability of the test was calculated using the test-retest method. Alpha coefficient was found to be 0.885 which reflects a high reliability value of the test. Table (1) shows the reliability value for each section of the test.

TABLE (1)
RELIABILITY OF EACH SECTION OF THE TEST

Section	adj +n	n +v	n +n	v + adv	adv +adj	v +prep	adj +prep
Correlation coefficient	0.837	0.965	0.947	0.942	0.988	0.970	0.963

Item difficulty of the test:

Item difficulty is simply the proportion of students who answered an item correctly (CET, 2012). If j indicates item number, **Nc** is the number of students getting the item correct, and **N** is the total number of students taking the test, then the item difficulty for the **jth** item is

$$p_j = \frac{N_c}{N}$$

Table (2) shows the item difficulty for each section of the test:

TABLE (2)
SECTION DIFFICULTY AND FACILITY FOR THE TEST

Section	adj +n	n +v	n +n	v + adv	adv +adj	v +prep	adj +prep
Item difficulty	0.58	0.54	0.37	0.48	0.42	0.40	0.69
Item facility	0.42	0.46	0.63	0.52	0.58	0.60	0.31

All sections were in the mid-range of difficulty / facility except for the last section where the difficulty value was higher than the facility value. This can be attributed to the nature of the section (adj+ prep) where students make most of the errors influenced by the irrelevant prepositional system in the Arabic language. Refer to appendix (A) for the pre-posttest.

C. Sample and Administration of the Programme

The sample of the study consisted of 96 male and female students who were all the students enrolled in the "Language Exercises-2" course at two different universities; 46 students enrolled at Sohag University, college of Education constituted the experimental group who were taught using the suggested programme on collocations. 50 other students enrolled at South Valley University, Qena College of Education (150 kilometers south of the location of the experimental group) represented the control group who studied the same course "language exercises-2" without the intervention of the training programme on collocations. Both groups studied the same course materials as the researcher supervised the course in both universities. The experimental group students were informed about the purpose of the study and how it related to the nature of their course. The training programme was introduced to the experimental group students after two weeks of their normal study of the "Language exercise -2" course. The programme was carried out by a junior faculty member at Sohag college of Education for six week, one lecture a week for two hours each. The experiment started on the 1st of March 2014 and ended on the 15th of April 2014. The control group students, on the other hand, were taught the course in the traditional method that focused on excessive practice of different grammatical and lexical exercises. The typical role of the instructor in such contexts was to provide the correct answers for these exercises especially when areas of dispute arise among students.

V. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

T-test was run to calculate the difference between the scores of the experimental and the control groups before and after the administration of the training programme. Results showed that experimental group students outperformed their counterparts in the posttest and that their scores were drastically higher than they were in the pretest of collocation use. T-value for the difference in the mean scores of the experimental and the control group in the pretest was 0.627 which is insignificant. This shows that students in both groups were of close levels with regard to knowledge and use of collocations before the administration of the programme. The experimental group students' mean score in the posttest was 66.6 out of 70 while the control group mean score in the posttest was 37.46. T- value was 35.887 which is highly significant at .000 level. Tables (3), (4) and (5) show these results.

TABLE (3)
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF THE EXPERIMENTAL AND THE CONTROL GROUPS IN THE PRE AND POSTTEST

group	test	N	mean	SD	SD error mean
Experimental	**pre**	46	35.6739	4.38206	.64610
	Post	46	66.6522	3.41481	.50334
Control	**pre**	50	36.2600	4.77583	.67540
	Post	50	37.4600	4.51849	.63901

TABLE (4)
T-TEST FOR THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE TWO GROUPS IN THE PRETEST

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Scores	Equal variances assumed	1.087	.300	.625	94	.534	.58609	.93806	-1.27645-	2.44862
	Equal variances not assumed			.627	94.000	.532	.58609	.93467	-1.26973-	2.44190

TABLE (5)
T-TEST FOR THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE TWO GROUPS IN THE POSTTEST

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Scores	Equal variances assumed	4.963	.028	35.477	94	.000	-29.19217-	.82285	30.82597	27.55838
	Equal variances not assumed			35.887	90.663	.000	-29.19217-	.81344	30.80805	27.57629

These results show that the experimental group students benefited a lot from the training programme and achieved higher after they went through the lexical activities presented in the programme. Therefore, the main hypothesis is rejected as there are statistically significant differences in the scores of the experimental group students and those of the control group students in the posttest favoring those of the experimental group.

In order to identify which type of collocation students benefited from the most, t-test was run to calculate the differences between the totals of the different sections of the test in the posttest for both groups. Tables (6) and (7) show these results.

TABLE (6)
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF THE SAMPLE OF THE STUDY IN THE DIFFERENT SECTIONS OF THE POSTTEST

Section	Group	Mean	SD	SD error mean
ONE	**Exp.**	9.6957	.59140	.08720
adj + n	**Con.**	5.4565	1.06888	.15760
TWO	**Exp.**	9.5652	.91049	.13424
n + v	**Con.**	5.4130	1.40754	.20753
THREE	**Exp.**	9.5435	.95932	.14144
n + n	**Con.**	4.5435	1.12953	.16654
FOUR	**Exp.**	9.5000	.88819	.13096
v +adj	**Con.**	5.4348	1.37683	.20300
FIVE	**Exp.**	9.7174	.77926	.11490
adv + adj	**Con.**	4.8043	1.66826	.24597
SIX	**Exp.**	9.4130	1.04512	.15409
v + prep	**Con.**	4.6739	1.39928	.20631
SEVEN	**Exp.**	9.3261	1.19358	.17598
adj + prep	**Con.**	6.9348	1.75629	.25895

Table (6) shows that experimental group students' mean scores in the different sections of the test were higher in the posttest as compared to those of the control group. The highest mean score achieved by the control group was 6.9348 out of 10 in the seventh section (collocations in adjectives + prepositions), while the lowest mean score attained by the control group was 4.5435 in the third section (collocations in nouns + nouns). The highest mean score attained by the experimental group was 9.7174 in the fifth section (collocations in adverbs + adjectives), while their lowest mean score was 9.3261 in the seventh section (collocations in adjectives + prepositions). Table (7) provides information on the significance of these differences.

TABLE (7)
T-TEST FOR THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE TWO GROUPS IN THE DIFFERENT SECTIONS OF THE POSTTEST

Section		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
ONE	Equal variances not assumed	16.581	.000	24.624-	79.098	.000	-4.19565-	.17039	4.53479-	3.85651-
TWO		7.506	.007	17.107-	84.365	.000	-4.12522-	.24115	4.60474-	3.64570-
THREE		3.514	.064	22.879-	93.303	.000	-4.90348-	.21432	5.32906-	4.47790-
FOUR		9.217	.003	17.199-	85.090	.000	-4.00000-	.23257	4.46240-	3.53760-
FIVE		18.772	.000	18.754-	71.290	.000	-4.85739-	.25901	5.37381-	4.34097-
SIX		1.403	.239	19.078-	91.274	.000	-4.69304-	.24599	5.18166-	4.20443-
SEVEN		4.058	.047	-8.033-	86.724	.000	-2.44609-	.30450	3.05133-	1.84084-

Table (7) shows that all the differences between students' scores were statistically significant at .000 level. This shows that experimental group students benefited from each part of the programme and this was reflected in their achievement in the posttest.

The highest t-value is in the first section (collocations in adjectives + nouns) t =24.624. The second higher t-value is in the third section (collocations in nouns + nouns) t=22.879. Differences in section six (collocations in verb + prepositions) come third with t= 19.078. Differences in section five (collocations in adverbs + adjectives) come fourth with t= 18.754. Differences in section four (collocations in verbs + adjectives) come in the fifth place with t=17.199. Differences in section two (collocations in nouns + verbs) come sixth with t = 17.107. The lowest t value was in the differences in section seven (collocations in adjectives +prepositions) with t= -8.033.

As all differences in all the sections proved to be statistically significant, all sub-hypotheses are rejected as the differences between the experimental group and the control group students' scores in each part of the posttest are statistically significant favoring those of the experimental group students.

It seems natural to have students benefit from the training programme the most in the first section (adjectives + noun collocations) as this is the first section they face in the test as well as in the programme. It is also one of the tricky parts in lexical collocations; as it was noticed that students tend to have a good intuition unto the lexical collocation that incurs a verb rather than a noun. It is also natural to have the lowest significance value of -t- in the seventh section (adjective + prepostions collocations) as students had a lot of language training in phrasal verbs and adjectival phrases in the secondary stage of their study. The results of the study thus coincide with those obtained by Fan 2005 who showed that rule-oriented teaching of collocations was effective in recalling, producing and judging new collocations. Results also echo those attained by Fahim and Vaezi (2011) who showed the effectiveness of visual enhancement (thus explicit) in collocation teaching. Results also confirm those attained by Seesink (2007) who used explicit collocation teaching in developing writing. Results can also related to those attained by Amer (2010), Falah and Moinzadeh (2012) and Webb and Kagimoto (2009) which all confirmed the effectiveness of explicit collocation teaching.

VI. CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Lexical collocations seem to be one area where university students in the Arab world face lots of difficulties. Because there are no updated textbooks on structural rules for grouping words, a student has to resort to his/her intuition unto the lexical pair. And since the students' intuition is limited to the university readings and everyday electronic communications with no training on how to infer the relation between the lexical pair, the need is dire for introducing such systemic training for Arab students. The lexical approach offers promising opportunities for developing students' knowledge and use of lexical collocations. The present study is an attempt to make use of the lexical approach activities in training Egyptian university students on recognizing and using collocations.

Results indicated the effectiveness of the training programme in developing the seven different types of lexical collocations. Students' scores show how they had a big jump from the uncertainty of collocation choice to the more confirmed confident choice in the posttest as compared to their counterparts in the control group. We hope language instructors in Arab universities would find this training programme worthy of application in their institutions. We also think that university students can indulge in self-study development through trying the different activities in the course. Course designers for the university level are also encouraged to make use of the principles and practices employed in this training programme in developing other vocabulary-oriented language courses for the upper intermediate level.

APPENDIX (A). A PRE-POSTTEST IN ENGLISH COLLOCATIONS

Dear Student,

• This is a test in English collocations that is intended to measure your ability in recognizing and using English collocations.

• Please answer all the questions as required.

• Time allowed is two hours.

• Total score of the test is 70 marks.

_____

Part One: "Adjectives + nouns" Collocations

Choose the right word from those between brackets:

1. 17, 29, and 395 are all (strange- odd- unequal) numbers.

2. Jean always wears red or yellow or some other (faint- bright- light) colour.

3. We had a (small - brief- short) chat about the exams but didn't have time to discuss them properly.

4. Unemployment is a (major- principle- chief) problem for the government at the moment.

5. Improving the health services is another (care- key- basic) issue for government.

6. Susan took the (express - fast - terrific) train to the airport in order to save time.

7. This region has a (rich- dear - precious) history and culture.

8. He was tall and strong with (heavy- strong- powerful) features.

9. There was a (strong - heavy- powerful) smell coming from the rubbish bin.

10. They gave him a (chilly- cool- freezing) reception.

****

Part Two: "Noun + Verb" Collocations

Choose the right word from those between brackets:

1. This paper (proposes - presents - offers) the case for the complete revision of the theory.

2. Recent research (hints- explains- suggests) that Jackson's theory of economic development is flawed.

3. The author of the book (adopts- adapts- affects) an unusual position on the topic.

4. the writer of the article (explains- states- declares) his opinion very clearly.

5. the article (concludes - finishes - ends) by briefly summarizing the main points that the author wishes to put across.

6. I (hold- keep- take) firmly to my belief in the importance of basic human rights.

7. The book (raises- rises- arises) some key questions but fails to deal with them in a satisfactory manner.

8. Tom and Joe are (changing- transferring- moving) house to be nearer Joe's elderly parents.

9. The standard of living has (grown- risen- increased) in the last ten years.

10. I usually find that I can (trust- rely- depend) my intuition.

****

Part Three: "Noun + noun" Collocations

Choose the right word from those between brackets:

1. As Sam read the lines about him, he felt a (surge - hint - shadow) of anger.

2. Every parent feels a (sense - feeling - touch) of pride when their child does well or wins something.

3. I felt a (pang - hit- knock) of nostalgia when I saw the old photos of the village where I grew up.

4. The (volume - size- magnitude) of traffic has increased in big cities in recent years.

5. I bought a (pack - bar - bag) of chocolate.

6. The ceasefire (agreement - acceptance - permission) came into effect at 11am.

7. In Africa, we saw a (herd- flock- pride) of lions.

8. Don't get near this (crowd -hive - school) of bees or you will get stung.

9. On the ship, I could take a glance at a (school-pack - colony) of dolphins jumping around.

10. Let's give Mr. Jones a (piece - round - sound) of applause.

****

Part Four: "Verbs + adverbs" Collocations

Choose the right word from those between brackets:

1. He pulled (strongly-steadily-powerfully) on the rope and helped her to safety.

2. She placed the beautiful vase (softly- gently- mildly) on the window ledge.

3. She smiled (proudly -boastfully- scornfully) as she looked at the photos of her new grandson.

4. I (vaguely - foggily - dizzily) remember that it was growing dark when we left

5. John has been (seriously- earnestly - critically) injured.

6. The onions should be (finely - lightly - thinly) chopped.

7. You have to (soberly - earnestly - solemnly) swear you won't tell anybody.

8. They had to (correctly - finely - accurately) assess losses and gains.

9. He doesn't write very (neatly -tidily - efficiently). I can never read his letters.

10. I waited (excitedly- patiently- zealously), but she never came.

****

Part Five: adverb + adjective" Collocations

Choose the right word from those between brackets:

1. I am (totally - completely - fully) aware that these are serious problems.

2. I was (bitterly - sadly- deeply) disappointed when I failed the exam.

3. The restaurant was (highly- deeply- ridiculously) expensive. I don't think we'll go again.

4. The whole area was (totally- utterly- fully) devastated after the earthquake.

5. He was (deeply- strongly- ridiculously) concerned about this topic.

6. They are from among the (fully- highly- strongly) educated in the city.

7. It was (strongly- strictly- completely) forbidden to use the sports ground for political activities.

8. This is a (highly- strictly- likely) controversial issue.

9. This holiday offer does seem (avidly - heavily - irresistibly) attractive but I think we are going to have to pass on it because of the high cost.

10. After a warm start to the month, the weather in the second half of June was (unfortunately - unseasonably - unpredictably) cold.

****

Part Six: "Verb+ preposition" Collocations

Choose the right word from those between brackets:

1. He looks like his mother; he takes (after- to - for) her.

2. Do you take me (after - in - for) an idiot?

3. The plane couldn't take (off- up -to) because of the snow.

4. He tried a couple of judo lessons and took (to- over- away) it right away because he found it made him feel so much fitter.

5. The concert was ___ because of the rain.
    a. called off b. blacked out   c. turned off

6. He must be about 90. He is really ___.
    a. getting on b. bringing up   c. bringing forward

7. I am sorry that I am late. I got ___ in traffic.
    a. lifted off   b. held down   c. caught up

8. After the accident a lot of people ___.
    a. turned out b. set out   c. crowded around

9. If you're going there tomorrow, count me (down- in -off). I'd love to go.

10. He gave his homework (up - off - in) to the teacher on the very last day.

****

Part Seven: "adjective + preposition" Collocations

Choose the right word from those between brackets:

1. England is famous (of - for - with) its rainy weather.

2. I'm very proud (with - from - of) my daughter, she worked very hard.

3. I've been married (with - to - from) my husband for 10 years.

4. My niece is afraid (from - of- at) dogs.

5. Are you pleased (in - with- of) your new house?

6. It wasn't very polite (from - of - with) to leave without saying thank you

7. He lives a house near (from - to - of) mine.

8. Unfortunately, I'm very bad (in - with - at) music.

9. Are you satisfied (about - with -at) your score in the test?

10. We stayed at home because Mary wasn't very keen (to - on - at) going out in the rain.

_____

End of Test
Good Luck

APPENDIX (B)

Answer Key

Part One		Part Two		Part Three		Part Four		Part Five		Part Six		Part Seven	
1.	Odd	11.	Proposes	21	Surge	31	Steadily	41	Fully	51	after	61	For
2.	Bright	12.	Suggests	22	Sense	32	Gently	42	Bitterly	52	for	62	Of
3.	Brief	13	Adopts	23	Pang	33	Proudly	43	Ridiculously	53	off	63	to
4.	Major	14	States	24	Volume	34	Vaguely	44	Utterly	54	to	64	Of
5.	Key	15	concludes	25	Bar	35	seriously	45	Deeply	55	Called off	65	With
6.	Express	16	Hold	26	Agreement	36	Finely	46	Highly	56	Getting on	66	of
7.	Rich	17	Raises	27	Pride	37	Solemnly	47	Strictly	57	Caught up	67	To
8.	Heavy	18	Moving	28	Hive	38	Accurately	48	Highly	58	Turned out	68	At
9.	Strong	19	risen	29	School	39	Neatly	49	Irresistibly	59	in	69	with
10.	chilly	20	trust	30	Round	40	Patiently	50	Unpredictably	60	in	70	on

Table of Specifications

section	aims	Item type	Number of items
ONE	-Identify collocations made out of (adjectives + nouns) - identify types of adjectives used with colors, numbers, odors , describing people, and describing scientific issues.	MCQ	10
TWO	- identifying collocations made out of (nouns + verbs) - indenting the types of verbs used with academic writing, beliefs, opinions, feelings and talking about people's behavior.	MCQ	10
THREE	- identify collocations made of (nouns + nouns) - identifying common expressions made of (a + noun + of + noun) related to feelings. - identify common expressions used to describe groups of animals - identify common expressions used to describe pieces of uncountable nouns	MCQ	10
FOUR	- identify collocations made of (verbs + adverbs) or the other way round.	MCQ	10
FIVE	- identify collocations made of (adverbs + adjectives). - identify types of adverbs and adjectives related to people's feelings, opinions and behaviors .	MCQ	10
SIX	- identify collocations made of (verbs + prepositions) or (phrasal verbs). - identify the correct preposition for a phrasal verb. - Identify the correct form of (verb+ preposition) in context.	MCQ	10
SEVEN	- identify collocations made of (adjectives + prepositions).	MCQ	10
Total		MCQ	70

Sample of Students' Worksheets
Unit (1)
Worksheet (6):

```
Talbot,a gleaming green Rolls and the mustard-yellow 1928 Austin, complete with its `dickie" or
linked to the starter and carry large day-glo yellow flags. [p] The grey gate will continue to
       as in this case, I would opt for gloss yellow. [p] In September 1960 wg768 - serialled
    W1.5-1.8m/5-6ft. F3-6. Z8-9. Aureus", greeny yellow stems, spines and leaves turn clear yellow
    shoots appear. The whole bush becomes butter-yellow, toning down later in summer. Full sun
W45cm/18in. F7-9. Z4-9. Moonbeam", light lemon-yellow flowers, scented foliage, multi-branched
    preppy. He had a very British thatch of straw-yellow hair, combed floppily to one side. I wanted
had sunk into the wood. It was beautiful light yellow wood, from a tree that grew in the yard
     hot side of the line, and case ground green-yellow. G.E. Minagear num;5scp10mg19x. Takeouts in
several weeks. F2- 3. `Primavera", pale canary-yellow flowers, yellow-orange autumn colour,
       a neat clump and produces double, egg-yolk-yellow blossoms that keep coming if you cut off
    Bumpy Dog, Whiskers the cat, Noddy's bright yellow car - parp! parp! - fully licensed to be
       sun. [c] flower name [/c] [p] Smooth, pale yellow flowers, darker at the tips. [c] flower
    of vines in new leaf, on the rich, brilliant yellow of broom, the pink and white of eglantine
but brighter yellow foliage in summer, orange-yellow in winter. Purple flowers. H25- 30cm
       bull; Paint is original Volkswagen greenish yellow in excellent condition [p] bull; Three-
    singing in her ears and saw nothing but vivid yellow flashes. Giddily, she felt her body being
```

Look at this screenshot from a corpus search. Fill in the table accordingly:

Food or drink	Nature or people	Two-colour collocations
Two-colour collocations with (y)	Two-colour collocations with (ish)	Adjective + noun for strength / temp.

Unit (2)
Worksheet (4)
Delete the weakest verb from those that collocate with each noun of the following:

examination	revise for, re-sit, pass, fail, take.
job	apply for, look for, get, lose, hold down.
rules	obey, stick to, bend, explain, change.
advice	accept, act on, disregard, follow, ignore, make, take.
car	crash, finish, hire, park, repair, start, write.
homework	do, forget, lose, prepare, finish, hand in.
trouble	be in, expect, make, discover, get into, ask for.

APPENDIX (C). SAMPLE OF TEACHER'S NOTES

Unit (1)
Exploring Collocations
Worksheet (2):
Ask Ss to look at the table and circle words that describe numbers.
Get Ss to elicit in groups the meanings of (odd), (even), (decline), (enormous), (significant).
Ask each group fill in the last column with their comments like in this:

Collocation	Example	comments
Odd/even numbers	51 is an odd number - 50 is an even number.	Odd numbers = 1,3,5 etc. Even numbers = 2,4,6 etc.
Increase number / a rise in the number	There is an increased number of homeless people.	Increased is opposite of declined. you also say an increase "/ a decline in the number of".
Total number	The total number of figures in the article is 16.	You can also say "a total of 16".
Enormous / considerable / surprising / significant + amount / number	The new budget mean an enormous number of people will have to pay taxes.	All these adjectives refer to a large amount / number
Minute / substantial/ tiny / insignificant + amount / number	Put a tiny amount of chilli in the soup.	All these adjectives refer to a small amount / number

Analyzing Collocations
Work sheet three:
In pairs, Ss use the adjectives to replace the underlined words to complete the collocations. Give feedback through other groups, and provide final answers if Ss cannot still reach the right answer.

Unit (3)
Raising awareness
Worksheet (1):
Pieces of uncountable nouns:
Find someone who: (write their names on the lines). Ss move around, and ask and answer each other. The first person to collect names for all items is the winner. Once they finish, ask Ss some students to report what they have found out. They can say something like "Ahmad likes to drink a cup of coffee".
When they finish, ask Ss to underline the uncountable words, and circle the words that collocate with them.

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The Attitudes and Behavior of Using Indonesian Language among the Bureaucrats in South Sulawesi Province

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Abstract—**Attitudes and behaviour in the use of the language among the bureaucrats can be either 'symbols' can be meant by certain people. Language is the behavior of someone's mental attitude in selecting and using of language. Sociolinguistics, which provided the foundations of the theory in this study formed the basis of source selection thinking in the use of language. In relation to the use of language, there are several aspects that need to be paid attention by users of the language. First, who communicates with whom? Second, what do they discuss? Third, where do they speak? Fourth, where do people speak? Fifth, how do people speak? The research formulation is, "How is the trend of using Indonesian language among bureaucrats within public services?" This research aims at describing the attitude and behavior of bureaucrats in using language for community service. The design of this research was in the form of a description or explanation of the attitudes and behavior in using Indonesian language including written and oral behaviors among bureaucrats in South Sulawesi province. The data were collected naturally that were not previously conditioned. The subjects were given preferential treatment as in the qualitative approach. The findings in this study were that the trend of using Indonesian language among the bureaucrats in South Sulawesi province still shows the use of the language in their group. The use of language is not based on the existing regulation.**

Index Terms—**attitude, behavior, using Indonesian language, bureaucrats**

I. INTRODUCTION

Language is one of the human potential that distinguishes human beings with the potential that is owned by another being. The language has a social function either as a means of communication or a tool to identify the social groups including bureaucrats. The Act No. 24/2009 explains that the use of Indonesian language serves as the identity of the nation, national pride, a means of unifying the various ethnic groups. In addition, it is a means of intercultural and interregional communication area. In General, the bureaucratic language can be interpreted as the language used by citizens in the context of State or Government bureaucracy. When a government official delivers a speech in front the citizens, it is less understood due to his habit of using the bureaucratic language. For example, when the governor is delivering a speech in front of the citizens in rural areas on the innovative improvement of the village, the citizens are confused about the meaning of the word "innovative". It may be a form of passiveness to Indonesian language. Like other languages, an Indonesian language has been urged by the English language.

The attitude and behavior of bureaucrats using a language such as this making the information delivered do not understand the meaning. Therefore, the bureaucrats should realize the importance of correct Indonesian language so that there is no gap between the bureaucracy and the public because the government officials are servants of the community.

A. Sociolinguistics and Language Behavior

Sociolinguistics is the interdisciplinary science in the field of sociology and Linguistics (Rokhman, 2013, p. 1). In Sociolinguistics, the word of "socio" is the main aspect in this research that characterizes the public on science.

B. Attitude and Behaviour

Attitude is a tendency to approach or avoid, positive or negative to various State institutions, whether it is social, personal, situations, ideas, and concepts (Howard and Kendler, 1974). Attitude has the relationship between aspects of

motivation and feelings or emotions. In line with this view, Krech et al. (1988, p. 185) reveal four attitude developments. First, attitudes develop in the process of want satisfaction. Second, Attitudes of the individual are shaped by the information to which he is exposed. Third, the group affiliations of the individual help determine the formation of his attitudes. Fourth, the attitudes of the individual reflect his personality. Sarnoff (1970, p. 279) as quoted by Edward (195: 139) regards attitudes as "a disposition to react favorably or unfavorably to class of objects". Edward (195, p. 139) is often compared the three components, namely thoughts, feelings and predisposition to act.

According to Fasold, (1984, p. 147) there are two different theories of viewing attitude. The first theory is a theory of behavior that views attitude as the attitude of motoric. The second theory is mentalistic that views attitude as a mental attitude. There are a variety of methods conducted by psychologists to measure attitudes of language. The method conducted by Fasold (1984 p. 149) is termed as a direct measure of attitudes and indirect measure of attitudes.

C. Language Attitude

Anderson (1984, p. 37) reveals that characteristics of behavior language consist of two types, namely: language and non-language attitude. The non-language attitude is the attitude related to social attitude, an aesthetic attitude, and politics attitude. In addition, Chaer and Agustin (2010, p. 151) that the attitude of the language can be either a positive attitude or negative attitude. If the language is good, it is a positive attitude. If the language is not good, it is called negative attitude.

In relation to the above statements, the explanation of language attitude is also a major contributor to the success of language learning (Macmara in study and Fasold, 1973, p. 36). Other opinion, namely Dittmar (1976) explained that the definition of language attitude is characterized by some characteristics. The first is the selection of the language that will be used primarily in a multilingual community. The second is distribution of the Treasury of the language. The third is dialectal differences. The fourth is the usual problems arise as a result of any interaction among individuals. Bloomfield (1988:9) uses the term of "biophysical aspect of language and biosocial aspect of language". The second aspect relates to the approach to the language namely whether language is a behavior as individuals or as a social phenomenon.

D. Bureaucratic Language

Bureaucratic language giving color to the difficulty of doing the dichotomy between the bureaucracy and politics. In this context, political language has associated with bureaucratic language because both have the potential to become the controlling power.

The characteristic of the bureaucratic language is the lack of openness in the rational accountability to the public or another person. In addition, the characteristic of the bureaucratic language is like the public language. Besides, the ambiguity of bureaucratic language reflects the low level of politeness in speaking. It tends to be confused with the other discourse.

There are some studies that are relevant to the bureaucratic language. The first is "Deviation of the Indonesian Language among the famous people in the country" by Setyaningrum (2009). The second is Setyaningrum et al. (2009) in his writings entitled "Aberrations of Indonesian Language among famous people in the country". The third is the "use of the Indonesian Language in political discourse" by (Anang Santoso, 2002).

II. METHODOLOGY

This research has some characters. First, this study utilized the context as a whole, either the context of the situation or the social and cultural context. Second, researchers tried to find some data in the form of behavioral characteristics of language in perspective of bureaucracy. The data in the form of symptoms or behavioral phenomenon among language bureaucrats were analyzed, i.e. how is the tendency of attitudes and behavior of speaking in Indonesian language among bureaucrats of South Sulawesi province.

The data were collected naturally that were not previously conditioned. The subjects were given preferential treatment as in the qualitative approach. This research focuses on the situation of the utterance which involves events of utterance consisting of subject, time, gender, age, title. In addition, this research also focuses on the situation of utterance and linguistic behavior that reflects the language competencies.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. General Description for the Demographics of the Informants

The informants are an important element in a theoretical study in observing the fact data in the field. This study aims at determining the elements of Sociolinguistics in environmental bureaucrats in South Sulawesi province. Therefore, the bureaucrats are the key informant in this research in processing the data analysis based on their characteristics. The characteristics of the informants can be described in following table:

TABLE 1
CHARACTERISTIC AMONG MALE BUREAUCRATS

No.	Informants	Position	Characteristic			
			Gender	Age	address	Mother Language
1.	Abdul Rauf	Head of sub-division	Male	45th	Pinrang Regency	Indonesian-Buginese
2.	Rhommy	head of administration in Office of kesbangpol linmas	Male	44th	Pinrang Regency	Indonesian-Buginese
3.	Nadirah	General sub-division	Male	57th	Pinrang Regency	Indonesian-Buginese
4.	H. Rasnaeni	Head of Survey, Investigation & Hydrology	Male	45th	Pinrang Regency	Indonesian-Buginese
5.	H. A. Norma	Head of KBT	Male	45th	Pinrang Regency	Indonesian-Buginese
6.	A.Dani	Regional Employment Board	Male		Barru Regency	Indonesian-Buginese
7.	Ajip P	Local parliament	Male	57th	Barru Regency	Indonesian-Buginese
8.	Bupati Barru	regent of Barru	Male		Barru Regency	Indonesian-Buginese
9.	-	Head of education and training	Male	45th	Jenepponto Regency	Indonesian-Buginese

TABLE 2
CHARACTERISTIC AMONG FEMALE BUREAUCRATS

No.	Informants	Position	Characteristic			
			Gender			Gender
1.	Darmawati	Head of financial	Female	45th	Pinrang Regency	Indonesian-Buginese
2.	Uyun Tamrin, S.H	Head of Forest Service Planning	Female	55th	Pinrang Regency	Indonesian-Buginese
3.	Hajerah	head of the peace and order Lembang subdistrict in Pinrang	Female	45th	Pinrang Regency	Indonesian-Buginese
4.	Sariapo	Head of Road Maintenance	Female	45th	Pinrang Regency	Indonesian-Buginese
5.	A.Nurjaya, S.E	Head of planning	Female	50th	Pinrang Regency	Indonesian-Buginese
6.	DWP	Office of Licensing	Female	32th	Balukumba Regency	Indonesian-Buginese
7.	-	Head Regional Employment Board in Enrekang	Female	52th	Enrekang Regency	Indonesian-Buginese

Source: Data processed by the Researchers (2014)

The two tables above show that the key informants in this study are sixteen people consisting of seven women and nine men. All the informants have structural and functional position of bureaucrats in five regencies in South Sulawesi province. They are Pinrang, Enrekang, Barru, Jeneponto, Makassar and Bulukumba.

Characteristics of the informants in South Sulawesi Province Government were around between 30 – 50 years. They have their own native language that is Buginese language as their everyday language.

B. The Domain of Bureaucracy

The culture of the bureaucracy can be illustrated as a system or a set of values shared by the existing bureaucrats in their surroundings. Normatively, description of bureaucratic culture in South Sulawesi Province focuses on the attitudes and behavior of the Indonesian language.

C. The Culture Description in the Bureaucratic Environment

The cultural characteristic of bureaucracy in South Sulawesi province that examined includes culturally patterned value. It looks from the way of bureaucrats in communicating, explaining, and justifying what they say. The results of observation and interviews found that environmental bureaucrats in South Sulawesi province have cultural value relating to the distinctive pattern of communication. It is according to the exposure of one of the informants:

"The bureaucrats in Pinrang Regency have different language styles. They seem not to use the correct grammar". (Hajerah, September 10, 2013).

The results of the interview above demonstrate that communication style of the bureaucrats in South Sulawesi has a distinctive diction, with a firm tone and poor grammar. In addition, another informant added that the communication language used is following the development of technology. It is in line with the results of the interviews:

"Sometimes, the use of language was perfunctory in following developments and advances in technology from the outside, so that others feel offended."(A. Nurjana, 10 September 2013).

Based on the above exposure, the communication culture that developed in bureaucrats of the South Sulawesi Province have been following the development of technology. Communities within the bureaucracy are indoctrinated with the development of external cultures that ultimately creates an informal environment in the region of bureaucracy.

D. Communities in Environmental Bureaucracy

In General, the characteristics and elements of society in environmental bureaucrats can be seen from some of the things.

1. Age

The age of respondents ranged from an average of 40-50 years indicate that the gap of the age also affects social relationships in environmental bureaucracy. Indonesia is a country that still pays attention to the level of strata or age in any social relationship. The communities in South Sulawesi province bureaucrats have characteristics that concerned the age gap in the conversation. Formalities in social communication will greatly affect attitudes and behavior.

2. Gender

Consciously, gender also brings an influence on verbal and non-verbal communication in a communication process that occurs. Women are more understand about the process of nonverbal communication than men. Meanwhile, men are more likely to use verbal language than women because they tend to have minimal emotions (Robbins, 2003, p.142).

The women respondents in exposing their opinion are paying attention to linguistics material so that it is easy to understand and analyze. It can be shown from one exposure of the respondents:

"I'm very supportive because the language has a clear meaning. Moreover, the criticism may motivate the bureaucrats to be better." (Hajerah, 10 September 2013).

The above quote explains that the respondents support the regulation in speaking of for the bureaucrats. Therefore, there are updates in the internal culture of the bureaucracy to be better. The content of the verbal communication of the respondents are delivered in a simple language so that it is easy to understand, and it does not cause a misunderstanding.

The men respondents tend to use a language that is not concise. In addition, they convey a message by using the two mother tongues that are mixed, namely Indonesian and buginese languages. It was supported in the exposure of the respondent as follow:

"It affects because if people are not using the correct language, there is sometimes misunderstanding" (Abdul Rauf, 10 September 2013).

In addition, they tend to use a language that is not raw although the contents of the communication have been implied. It proves that the culture can also be related to gender as a benchmark of the performance of Community bureaucracy.

E. Individuals in Environmental Bureaucracy

The individuals in the environmental bureaucracy in the province of South Sulawesi, in general is a speaker with a dialect which is firm and straightforward, with a predominance of the use of language or buginese accent. Although, the fact is that integration in language variation also arises as a result of the mixing of cultures from every individual in an environment of the bureaucrats.

The use of Indonesian language among the bureaucrats in South Sulawesi province is being a firm belief in carrying out duties as government officials. However, the integration of language diversity is not performed thoroughly. Thus, the purpose of language switching, from a dialect to a national language with appropriate vocabulary according to the language rules that is enhanced Indonesian spelling system, has not performed in a whole.

This kind of attitude is only possessed individually. Its object is also not a social object but individual object. For example, the attitude that is fun for one type of color or one type of brand clothing.

In addition to the division of the individual and social attitude, it can also be distinguished into two groups:

1) A positive attitude is an attitude that demonstrates or shows, accepts, acknowledges, approves, and implements the norms that apply where the individual resides. If it is associated with the attitudes and behavior of individuals, there are certain groups within the bureaucracy of the individual receiving or responding to regulation in the use of language as a guide to make changes in various aspects of bureaucracy through Indonesian language as a formal language.

2) A negative attitude is an attitude that demonstrates or shows disapproval or disagrees of the applicable norms in which the individual resides. The negative attitude is closely related to the individuals who have negative attitudes towards the application of the existing regulation. Therefore, response and acceptance are two difficult things to implement.

F. Literary Regulation at the Level of Bureaucracy

The obligation of the use of Indonesian language by the state institutions, as well as government agencies of the Republic of Indonesia, is contained in the provisions of the Constitution of the Republic of Indonesia article 36. This Constitution stated "the State language is Indonesian Language." This provision is further stated in Article 36C of the Constitution of 1945 about the flag which states that the language, the state symbol and the National Anthem are set in legislation.

Law No. 24 in 2009 on the flag, language, the state symbol, and the national anthem reveals that Indonesian is the recognition of a symbol or symbol that is honored and proud. It is a force that could collect and tend to evolve into the language of unity and communications widely from time to time. It means that the language of bureaucracy should possess, gathers and becomes connector extensively, which is projected in Indonesian language properly.

Partially, the subject of regulation in using language among bureaucrats is set in some of the provisions of laws and regulations, namely:

a. The act No. 8 in 1974 and act No. 43 in 1999 regarding staffing issues changes to the act No. 5 in 2014 about State Civil Servant.

b. Regulation of the Minister of State for administrative officials No PER/15/m. PAN/7/2008 about the guidelines of the reform of the bureaucracy and PER/21/m. PAN/11/2008 about the guidelines for preparing the Standard Operating Procedure (SOP).

c. Regulation of the Minister of State for Administrative Officials No PER/12/m. PAN/08/2007 about the guidelines of the Environmental Agency in public relations of the Government.

d. Regulation of the Minister of State for administrative Officials No. 28 in 2011 that is contained in general guidelines for communications of organizations in the Government environment with some benefits, namely:

1) Systems and patterns of flow of information communication that is integrated, structured and equitable;

2) A strong institutional improvement and having competence in providing optimal and responsible information service;

3) Coordination, integration and synchronization in managing organizational communication;

4) The realization of a good relationship of bureaucratic among central government agencies, local government agencies as well as between central and regional government agencies.

G. Language Attitudes of Bureaucrats

Subjectively, each component of cognition can be displayed in the results of research with key informants who supported based on the Government's environmental speech in South Sulawesi province. The first component is the political aspect. It has a rating that is more likely to concern the benefit than the necessity. The following table describes this:

TABLE 3
THE POLITICAL COMPONENT ABOUT REGULATION FOR THE USE THE LANGUAGE OF BUREAUCRATS

No.	Informants	Assessment	
		Benefit	Necessity
1.	Abdul Rauf	-	√
2.	Rhomy	-	√
3.	Nadirah	√	-
4.	H. Rasnaeni		√
5.	H. A. Norma	√	-
6.	Darmawati	-	√
7.	Uyun Tamrin, S.H	-	√
8.	Hajerah	-	√
9.	Sariapo	-	√
10.	Nurjaya, S.E	-	√
11.	A.Dani	√	
12.	Ajip P	√	
13.	Bupati Barru	√	
14.	Kabid. Diklat	√	
15.	DWP Kantor Perizinan Kab. Bulukumba	√	
16.	Ka. BKD Enrekang	√	

Source: Data processed by the Researchers (2014)

The table above shows that the average respondent's assessment for the aspect of cognition in the political language of the bureaucracy in South Sulawesi province are more likely to concern the purpose than the benefit. This statement is supported by the results of the interviews stating that the literary on the level of bureaucracy tends to be based on need.

"It is very necessary as interwoven communication between bureaucrats and people who want to follow the example." (Uyun Tamrin, S.H, 10 September 2013).

"The bureaucrats want to equalize their vision and perception in environmental governance through the Indonesian language holistically." (Rhommy, 10 September 2013).

"It affects. If the bureaucrats are not using the correct language, it sometimes creates misunderstanding." (Abdul Rauf, 10 September 2013).

It is similar with the utterance by key informant of the women in the Government of South Sulawesi province stating that:

"It is very necessary. For example, a data report on the accountability of a regent will illustrate its performance." (Uyun Tamrin, S.H, 10 September 2013).

Explanation of the two key informants above shows that the assessment of the aspect of cognition that is reflected through the influence of the economy in the attitude and behavior of the bureaucratic language in the province of South Sulawesi, is indispensable. Therefore, the attitude and behavior of the correct language use among bureaucrats in the field regional economic can attract a positive attitude in the use of correct Indonesian language.

Further, the third aspect is about technologies that reflect responses among bureaucrats associated with the use of technology. So, as shown in the following tabulations:

TABLE 4
COMPONENTS TECHNOLOGY OF REGULATION-SPEAKING BUREAUCRATS

No.	Informants	Regulatory Assessment of Bureaucratic Language	
		Understand	Not understand
1.	Abdul Rauf	-	√
2.	Rhomy	-	√
3.	Nadirah	√	-
4.	H. Rasnaeni		√
5.	H. A. Norma	√	-
6.	Darmawati	-	√
7.	Uyun Tamrin, S.H	-	√
8.	Hajerah	-	√
9.	Sariapo	-	√
10.	Nurjaya	-	√
11.	A.Dani	√	
12.	Ajip P	√	
13.	Bupati Barru	√	
14.	Kabid. Diklat	√	
15.	DWP Kantor Perizinan Kab. Bulukumba	√	
16.	Ka. BKD Enrekang	√	

Source: the Data processed by the Researcher (2014)

According to the tabulations indicate that exposure to the average rating of the respondents associated components technology in the aspect of cognition of Environmental Governance in the bureaucratic language of South Sulawesi province indicated tend to not fully understood. Therefore, among the bureaucracy in the use of technology is likely to be affected by the language technology compared to formal languages, besides the use of the language is said to be "random" causing another person offended. So, as supported in the exposure interviews researchers who suggested literary level of bureaucracy tends to be judged on his own only, namely:

"due to the use of technology to use the language correctly, but the attitude and behaviour of speaking among bureaucrats tend to be affected by the language technology that's less good." (Abdul Rauf, 10 September 2013).

"Sometimes the use of its language with the language of technology gets the perfunctory so others feel offended." (Nurjaya, s. E, 10 September 2013).

Here, the fourth aspect is the social responses reflect the subject among bureaucrats associated with social welfare. Things such as expressed by key informant research having an assessment likely to see this side of social welfare have not been entirely good and less good by bureaucrats in a formal language. So, as shown in the following tabulations:

TABLE 5
REGULATION OF BUREAUCRATIC LANGUAGE

No.	Informants	Regulatory Assessment Of Bureaucratic Language	
		good	Fair
1.	Abdul Rauf	√	
2.	Rhomy		√
3.	Nadirah	√	
4.	H. Rasnaeni		√
5.	H. A. Norma	√	
6.	Darmawati		√
7.	Uyun Tamrin, S.H		√
8.	Hajerah		√
9.	Sariapo		√
10.	Nurjaya		√
11.	A.Dani		√
12.	Ajip P		√
13.	Bupati Barru	√	√
14.	Kabid. Diklat		√
15.	DWP Kantor Perizinan Kab. Bulukumba		√
16.	Ka. BKD Enrekang		√

Source: the Data processed by the Researcher (2014)

According to the tabulations indicate that exposure to the average rating of the respondents associated components technology in the aspect of cognition of Environmental Governance in bureaucratic language, Kab. Pinrang indicated tend to be rated poorly. Because, the language is still using the traditional regional dialects. So, as supported in the exposure interviews researchers who suggested literary level of bureaucracy tends to be judged not able to improve social welfare, including:

"the language is still less good, the language used is also not relevant so that it can cause symptoms that threaten security." (Uyun Tamrin, S. H, September 10, 2013).

Lastly, the fifth aspect is the subject of management of public service which reflects the responses among bureaucrats associated with belief in the attitude and behaviour of the bureaucracy and the role of language in the use of formal languages in a bureaucratic environment. Things such as expressed by key informant research having an assessment likely to see this side of belief in the attitude and behaviour of the bureaucracy and the role of language has not been entirely good or less good among bureaucrats in the formal language. So, as shown in the following tabulations:

TABLE 6
REGULATION OF BUREAUCRATIC LANGUAGE

No.	Informants	Regulatory Assessment Of Bureaucratic Language	
		Good	Fair
1.	Abdul Rauf	√	
2.	Rhomy		√
3.	Nadirah	√	
4.	H. Rasnaeni		√
5.	H. A. Norma	√	
6.	Darmawati		√
7.	Uyun Tamrin, S.H		√
8.	Hajerah		√
9.	Sariapo		√
10.	Nurjaya, S.E		√
11.	A.Dani		√
12.	Ajip P		√
13.	Bupati Barru	√	√
14.	Kabid. Diklat		√
15.	DWP Kantor Perizinan Kab. Bulukumba	√	√
16.	Ka. BKD Enrekang		√

Source: the Data processed by the Researcher (2014)

According to the tabulations indicate that exposure to the average rating of the respondents associated public service management component in the aspect of cognition of Environmental Governance in bureaucratic language, Kab. Pinrang indicated tend to be rated poorly. Because, the language used is often show the wrong interpretations giving rise to trust less. In addition, the role of leadership in the explained how important the use of formal languages (Indonesia) in Environmental Governance has never been assessed, for the leadership and ethical behavior befitting a leader only. So, as supported in the exposure interviews researchers who suggested literary level of bureaucracy tends to be judged not able to improve the management of the public service, namely:

"believe me, when bureaucrats speak properly then the community will be a bureaucrat admitted." (Uyun Tamrin, s. H, September 10, 2013).

"never before, leadership and ethical behavior should only speak the regional nuances." (Rhommy, September 10, 2013).

Then, according to head of Training speech Jeneponto.

"SWOT strategy formulation For putting the regulation militate in invitation to training activities as a guide, which is still little known by CIVIL SERVANTS." (Jeneponto, Kabid Training September 10, 2013).

H. Tendency of Bureaucrats to Implement the Regulation of Literary

The philosophical grounding enshrined in the Constitution of the Republic of Indonesia in 1945 had already set up a variety of things that concern the nation's identity and the identity of the unitary State of the Republic of Indonesia. One of them is the language; the symbol became a reflection of State sovereignty in the intercourse of Nations Indonesia and become a reflection self-sustainability and the existence of the State of Indonesia. As set forth in article 36 States that the State language is Indonesia language.

Regarding of the regulatory language at the level of bureaucracy is a necessity as the identity and the identity of the State Apparatus is officially used as the recognition as well as affirmation.

Substantive, linguistic perspective bureaucratic regulations indicate that normatively not have fit. Such a case, as outlined in the study with key informants indicated in the following tabulation display.

TABLE 7
REGULATION OF BUREAUCRACY LANGUAGE

No.	Informants Name	Assessment of Regulation of Bureaucracy Language	
		Good	Fair
1.	Abdul Rauf	√	
2.	Rhomy		√
3.	Nadirah	√	
4.	H. Rasnaeni		√
5.	H. A. Norma	√	
6.	Darmawati		√
7.	Uyun Tamrin, S.H		√
8.	Hajerah		√
9.	Sariapo		√
10.	Nurjaya, S.E		√
11.	A.Dani		√
12.	Ajip P		√
13.	Regent of Barru	√	
14.	Training Subdivision		√
15.	DWP Licensing Office Kab. Bulukumba		√
16.	Ka. BKD Enrekang		√

Source: Researcher Date Processed (2014)

Tabulation above explained if the tendency of bureaucrats in South Sulawesi province to implement the regulatory language is still not optimal. At a certain level, these regulations only as a formality that serves as a guide personnel in charge. Internal relations which should be established as a formal environment are in fact largely symbolic and do not suit properly.

This phenomenon is also supported by exposure informants stated attitudes and behavior of bureaucrats in South Sulawesi and in charge of social relationships both horizontally and vertically using diction that is not still raw.

"Speaking of the attitude of the bureaucrats in the province of South Sulawesi for more on the use of formal language / speech / behavior Indonesian language in daily work is mostly done in a misguided act of pronunciation that do not fit." (Rhommy, 10 September 2013).

Of exposure to the respondents in the above it can be concluded if the tendency of the application of the internal environment Indonesian bureaucracy has not materialized as it should.

In addition, another informant added that if the bureaucrats in South Sulawesi behavior only apply the language if you have a particular interest with high officials of other bureaucrats.

"Bureaucrats in South Sulawesi are more likely to use the official language of bureaucrats so fun thing to be scrutinized not delivered" (Uyun Tamrin, 10 September 2013).

Based on the explanation above can be understood if the use of formal language in accordance with the rules of the whole Indonesian language only used by employees bureaucrat in a particular occasion or purpose. In addition, according to one informant, as a result of the use of grammar is still not standard, it is necessary or needed changes that begin with coaching.

"Still needs to be fixed how bureaucrats should speak, so there is a change through the development and improvement" (A. Nurjana, 10 September 2013).

Exposure on the employee to prove if some bureaucrat in South Sulawesi expect there is a change of language in accordance with the rules and regulations through the bureaucratic language in the development and improvement of the language.

However, some informants would disagree that, where an employee said if the tendency of bureaucrats in South Sulawesi using Indonesian language was pretty good. It is reflected in the exposure of informants as follows:

"*It tends to be good and behaviors that form is good enough*" (Nadiran, 10 September 2013).

"*I think it's more correct to use Indonesian and right to avoid / minimize the sense of offense among the bureaucrats*. (Abdul Rauf, 10 September 2013).

"*For me, the language used is quite satisfactory and follow the spirit of the work*" (A. Norma, 10 September 2013).

Based on the explanation above, it can be interpreted several informants believe that bureaucrats in South Sulawesi in the Indonesian language tend to have a pretty good and in accordance with the rules of the existing language. In addition, it can also be proven by one of the speeches, namely:

"*In addition ... the district government has implemented several policies through several regulatory district ... among other things ... non-alcoholic, clever read-write Qur'an, Muslim fashion consumption and Muslimat* "(Ka. BKD Enrekang, 10 September 2013).

Exposure speech above, there is evidence that officials were using Indonesian bureaucrats in accordance with the rules of good language and easy to understand. Based on some information that has been presented in the above matrix will be formed as follows:

Table 8 Results of Triangulation includes aspects: beliefs about the regulatory language bureaucrat, bureaucrats' evaluation of the bureaucratic language of the regulation, and the tendency of bureaucracy to implement the regulatory language.

TABLE 8

Informants	Aspects of Language Attitudes			Description
	Confidence of Bureaucrats	Evaluation of Bureaucrats	Tendency of Bureaucrats	
Rhommy	"The bureaucracy wants to create a unified vision and perception within the Indonesian government through a holistic manner."	"in the province of South Sulawesi, very rarely attitudes and behavior using Indonesian bureaucrats is good and right, more dominant language attitudes and behaviors that traditional regional accent ".	"The attitude of the bureaucrats speaking in Pinrang more heavily on the use of formal language / speech / language behavior Indonesia. But in daily more work done in a misguided act of pronunciation that do not fit "	
Nadiran	"I believe the bureaucrats in Pinrang it's time to be positive about the use of Indonesian."	"There are officers who use Indonesian with good and not boring and too easy to understand".	"It tends to be good, and behaviors that form is good enough"	
Abdul Rauf	"Influence, because if it is not using the correct language is sometimes misunderstood."	"In my opinion, it's good. In the sense already using Indonesian proper and correct and not too much use of the commercial language".	"I think it's more correct to use Indonesian and right to avoid / minimize the sense of offense among the bureaucrats"	
Rasnaeni	"Serving the community by using a better language, will make us respect each other"	"The language used is less ethical".	"I think the speech is pretty good, the presentation too. But, still less ethical to other bureaucrats, because the provincial bureaucrat considers himself more of a Bureaucrat District "	
A.Norma	"Actually, using the language too much development will be easier, and makes enough for me to feel satisfied."	"Some employees use the language well enough, and ways of working as well as the percentage of work has also been satisfying to motivate the performance of other employees."	"For me, the language used is quite satisfactory and follow the spirit of the work"	
A.Dani		"We see and have a very specific purpose of settling this problem is (and was) the purpose of the pack and also there are some which we highlight here is to bring better governance, effective, and efficient".		
Ajip P DPRD Sulawesi Selatan		"Yes, the mother is still general secretary, also renewed his rather he means it now ... it was rather general secretary of the secretary-general of home affairs and such that one has also the advantage of being able to be extended tenure"		
Bupati Barru			"Improved optimization inseminator competence of district secretariat office in Barru also attended Barru resource in department of agriculture, animal husbandry and regional secretariat"	
Kabid Diklat	The next in the actual issue was discovered several problems, the first problem to lack of socialization disciplinary apparatus where we use is urgent and very serious			
Darmawati	"It should be Indonesian is used in communication, so that can be an example to the community in the district. Pinrang "	"Less, because the language used is still daily language."	"The use of Indonesian is still lacking, because there are many local languages"	

Uyun Tamrin	*"Indispensable as the communication fabric between the bureaucrats and the people who want to imitate."*	*"Still do not reflect the language well, because more often using daily dialect".*	*"More likely to use the official language of bureaucrats so fun thing to be scrutinized not delivered"*	
Hajerah	*"It is time, and even should, because the use of Indonesian is mandatory for the implementation of government and public services for the people"*	*"In my opinion, the language used is not standard so it can be assessed is still not as it should be"*	*"They tend to be less, because it still uses the local language"*	
Sariapo	*"Yes, it should. Because as a public servant must use good Indonesian ".*	*"The language used in the work environment is not polite and without thinking about the feelings of others"*	*"Less polite and still talk casually and not appropriate the grammar"*	
A.Nurjana	*sometimes careless use of language to go with the language of technology so that others feel offended*	*"Tend still remove inappropriate language spoken and issued"*	*"Still needs to be fixed how bureaucrats should speak"*	
DWP Licensing Office Kab. Bulukumba	In addition, I also want to convey the unity darmawanita in Bulukumba that we invited speakers from licensing darmawanita Mrs. Hajjah e Ani Nurhelmi, Spd for sharing briefly presented the material on personal competence where hopefully what is presented as a moment can change our mindset of how we as wives civil servants behave and act both in communicating in our resolve and harmony.		
Ka. BKD Enrekang			"In addition ... the district government has implemented several policies through several regulatory district such as non-alcoholic, clever read-write Qur'an, wear clothing of Muslim and Muslimat"	

IV. Conclusion

Tendency Indonesian language attitudes among local officials in the province of South Sulawesi is still showing the use of language prevailing in the group is not based on existing regulations. Expected conditions in the presence of a positive attitude language behavior is still shaped expectations, and it can be achieved if the bureaucrats have communicative abilities in performing their duties and functions as the State apparatus.

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An Empirical Study of Affective Instruction in Comprehensive English Class for English Majors in China

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Abstract—The research aims at exploring that application of affective instruction in English as a foreign language class in China is conducive to students' cognitive development and target language acquisition. The study involves both quantitative approach depending on the statistical data and qualitative approach to analyze the investigation results. The subjects are 64 sophomores of English majors from School of Foreign Languages at a university in southwestern China. The instruments of the investigation are questionnaires and tests for English majors. The results of the experiments (Research subjects were required to finish questionnaires and testing papers in Sep. 2006 and Jan. 2007 respectively.) indicated that in the pretest the students from two classes are approximately well-matched concerning affective factors and English proficiency, while in the posttest there are changes of students' affective state between the students from the experimental class and the control class (t=3.405, P<0.001) and some differences of the two classes in English proficiency (t=3.239, P<0.01). Based on these research results, the conclusion is drawn that affective instruction contributes to cultivating students' positive affect, and positive affect in turn helps students enhance their target language acquisition.

Index Terms—affective instruction, affective factors, English proficiency, English major

I. INTRODUCTION

Based on *English Syllabus for English Majors in China* (Ministry of Education, 2000), students are required to have a good command of English and extensive cultural knowledge, and to be able to use English appropriately in the areas of foreign affairs, education, business, culture, science, military etc. *Comprehensive English*, one compulsory course for sophomores, focuses on developing students' integrated skills of using the target language. That is to say, having received two-year language training, the students are expected to (1) get the information in the line, between the line and beyond the line; (2) be familiar with different expressions and the feature of different genres, (3) enrich their vocabularies and structures, (4) possess essential communicative competence in speaking and writing. In order to reach the goal, the teachers have been contributing to helping students know about English and know how to use English. They lay emphasis on language input, from words, phrases, sentences presentation to paragraphs analysis. Consequently the students are immersed in a vast sea of words, phrases, structures and well-organized passages. Moreover, the teachers set them as assignment for the students to memorize, for it is commonly agreed that the more they are exposed to the target language, the more they acquire the language. The more they remember, the better they produce target language. Undoubtedly this emphasis meets the need of the Input Hypothesis (Krashen, 1985), but it simultaneously puts some students, especially less gifted students in anxiety---they are afraid of unfulfilling the task, in fact they are incapable of finishing it. Because of the pressure and failure, some are becoming indifferent to and tired of English learning.

According to the Affective Filter Hypothesis (Krashen, 1985), providing students a lot of language input doesn't mean that they can learn target language well, for the process of second language acquisition is also influenced by affective factors. Language input can change into language output only through affective filtration. When the students are relaxed and their affective filtration is low, they can acquire language and learn faster. So it is self-evident that affective factors play a positive or a negative role in the process of language input. Here lies a challenge, how to activate learners' positive affect to increase learning effect.

II. AFFECT IN ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING

1. Definitions of "Affect"

So an ever-increasing concern with affective factors involves both researchers and teachers abroad and at home. The word "affect" is outlined in *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives: The Affective Domain* written by Krathwohl, Bloom, and Masia (1964), as a generic term to describe such phenomena as emotions, attitudes, beliefs, moods, and conation. Since learning a language and using it are basically interactive activities that depend on various types of relationships with others and with the culture as a whole, the SLA process is strongly influenced by individual personality traits residing with the learner. The way teachers feel about themselves and their capabilities can either facilitate or impede students' learning; accordingly the learner's affective factors will exert a basically positive or negative influence on what they learn. Also Zhang Zhiguang (1984, p. 279) defined that "Affect is human's attitudinal experience to the objective reality to judge whether it satisfies his need or not." According to Arnold (1999, p.1), "In language learning context, affect will be considered broadly as aspects of emotion, feeling, mood or attitude which condition behavior." Affectivity can be considered from two perspectives: individual factors and relational factors. The individual factors are those that deal with internal factors that are part of the learner's personality. Motivation, self-confidence, anxiety, and attitude, which are adjustable and are manipulated through teachers' instruction, all belong to the first perspective. Relational factors, on the other hand, are concerned with affective factors between learners and between teachers and learners, including empathy, classroom interactions and cross-cultural consciousness (Arnold, 1999).

Arnold's affective factors classification signifies the individual factors such as motivation, self-confidence, anxiety, and attitude have relation with the relational factors, which will influence language learning. And they are selected as the items in the questionnaire of this study to investigate whether the students' learning motivation is aroused, whether their self-confidence is established, whether their anxiety is reduced and whether the students' attitude to learning is active.

2. Importance of Affect

Affect appears to have many functions. Rolls (1999) listed ten functions of affect as follows:

(1) The elicitation of autonomic responses and endocrine responses

(2) Flexibility of behavioral responses to reinforcing stimuli

(3) Motivation

(4) In communication

(5) In social bonding

(6) Positively reinforcing

(7) The current mood state can affect the cognitive evaluation of events or memories.

(8) It may facilitate the storage of memories.

(9) It may help to produce persistent motivation and direction of behavior.

(10) It may trigger recall of memories stored in neocortical representations.

Also Lu (2000, p.142) pointed out the effect of affective instruction on students' intellectual development. It first enhances students' learning enthusiasm; secondly, it improves students' learning efficiency; thirdly, it promotes the intellectual development of students; fourth, it helps students cultivate good learning attitude. In the teaching context, learners' affect is the reflection of the relationship between teachers and teaching activities and learners' real needs. Whether teachers and teaching activities meet learners' demands is the main factor that influences the development of learners' affect.

The roles of affect mentioned above make it clear that emotion is conducive to cognition, which is significant and inspiring to the present empirical study. The study tries to demonstrate that application of affective instruction in English as foreign language learning is conducive to students' cognitive development and target language acquisition. And the positive affect not only activates learners' learning motivation, but also plays roles as a lubricant, building social interaction, thereby the harmonious atmosphere in class is fostered and thus directly influences learning proficiency.

3. Teachers' Affect

According to Lu (2000, p.70) the teacher's affect will be mainly grouped as follows.

(1) Affect for teaching profession: It refers to the teacher's ethic devotion to his teaching. The difference between a teachers' job and the job of other fields lies in the fact that a teacher shoulders the responsibility of cultivating and developing the younger generations. As is mentioned by Russian Educator Михаи́л Ива́нович Кали́нин a teacher is an architect of man's soul.

(2) Affect for the subjects: It is passion for the subject that the teacher demonstrates when delivering their lecture. A teacher not only imparts language knowledge, language skills, and the learning strategy to the students, but also brings his/her enthusiasm and interest to the students. Enthusiasm is contagious. In turn the students' learning enthusiasm and interest are aroused, which last in the process of constantly absorbing, processing and exporting knowledge, skills and ideas.

(3) Affect for students: This is generous love for the students, not maternal or paternal love, but better than it. It is a primitive power for the teacher to inspire his students and make his students enjoy learning and creating. Love can begin with ourselves, but delight others and is accepted by others.

The teacher's affect lays a base for teaching strategy construction in the present study. The loyalty to his/her career,

the way in teaching and the care for his/her students provide a guideline for how to motivate students, how to build up students' self-confidence, how to lower students' anxiety and how to activate the students in learning. As the famous German poet Goethe (1988) declared that in all things we learnt only from those we loved, he was speaking directly to the profound connection between cognition and affection. Learners are especially open to and receptive towards those that they love. They are more likely to remember the words of a beloved mentor and to ruminate on them long after the words were spoken. Teaching goes deep when carrying deep affection into the human being; it can change the learners, teach learners to see the world differently.

4. Empirical Studies on Affective Instruction in EFL teaching

When coming to the survey of empirical study on affective instruction, it's better for us to know what affective instruction is. Affective instruction, in view of Lu Jiamei (2000: 2), is a kind of educational approach, which is applied by a teacher who makes good use of positive affect while taking all the cognitive factors into consideration in the teaching process so as to improve teaching objectives and to consolidate teaching effects. Because of its efficiency and effectiveness in teaching, affective instruction has been discussed and studied both abroad and at home.

Leo F, Dehtoh and Dawh Mckihhey (2004) drew as the conclusion that the affective factors such as interest, value, lack of pressure, overall belonging had significant correlations with course grade. Chi-keung Michael Kam (2008) found that high motivation was an antecedent and necessary condition for students to learn second language and would produce high achievement. But the investigation also found the goal setting wasn't significant in determining students' motivation in their English learning.

Ji (2007) made some investigations into the implementation of affective teaching objectives in junior high school. Tang (2007) carried out some surveys to find what affective factors influenced the oral English proficiency. Xu (2007) found that both extrinsic motivation and intrinsic motivation managed to promote learners' English learning. Lu (2007) concluded that nearly half of the teachers were subjectively aware of the importance of affective attitude, teachers lacked strategies to handle affective issues in teaching.

Based on the empirical studies on affective instruction, there is some room left for further investigation into affective instruction, for the previous research mainly focused on the subjects who were either junior, senior school students or non-English major students, but few chose English majors as subjects. In addition, the previous research demonstrated the relation between affective factors and learners' personality, learners' courses, and achievements, but few provided teaching strategies in affective instruction. The present empirical study will investigate the affective instruction situation of English majors in Comprehensive English Class in universities and the corresponding teaching strategies will be put forward in order to maximize the students' learning.

III. RESEARCH DESIGN

1. Research questions
The study will focus on the following research questions:
(1) Does affective instruction applied in class develop students' positive affect?
(2) How does the positive affect make an impact on students' learning?
(3) What relationship does there exist between the affective instruction and students' school performance?
2. Research subjects

In accordance with the above research questions, the research subjects are 64 sophomores of English majors from School of Foreign Languages at a university in southwestern China. The participants are from two classes in the same grade, taught by the same teacher. And the participants of experimental class and control class are similarly distributed in terms of English language background, age ranging from 19-20, and gender of both are 23% males and 77% females. The teaching materials used in both experimental and control classes are *Contemporary College English (Book III)* and the related materials conducive to a good mastery of the required language knowledge and a better understanding of the text book were handed out impartially. To avoid any Pygmalion effect, the participants were not allowed to know about the study.

3. Research instruments

In the study, affective instruction is set as an independent variable, while dependent variables include motivation, anxiety, attitude and confidence, and students' achievements of both pretest and posttest of TEM-Band 4. Since the test is set by the Ministry of Education for sophomores as a summative assessment, all English majors from national comprehensive universities are required to take part in it in order to be evaluated their English proficiency. It is reliable and efficient to adopt the test as a means of evaluation of language learning and teaching.

Apart from the TEM-Band Four, another instrument is the student questionnaire. The questionnaire is a five-point Likert-type scoring from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) about the affective factors of college students in English learning. It is composed of four parts: motivation, self-confidence, anxiety and attitude toward English learning. There are twenty Likert-type items in the questionnaire which requires the participants to rate their agreement with statements reflecting thinking and beliefs held by them about affective factors. The items of the questionnaire are adapted from Gardner's Attitude Test Battery (AMTB) (2004) and Gao Yihong's *The Social Psychology of English Learning by Chinese College Students* (2004). The items were designed in Chinese (See appendix I) in order to ensure all the subjects could understand the statements and respond to them with care. The four factors are of positive

correlations with the scores of TEM-Band Four except anxiety, which shows the negative correlation with the scores.

TABLE 1
VARIABLES AND INSTRUMENTS IN THE STUDY

Variables		Instruments
Independent Variables	Affective Instruction	Different activities and teaching techniques
Dependent Variable	Learners' Achievements in TEM-Band Four	TEM-Band Four Exam
	Confidence	Questionnaire of College Students' Affective Factors (see Appendix I)
	Motivation	
	Anxiety	
	Attitude	

4. Procedures

A. Phase one

In September 2006, the TEM-Band 4 (2004) was adopted for the examination of pre-test for both students of experimental class and control class. It is a standard test aiming to assess students' application of the basic skills---listening, speaking, reading and writing—and students' mastery of grammar and vocabulary. It involves both assessment of comprehensive competence and assessment of individual skill. The test, which is made up of five parts—writing, listening comprehension (Due to some reasons, the listening comprehension was crossed out), cloze, grammar & vocabulary, and reading comprehension. All the students of both classes took part in the exam simultaneously at the very beginning of the first academic term in 2006.

During class break, one questionnaire adapted from Gardner (2004) and Gao Yihong (2004) was given to each participant from experimental class and control class in order to examine their affective factors about English as foreign language learning such as their motivation, their self-confidence, their anxiety and their response to the teacher's methods applied in class.

When the test papers and questionnaires were collected respectively, the statistical software of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS 16.03) and Microsoft Excel were used to analyze the experimental data, on which all inferences and results were based.

From September 2006, the experimental class was dominated by affective instruction, in which the change of the teacher's role, teaching methods, interaction model in class and students' arrangement were taken into account to create a positive learning environment and cultivate students' positive affection.

As is mentioned in Feuerstein's theory of mediation (1991), it is the role of the teacher to help learners build confidence, sustain interest, develop appropriate learning strategies. Instead of knowledge transmitting, the teacher played multiple roles in designing and organizing the tasks and activities, controlling the time of the activities and the chance distribution, giving immediate help when necessary, joining one or two groups as a member of that group, providing students with resource and information available, correcting mistakes indirectly and organizing feedback (Jeremy, 2001), motivating students in constructing meaning.

In regard to motivating students in constructing meaning, the teacher activated students' prior knowledge by applying "Top-down model" and "interactive model" to aid them in learning, for learning is a process in which the learner constructs meaning based on his own experiences and what he already knows according to constructivist theory. For achieving the best learning, task-based language teaching (TBLT) was also implemented to engage students in the tasks and activities, during which the teacher acted as scaffolding---from direct and explicit instruction to guidance and less guidance, while the students were left independently to discuss, to make a plan, to solve a problem and they earned the opportunity to exchange their ideas, to learn from each other and display their language competence. With positive comments "Well done!", "Amazing job!", "Excellent!" on their performance and appreciation from the teacher and peers, students felt confident and motivated to learn more.

To establish dynamic interaction between the teacher and the learners, between the learners and learners, the students in the experimental class were put into groups of different sizes to do pair work and group work. Sometimes whole class work and individual work were required respectively when the teacher made a presentation, checked exercise, or did accuracy reproduction and when students processed information and consolidated learning results. In accordance to the students' grouping, they were arranged in semi-circle or U-shape, circle, at separate tables and in orderly rows. When students worked in groups or in pairs, the teacher either participated in one group as a group member, or circulated around the classroom, answering questions or providing help when necessary, they felt at ease and had more chances to speak, to bare their opinion. This encouraged co-operation & negotiation skills between students or among students; this promoted students' self-reliance and learner autonomy by allowing students to make their own decisions rather than follow the teachers; this relaxed and friendly context motivated students to learn and their self-confidence was established.

However, a few students, owing to personality, individual difference or being afraid of making mistakes, remained quiet or were deprived chances of expressing their ideas by those active ones. To pluck up their courage, some measures in relation to response opportunity, feedback and personal regard (Rompelman, 2002) were taken as follows:

(1) Everyone was given the equal chance to present his/her idea. Active ones were appropriately controlled, while

passive ones were encouraged.

(2) Students were allowed enough time to formulate a reasonable response to a question.

(3) Students were given clues when necessary.

(4) The teacher kept her eyes on shining part of students' performance, enabling the student to know what the teacher thought of his/her performance.

(5) The teacher didn't hesitate to praise her students' learning performance—according to behavioral learning theory, praise was a highly effective strategy to increase the likelihood that an appropriate behavior would be repeated.

(6) The teacher was good at listening, with eye contact and a rephrasing of what the student had said.

(7) The teacher was interested in the students and in what they were doing. When students worked in group or pair, the teacher not only walked around to offer help when necessary, but joined in one group as a participant.

(8) The teacher was courteous and friendly to the students, showing herself as supporter and helper to the students.

B. Phase two

From what discussed above, it was obvious that the affective instruction was the most important characteristic in the experimental class, while the students from the control class were confined to "the Jug-and-Mug method (the teacher, a full jug, pours knowledge into the students, empty mug)" (Wang, 2000). The teacher dominated the class by explicitly explaining the focal points and difficult points of the texts and the students listened to the teacher passively while making notes of what their teacher delivered. They were given few chances to express themselves because of the teacher's too much talking time.

To evaluate the effect of affective teaching, what the author did in the second phase was similar to that in the first phase. In January of 2007, the students of the two classes took part in the exam of TEM-Band 4 (2005) (The test for English majors is organized once a year by the Ministry of Education. TEM-Band 4 (2005) is the latest one.). In order to be fair and objective, the listening comprehension part had to be crossed out from the post-test so as to go with the pre-test TEM-Band 4 (2004). And this time the questionnaire was still distributed to the students of the experimental class and the control class to finish.

C. Data Collection and Analysis

The data consisted of answers to the questionnaires and tests.

(1) Questionnaires

Each of the subjects was respectively given the questionnaire during class break in early Sept 2006 and in late Jan of 2007 and was required to hand in as soon as they finished. When 64 questionnaires were gotten back, firstly the researcher calculated the point of each part which contained an affective variable, then input the data to the classified Excel files in computer, at last used the statistical software of SPSS 16.03 and Excel to analyze the empirical data, on which the inferences and results were based. The analysis was as follows:

(a) First, add the number of each part, and delete those questionnaires which omit filling the score or forget the choice of a question to ensure the validity of the experiment. 3 invalid questionnaires were eliminated. 2 are from the control class, and 1 from the experimental class.

(b) Then evaluate whether each affective variable will reach to the statistical requirement with inner-consistency method. The frequency of variables is listed by descriptive statistics.

(c) Use T-test to check the significance of the difference between the experimental class students and the control class students to ensure the validity of questionnaires.

(2) Test

As for the test, both the control class and the experimental class were required to take part in the exam in Sept 2006 and in Jan 2007 under the supervision of the researcher. With all participants' test-papers having been corrected and scored, their test scores were input into SPSS 16.03 for analysis.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

1. Changes of Students' Affective Factors

Based on the results of the Independent T-test of Affective Factors, there are some changes of students' affective factors of the experimental class and the control class between the pre-test and post-test.

TABLE 2
INDEPENDENT T-TEST OF STUDENTS' AFFECTIVE FACTORS (PRE-TEST)

Item	class	number	Mean	SD	t	Sig.
Motivation	1.00	31	3.1000	.45051	-.359	0.721
	2.00	30	3.1407	.38756		
Confidence	1.00	31	2.9929	.41981	-0.752	0.455
	2.00	30	2.9037	.45866		
Anxiety	1.00	31	3.3571	.75691	0.689	0.494
	2.00	30	3.2222	.69134		
Attitude	1.00	31	3.4357	.53348	1.463	0.149
	2.00	30	3.2296	.51052		
Total	1.00	31	3.2214	.23548	1.643	0.106
	2.00	30	3.1241	.20209		

(note: 1＝the experimental class, 2＝the control class，Sig=P＜0.05)

As demonstrated in Table 2, there lies no difference in the affective factors of the students both from the experimental class and the control class (p>0.05). That is to say, the students of both classes have the same motivation, confidence, anxiety and attitude to learning English as a foreign language.

TABLE 3
INDEPENDENT T-TEST OF STUDENTS' AFFECTIVE FACTORS (POST-TEST)

Item	class	number	Mean	SD	t	Sig.
Motivation	1.00	31	3.7429	.39198	3.311	.002
	2.00	30	3.3481	.48862		
Confidence	1.00	31	3.8286	.37992	3.479	.001
	2.00	30	3.4444	.43794		
Anxiety	1.00	31	2.6214	.71043	-1.255	.215
	2.00	30	2.8593	.69463		
Attitude	1.00	31	4.0500	.51819	2.462	.017
	2.00	30	3.7259	.45454		
Total	1.00	31	3.5607	.23148	3.405	.001
	2.00	30	3.3444	.23952		

(note: 1＝the experiment class, 2＝the control class, Sig=P＜0.05)

From Table 3 it is obvious for us to find the significant differences of students' affective factors between the two classes in post-test (t=3.405, P<0.001). The statistics indicate the mean of the experimental class is significantly higher than that of the control class. If we focus on the individual item of affective factors, the difference of all the affective factors is apparently observed (P<0.01) except anxiety (t=1.255, P>0.05). The motivation, confidence and attitude of the students in the experimental class are tangibly superior to those of the students in the control class. It is concluded from the comparative study that application of affective teaching has produced a positive impact on students' affective factors. And this experiment, of course, conducive to improving students' learning effect, has built up students' self-confidence in learning English; has doubled the motivation of learning English; has developed a positive affective experience in the students; has cultivated an active attitude to learning English.

2. Changes of Achievements in Students' Learning

The changes of students' affective factors resulted in the changes of achievements in students' learning. The results from pre-test and post-test illustrated the changes between the control class and the experimental class.

TABLE 4
INDEPENDENT T-TEST OF THE SCORES OF TEM-BAND 4 (2000) (PRE-TEST)

Item	class	number	Mean	SD	t	Sig.
Cloze	1.00	31	7.6786	2.26165	-0.361	0.719
	2.00	30	7.8889	2.04438		
Grammar & vocabulary	1.00	31	11.5714	3.02372	-0.246	0.807
	2.00	30	11.7778	3.20256		
Reading	1.00	31	24.0000	5.82460	-1.439	0.156
	2.00	30	26.0000	4.35007		
Writing	1.00	31	10.4464	2.93869	-0.942	0.351
	2.00	30	11.2037	3.02636		
Total	1.00	31	53.6964	9.38709	-1.341	0.186
	2.00	30	56.8704	8.09510		

(note: 1＝the control class, 2＝the experiment class, Sig=P＜0.05)

In the pre-test, means and standard deviations (SD) are first calculated for each class, and the squared values of the standard deviations are about the same (p > 0.05), in other words, the two squared values of the standard deviations are the homogeneity of variances. The distribution of scores for each item for both classes is nearly well-proportioned, without significant differences, so it is obvious that the English proficiency of the students from the experiment class and the control class is approximately well-matched.

However, there do appear some changes in the means of the two classes in the post-test (See Table 5: t=3.239, P<0.01). It is proved by the statistical data that the students from the experimental class have better mastery of English than the students from the control class.

Table 5 offers us a further illustration that the mean of each item between the two classes forms a sharp distinction (P<0.05) except reading comprehension (t=1.459, P>0.05). The students from the experiment class have done better in Cloze, Vocabulary & Grammar and Writing than those from the control class. From the evidence of figures, this experiment of affective instruction, undoubtedly, has developed the students' language knowledge and skills, especially in Cloze, Vocabulary & Grammar, and Writing.

TABLE 5
INDEPENDENT T-TEST OF THE SCORES OF TEM-BAND 4 (2005) (POST-TEST)

Item	class	number	Mean	SD	t	Sig.
Cloze	1.00	31	11.3571	2.55625	-2.675	.010
	2.00	30	13.0370	2.06587		
Grammar & vocabulary	1.00	31	9.4643	1.74233	-2.799	.007
	2.00	30	10.9630	2.20979		
Reading	1.00	31	28.6429	4.58835	-1.459	.151
	2.00	30	30.1481	2.82440		
Writing	1.00	31	14.0000	1.77430	-2.463	.017
	2.00	30	15.1667	1.73759		
Total	1.00	31	63.4643	6.85421	-3.239	.002
	2.00	30	69.3148	6.52974		

(note: 1＝the control class, 2＝the experiment class, Sig=P＜0.05)

3. Contributions of the Two Experiments

The above statistical results, on the one hand, indicate the relation between students' positive affect and cognition. The more emotionally engaged a learner is, the more likely he/she is to learn. On the other hand, these significant differences make it clear that application of affective teaching in language classroom can foster change and improvement in the students' emotion and attitudes as well as their learning performance. In other words, affective teaching is conducive to the growth of motivation and self-confidence; it contributes to developing students' positive learning attitude. With higher motivation, stronger confidence and positive attitude to learning, students become more competent in learning.

V. CONCLUSION

With significant differences shown above in both pre-test and post-test experiments between the control class and the experimental class, the results actually support the author's hypothesis and answer the three questions. Consequently some conclusions can be drawn as follows:

(1) Affective instruction applied in class develops students' positive affect. Teachers who are enthusiastic about teaching and about the subject they teach tend to keep students interested and involved in learning. This kind of emotion is contagious and stirs up students' emotion. The positive affect activates attention, which then triggers the short-term and long-term memory, and eventually makes the overall learning process possible. In other words, learning doesn't take place when there's no emotional arousal. In English language teaching, to establish a connection between the affective and the cognitive, teachers need to create a space in which students can integrate what they are feeling and learning. This requires teacher's optimistic personality, for positive affection plays a stimulating role in English learning.

(2) The positive affect, to some extent, makes an impact on students' learning. Having positive and favorable feelings toward learning will help students feel that they do well. Similarly, when they experience negative and unfavorable feelings toward learning, they sense problems. The best learning takes place when a positive feeling of the learners is activated.

(3) There exists a positive relationship between the affective instruction and students' school performance. Affective instruction helps establish rapport between teachers and students, which is the prerequisite to create a relaxed and pleasant classroom atmosphere, and in turn, it is conducive to language learning. Affective instruction is conducive to enhancing students' self-esteem and self-confidence. With self-esteem and confidence the students manage to overcome the difficulties in English learning. And the students' confidence partly depends on the teacher's active emotion and enthusiasm. When teachers bring students with positive affective experience, the students actively take part in language learning activities and the learning takes place. Research shows that only when learners are willing to react positively to language learning can their learning effects will become productive and they can really develop their language competence.

APPENDIX 1. QUESTIONNAIRE OF STUDENTS' AFFECTIVE FACTORS

亲爱的同学，您好！本次调查采取匿名形式，您提供的每一个信息，都将作为我们统计分析的重要依据，请您根据自己的情况认真填写和选择。

(1)=不认同　(2)=不大认同　(3)=不确定　(4)=基本认同　(5)=认同

1．学习动机

我学习英语是因为我喜欢这门语言本身。	(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)
我学习英语是为了今后更好地学习其他专业。	(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)
我学习英语是因为英语是我的专业。	(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)
我学好英语是为了毕业后找一份好工作。	(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)
学好英语对我很重要。它是当今社会非常有用的交流工具。	(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)

2．自信心

我相信自己一定能学好英语。	(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)

自信心在很大程度上影响了我的学习。   (1) (2) (3) (4) (5)
我有用英语与他人交流的强烈愿望。   (1) (2) (3) (4) (5)
我有很好的自控能力学习，比如预习和复习。   (1) (2) (3) (4) (5)
我可以长久专注地作一件事情，即使比较枯燥。   (1) (2) (3) (4) (5)

3．焦虑
我在课堂上回答老师的问题很紧张。   (1) (2) (3) (4) (5)
我不愿意主动回答，因为不能自如地表达。   (1) (2) (3) (4) (5)
说英语时，总害怕别人会笑话。   (1) (2) (3) (4) (5)
我在使用英语时害怕犯错误。   (1) (2) (3) (4) (5)
英语考试时，我总是非常紧张，担心不及格。   (1) (2) (3) (4) (5)

4．学习态度
我在英语学习中，对作业和测试中的错误能马上改正。   (1) (2) (3) (4) (5)
课后我能及时复习和巩固所学英语知识。   (1) (2) (3) (4) (5)
只要课堂上有自己实践语言的机会，我都十分珍惜。   (1) (2) (3) (4) (5)
学习英语时，我喜欢与他人积极合作完成学习任务。   (1) (2) (3) (4) (5)
我的成绩好否，教师应该负主要责任。   (1) (2) (3) (4) (5)

(It is adapted from Gardner (2004) and Gao Yihong (2004).

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Approaches to Language Teaching and Learning

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Abstract—**This paper aimed to discuss the statement "Approaches to language teaching can be characterised as the emphasis on certain design features at the expense of others." Specifically, both grammar-translation method and communicative language teaching method were compared and contrasted. It concluded that no one method is perfect for every teaching situation. For different teaching settings, different methods/methodologies ought to be adopted, ideally, integrated, for they compensate for each other.**

Index Terms—**Approach, Grammar-Translation, Communicative Language Teaching**

I. INTRODUCTION

This paper will discuss the statement "Approaches to language teaching can be characterised as the emphasis on certain design features at the expense of others." The discussion will be exemplified with reference to grammar-translation method and communicative language teaching methodology.

Definition of Some Related Terms

For the convenience of the discussion below, such terms as approach, methodology, method, and design features used in this paper will be defined first.

Approach refers to "theories about the nature of language and language learning that serve as the source of practices and principles in language teaching" (Richards and Rodgers, 1986, p.16).

Method/Methodology refers to "the level at which theory is put into practice and at which choices are made about the particular skills to be taught, the content to be taught, and the order in which the content will be presented" (Richards and Rodgers, 1986, p. 15). This paper does not make a strict distinction between method and methodology as Nunan (1991) says, "There has been a tendency historically to equate methodology with method" (p. 3).

Design features, according to Richards and Rodgers (1986, p. 120), include:
- what the objectives of a method are;
- how language content is selected and organised within the method;
- the types of learning tasks and teaching activities the method advocates;
- the roles of learners;
- the roles of teachers; and
- the role of instructional materials

II. GRAMMAR-TRANSLATION METHOD (GT)

A. Knowing and Accuracy Emphasis at the Expense of Doing and Fluency

According to Kim (2008), the grammar-translation method or is a language teaching method developed during the 18th and 19th centuries in Germany. It is sometimes called the *classical method*, in which the traditional method was adopted for teaching the classical languages, Latin and Greek. Kim concludes that grammar-translation is a traditional and ancient teaching method. Generally, the classical languages were taught by reading and translating texts extracted from classical literature, which was similar to the grammar-translation method.

According to Celce-Murcia (2014), in the grammar translation approach instruction is provided in the students' native language. "There is little use of target language for communication. Focus is on grammatical parsing, that is, the forms and inflections of words. There is early reading of difficult texts. A typical exercise is to translate sentences from the target language into the mother tongue (or vice versa). The result of this approach is usually an inability on the part of students to use the language for communication. The teacher does not have to be able to speak the target language fluently" (p. 5). In addition to these principles, Larsen-Freeman and Anderson (2011) state that in the grammar translation method, both the teachers and students have a traditional role. The teacher has the authority in the classroom and students tend to follow the teacher. Moreover, students learn grammar rules deductively; that is, first they are provided grammar rules with examples, second they are asked to memorize the rules, andfinally, they are told to use the rules in other examples.

Having experienced the traditional grammar-translation instructional type all the way through our own language learning from school to university, it is well-known that accuracy of forms are the very focus of this method under structural approach. Students are used to wanting to see language 'black-and-white', and seeking 'correct' answers to any language exercise items. Teachers judge students' performance either 'right' or 'wrong'. This method discourages honest enquiry: facing the ambiguity and discrepancies of language with tolerance as well as the conformity of language.

Decontextualised, discrete and purposeless 'parsing' and surface-structure analysis are conspicuous features of the traditional grammar-translation method. It ignores contextualised learning and fails to expose learners to 'authentic varieties in a 'functional context', which usually results in students 'knowing' something about the language (competence) but not being able to 'do' anything with that knowledge (performance). And more often, this knowing is decontextualised. Knowing and doing should be the two sides of language learning according to Widdowson (1990, p. 157). Grammar-translation method emphasises 'knowing' at the expense of 'doing'.

The grammar-translation method overemphasizes written work over oral production. Kim (2008) states that the method does not include spoken communication or listening comprehension. As a consequence, it stresses the rote memorization of vocabulary words and study of the explicit rules of grammar. According to Richards and Rodgers (2001), the grammar-translation method is a method without a theory in areas such as linguistics, psychology, or education. But the grammar-translation method is still popular in many parts of the world today, although this method underscores the importance of understanding the literary texts more than speaking and listening in the target language. Richards and Rodgers also attribute its popularity to the fact that the grammar-translation method does not require great skill by teachers. The historical foundations of the grammar-translation method provide valuable insights to situate and understand current practices in language instruction, though many new methodologies have been developed and employed.

B. Deductive-oriented Teaching Emphasis at the Expense of Active Learning

Under grammar-translation method instruction, the teaching procedures are as follows: the teachers give and explain rules, create a 'context' for students to practise these rules, and the students apply the learned rules. Richards and Rodgers (1986) described one of the principal characteristics of grammar-translation method like this: "In most Grammar-Translation texts, a syllabus was followed for the sequencing of grammar points throughout a text, and there was an attempt to teach grammar in an organised and systematic way" (p. 4). From the above description, we can see that under the instruction of grammar-translation method, students are taught the grammar rules systematically.

But this 'teacher-exposition' method has two shortcomings: a) Students can be easily bored. Thus, language learning becomes an agonising experience without any enjoyment; b) The original function of a language feature can be obscured without being explored in its original context. Learners have no opportunities to be exposed to various data sources and they have no opportunity to 'generate and test hypotheses and to discuss language phenomena'. The 'student-exploration' method makes language learning an enjoyable experience, because 'if the teacher talks <u>about</u> language to the students, he/she is far less likely to capture their interest than if he/she lets them explore it for themselves under conditions carefully prepared and controlled by him/her' (Tinkel, 1985, p.38). Students usually enjoy self-exploration, and self-discovery. Besides, Self-induced rules are more likely to be remembered and applied more appropriately. As Lewis (1986) noted, "all learning theory suggests that those things we discover for ourselves are more firmly fixed in our minds than those which are 'told'..." (p. 165). Generally speaking, the traditional grammar-translation method tends to rely more on deductive reasoning in language teaching. Of course, both deductive-oriented and inductive-oriented reasoning can be effective methods in language teaching/learning, depending on the goals and contexts of language teaching/learning. Sometimes "it may be more appropriate to articulate a rule and then proceed to its instances, but most of the evidence in communicative foreign/second language learning points to the superiority of an inductive approach to rules and generalisations" (Brown, 1987, p. 83).

C. Reading and Writing Emphasis at the Expense of Listening and Speaking

With Grammar-Translation method, the focus of teaching is reading and writing, especially reading. And the most common mode is 'lockstep', which is "the class grouping where all the students are working with the teacher, where all the students are 'locked into' the same rhythm and pace, the same activity." The teacher acts as 'controller' and 'assessor' (Harmer 1983, p. 205). This learning mode has its own advantages. For example, everyone can hear what is being said; students can get a good language model from the teacher, etc.

However, some very important language learning elements are neglected in this mode. For example, *talking,* which is a very important means to improve learners' language proficiency especially in communicative sense, is neglected. With all the students working in one group, no pair work or group work, students get very little chance to speak. Brought up with this method, students' English are often 'dumb' English, which means they cannot speak in English.

D. Summary

Generally speaking, under the traditional grammar-translation method, the mother tongue as instruction language is more frequently used than the target language. Vocabulary and grammar rules are usually taught in isolation from context. The context is more often treated as the source for doing grammatical analysis exercises. A lot of translation exercises: translating disconnected sentences from the target language into the mother tongue or from mother tongue to

the target language, are included. Since structure analysis and vocabulary memorisation are emphasised and are almost regarded as the language learning aim instead of its meanings, learning how to use the language and how to communicate through the language is ignored to a large extent. In addition, the grammar-translation method focuses much more on reading and writing than on the oral/aural use of the language. It gives very little attention to pronunciation. Consequently, language learners having been brought up through this traditional method are usually very weak in communication, particularly in oral/aural communication.

The grammar-translation method overemphasizes written work over oral production. Kim (2008) stated that the method does not include spoken communication or listening comprehension. As a consequence, it stresses the rote memorization of vocabulary words and study of the explicit rules of grammar. According to Richards and Rodgers (2001), the grammar-translation method is a method without a theory in areas such as linguistics, psychology, or education. But the grammar-translation method is still popular in many parts of the world today, although this method underscores the importance of understanding the literary texts more than speaking and listening in the target language. Richards and Rodgers also attribute its popularity to the fact that the grammar-translation method does not require great skill by teachers. The historical foundations of the grammar-translation method provide valuable insights to situate and understand current practices in language instruction, though many new methodologies have been developed and employed.

Of course, this traditional method also has its own advantages. The development of accuracy is one of the major ones among others, although most often this accuracy is decontextualised.

III. COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING APPROACH (CLT)

Daisy (2012) stated that CLT is an approach to the teaching of second and foreign languages that emphasizes interaction as both the means and the ultimate goal of learning a language. And Richards and Rodgers (2001) wrote that, CLT "aims to (a) make communicative competence the goal of language teaching and (b) develop procedures for the teaching of the four language skills that acknowledge the interdependence of language and communication" (p. 155). CLT approach is believed to be the most effective theoretical model in English language teaching since early 1970s. Richards and Rodgers further emphasized that in the light to the concept of this approach, language carries not only functional meaning, but also carries social meaning. Thus, both learning the linguistic forms and understanding their potential communicative functions and social meanings are equally important. In other words, the language learners should be competent enough to associate the linguistic forms with appropriate non-linguistic knowledge so as to account for the specific functional meaning intended by the speaker (Littlewood, 1981). Littlewood (1981) further proposed that one of the most typical features of CLT approach is that it lays stress on both functional and structural aspects of language.

CLT is based on Hymes's (1966) concept of communicative competence which is an extension of Chomsky's (1965) concepts of linguistic competence and performance. Hymes (1966) posited that it is not enough for the learner to be competent in linguistics or grammar alone to use language in a given cultural social context. Therefore, the situation in which language has to be used becomes relevant for language teaching. Howatt (1984) stated that "The Communicative Language Teaching stresses the importance of providing learners with opportunities to use English for communicative purposes and attempts to integrate such activities into a wider program of language teaching" (p. 27). In the light of this approach, both instructional and learning goals are aimed at communication. It assumes that language does not occur without a social context. Based on this concept, therefore, both language teaching and learning should be accomplished in its context. Learning emphasizing communicative competence is now commonplace in the world.

A. Fluency Emphasis at the Expense of Accuracy

Communicative language teaching sets as its goal the teaching of communicative competence. That is developing fluency. Fluency is natural language use occurring when a speaker conducts meaningful interaction and maintains comprehensible and ongoing communication despite limitations in his or her communicative competence. As a consequence, the CLT Approach has come under attack from teachers for being prejudiced in favor of native-speaker teachers, or those teachers who give up the traditional teaching method---grammar-translation method (Chang, 2011). Harmer (2003) believed that the CLT Approach is often seen as having eroded the explicit teaching of grammar with a consequent loss among students in accuracy in developing fluency.

Communicative language teaching methodology under communicative approach over emphasises fluency at the expense of accuracy. Its attitude towards learners' errors is a typical example. Traditionally, errors are usually seen as signs of failure on learners' and teachers' parts. However, communicative language teaching approach emphasises on communication efficiency. Fluency is put much more emphasis than accuracy. It perceives learners' errors as a sign of progress in internalising the language system. According to communicative language teaching approach, the errors may provide us with insights into how language learners process language data. Errors may be caused by interference from the mother tongue when the learners 'fall back' on their existing knowledge of the first language to solve problems in the target language, when they have not mastered enough knowledge of the target language. Or they may be caused by over-generalisation when learners try to apply what they have gained in the target language. It is evident that both transfer and generalisation are important learning strategies that can be employed in second and foreign language

learning. For example, if a language user says, "This indicates that how careless you are", we can see that this error is caused by over-generalised use of *that* for introducing a noun clause. Of course, sometimes errors do not result from learners' actively constructing rules in an attempt to master the language. They can be simply due to 'immediate communication strategies', which are employed by learners to convey messages which otherwise would be beyond their acquired competence. They can also be due to 'slips of the tongue', or unclear explanations by the teacher about some items. Errors may also be caused when some items are overemphasised and over-practised that students apply them in inappropriate contexts (Littlewood 1984).

Communicative teaching methodology advocates that since errors can be due to various factors, they should be treated differently. It is advisable that teachers be selective in error correction: ignore those errors which do not relate to previously acquired knowledge and avoid correcting the errors if the correction would interfere with the learners' concentration on communication with the benefit for both learners' motivation and more conducive classroom climate (ibid.).

Thus, learners' accuracy is sacrificed. In some cultural background, learners may feel annoyed without being corrected instantly when they make mistakes. Or they may feel no gain if teachers do not correct their mistakes.

B. Doing Emphasis at the Expense of Knowing

Like what Widdowson (1990, p. 159) stated, CLT method "concentrates on getting learners to do things with language, to express concepts and to carry out communicative acts of various kinds." The assumption is that learners will learn the rules of language naturally when they use the language. But, unfortunately, according to Widdowson (1990), "the grammar, which they must obviously acquire somehow as a necessary resource for use, proves elusive. So quite often the situation arises where learners acquire a fairly patchy and imperfect repertoire of performance which is not supported by an underlying competence"(p. 161). This means that learners do not very readily infer knowledge of the language system from their communicative activities. Their doing does not naturally lead to knowing but rather sacrifices knowing. Or "Grammatical knowledge did not always follow as a necessary corollary of communication." (Widdowson, 1990, p. 165)

C. Summary

Compared with the traditional grammar-translation method, the communicative language teaching approach emphasises exposure to authentic materials and contexts, and function rather than form teaching. This approach pays more attention to fluency than accuracy in conveying messages, as long as it is efficient. A lot of role plays, dialogues, etc. are involved in this approach. Besides, unlike the grammar-translation method, the communicative approach pays attention to developing students' communicative ability in both written and spoken language, both productively and receptively. It may emphasise the development of learners' use of language in 'unrehearsed contexts' (Brown 1987:213), so much that it goes from one extreme to another. It makes both teachers and learners feel guilty whenever conscious grammar rules and vocabulary learning are involved. In other words, 'much more spontaneity is present in communicative classrooms' (Brown 1987:213). This 'grammar-neglected' approach has caused a lot of problems, especially among foreign language learners and teachers, who are used to the grammar-translation method. The learners often feel insecure with no sense of achievement, as they are not learning any grammar rules and vocabulary usage consciously. The teachers often feel a lack of confidence because a higher language level is required and they need to face all kinds of queries from the students.

IV. CONCLUSION

We have discussed above, two approaches characterised by different emphases. The structural approach is based on the belief that language learning comes about by teaching learners to know the forms of the language as a medium and the meaning they incorporate; that they will learn how to do things with this knowledge on their own. On the contrary, the communicative approach is based on the concept that language learning occurs when the teacher gets learners to see the language pragmatically to mediate meanings for a purpose, to do things which resemble in some measure what they do with their own language. They will learn knowledge of the language itself, the formal and semantic properties of the medium, as they go along, without the teacher having to draw explicit attention to it (Widdowson 1990:160).

Therefore, it seems attempting to conclude that no one method is perfect for every teaching situation. Like Widdowson says, "different approaches to language teaching have tended to emphasise one rather than, and often at the expense of, the other." (1990:157). Thus, for different teaching settings, different methods/methodologies ought to be adopted, ideally, integrated, for they compensate for each other. In general, although to completely achieve communicative teaching in foreign language teaching is always pursued as the ultimate goal, we are still experiencing an indispensable stage involving the integration of the grammar-translation method and the communicative method. The two approaches are just different sets of language teaching and learning principles. We may find in each of them strong points and weak points. Therefore, we should encourage language teachers to fuse the two methods to meet the goal of foreign language teaching so as to cater to the actual needs of our language learners, since the two can complement each other.

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What Writing Teachers Say and What They Actually Do: The Mismatch between Theory and Practice

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Abstract—**Investigating the correspondece between beliefs and actual practices can help understand the nature of many success or failure stories in education. This study aimed at investigating the compatibility between what English language writing teachers theoretically assert and what they practically practice in teaching language. It also intended to find out factors that constrain the enactment of teachers' stated beliefs in the actual classroom context. The participants in this study were six university teachers as well as 32 students from whom 1150 writing samples were obtained. Juxtaposing teachers' actual classroom practices (obtained from university students' write-ups) beside their theoretical beliefs, elicited through the use of a survey questionnaire, instances of mismatch were conspicuous. It was revealed that contextual factors, contrary to what teachers asserted, played no significant part in this incompatibility and other factors such as experience were at work. Further findings and implications are discussed in the paper.**

Index Terms—**stated beliefs, actual classroom practice, experience, technical knowledge, theoretical knowledge**

I. INTRODUCTİON

The last two decades could best be characterized as a period in which the study of teachers' beliefs has been awarded considerable attention on the part of researchers in the field of language education. "One strand of this work has focused on the relationship between teachers' beliefs and their classroom practices" (Phipps & Borg, 2009, p. 380 see also Melketo, 2012; Lee, 2008); more precisely, there has been an interest to figure out to what extent teachers' stated belifes and perceptions accord with their classroom practices and performance. There is wealth of evidence to show that the two do not laways correspond (Melketo, 2012; Phipps & Borg, 2009; Cain & Cain, 2012; Kuzborska, 2011). "Such differences have been viewed as an undesirable or negative phenomenon and described using terms such as incongruence, mismatch, inconsistency, and discrepancy" (Phipps & Borg, 2009, p. 380 see also Melketo, 2012).

A great number of feedback-oriented studies address the act of teacher feedback solely to the approximate exclusion of teachers' beliefs that are translated into practice (Lee, 2008 see also Farrokhi, 2007; Khader, 2012). Research on teachers' beliefs has indicated that teachers' beliefs are incredibly effective on teachers' actual classroom performance as "teachers are thinking beings who construct their own personal and workable theories of teaching" (Lee, 2008, p. 2 see also Farrel & Lim, 2005). Maxion (1996 as cited in Mansour, 2009) asseverates that teachers' beliefs are an inseparable part of classroom practice. The assumption implicit in this study and the like is that individual teacher's beliefs or convictions are a major determiner of his/her instructional classroom practices. These beliefs are assumed as guiding tenets that teachers assume to be true and that act as spectacles through which fresh experiences can be perceived.

When people believe something is true, they perceive information supporting that belief. What teachers do in the classroom is said to be governed by what they believe, and these beliefs often serve to act as a filter through which instructional judgments and decisions are made (Khader, 2012 see also Farrel & Lim, 2005). Teachers' beliefs and actual classroom practices have a central role in the classroom, as they have a direct impinge upon the teaching and learning process. Researchers have put forth abundance of evidence that teachers' beliefs influence their classroom performance (Melketo, 2012; Phipps & Borg, 2009).

II. REVİEW OF LİTERATURE

Pajares (1992 cited in Khader, 2012 see also Melketo, 2012) gives a brief summary of the results of research on teachers' beliefs by demonstrating that there is a staunch bond between instructional beliefs of teachers, their planning for teaching, teaching decisions and classroom practices (see Farrel & Lim, 2005). Besides, he asserts that, the educational beliefs of teachers prior to the service play a pivotal role in the justification of knowledge and instructional behavior when entering into the teaching career. In his opinion, these beliefs are viewed as windows into the teaching

behavior (Phipps & Borg, 2009). Ernest (1998 in Khader, 2012 see also Mansour, 2009) also contends that teachers' beliefs can strongly influence the teaching practices by transforming those beliefs into a practical reality (cf. Truscott, 1996).

It is an all-agreed-upon fact in the field of teacher education that teachers' beliefs about teaching, learning and schooling are deeply ingrained in their life experiences (Cain & Cain, 2012). Richardson (1996 cited in Cain & Cain, 2012) has recognized three forms of experience that are believed to impact the evolution of beliefs about teaching: personal experience, experience with schooling and instruction and experience with formal knowledge. Cain and Cain (2012, p. 99) contend that "teachers beliefs about teaching and learning seem to be shaped by their unique educational experiences. That is, teachers' beliefs seem to be shaped in large part by their recollections of teachers who had taught them in school and who served as role models in their lives" (see also Phipps and Borg, 2009). By the same token, Khader (2012) contends that teachers hold a wide array of complex beliefs about pedagogical issues such as beliefs about students and classroom practices. These beliefs, he argues, are thought to form a structured set of principles and are derived from a teacher's prior experiences, school practices and a teacher's individual personality (see also Farrel & Lim, 2005; Shahini & Daftarifard, 2011; Phipps & Borg, 2009). Furthermore, teachers' beliefs play a pivotal role in how information on teaching is translated into classroom practice (Farrel & Lim, 2005 see also Richards, Gallo & Renandya, 2001; Montgomery & Baker, 2007; Qingmei, Wenhua & Yang, 2011). Teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning may "outweigh the effects of teacher education in influencing what teachers do in the classroom and interact bi-directionally with experience -- beliefs influence practices and practices can also lead to changes in beliefs" (Phipps & Borg, 2009, p. 381 see also Cain & Cain, 2012).

This study inquires discrepancies between what a smaple of Iranian English language teachers theoretically assert and practically practice in teaching language, and, by finding out the reasons for these, also gains insight into deeper conflicts among competing beliefs that teachers hold (Melketo, 2012; Khader, 2012). Conflicts or clashes between what teachers declare and practice are a repercussion of "their belief sub-systems, and of the different forces which influence their thinking and behavior. Studying the underlying reasons behind such tensions can enable both researchers and teacher educators to better understand the process of teaching" (Phipps & Borg, 2009, p. 380 see also Melketo, 2012).

A. Purpose of the Study

This study was an attempt to inquire what factors constrain the enactment of teachers' stated beliefs in the actual classroom context. To this end, the answers to the following research questions were sought.

1- How do teachers know what students expect from them?

2-What is the cause of tension or incompatibility between teachers' self-report beliefs and their actual classroom practice?

III. METHOD

A. Participants

The purpose of this quantitative study was to figure out what factors constrain teachers from translating their stated beliefs into practice. To this end, the participants in this study were chiefly and exclusively university instructors who taught writing courses. An attempt was made to include more participants in the study, however, owing to some practical constraints, the researchers' aspiration was not satisfactorily met.

Six university English language teachers took part in this study. Their selection was guided by their availabilty, willingness and convenience. The participating teachers taught writing courses in Azad and Payam Noor Universities in the Northern part of West Azerbaijan Province, Iran. Their ages ranged from 40 to 55. Their qualification degrees were as follows: four held PhD degrees, one an MA and one was a PhD student. Their teaching experience ranged from a minimum of seventeen years to a maximum of thirty three years. In addition to these teachers, 32 university students also provided data for analysis as explined below.

B. Instruments

Data for the present study came from various sources: firstly, six university instructors' 1200 marginal, interlinear and end comments written on the first drafts of 32 university English students, exploring the pragmatic goals for and linguistic characteristics of each comment. Secondly, an opinion survey questionnaire containing Likert items to seek whether there exists any disanance between teachers' stated beliefs about various features of language such as organization, content, idea, vocabulary, grammar, punctuation, spelling, etc. and their actual classroom practice. Furthermore, to validate and trangulate the data for the current study, through the application of an open-ended question in the form of a short interview, the participants' perspectives and attitudes were solicited as to the existing belief-practice crash.

C. Procedure

As mentioned above, the leading source of data for the current study was the university students' first drafts. That is, the bulk of data was gathered from the teachers' written comments on the students' papers. At the researchers' request, the students put at the researchers' disposal a collection of random samples of their term written work/papers which the

above participating teachers had provided feedback or commented on the quality of their writing. Random samples of the students' marked composition scripts were collected and analyzed to find out the ways the teachers approached the task of writing. Overall, the researchers collected 20 papers, but not all of them proved to be of use. That is, because an overwhelming majority of the papers had been assigned a score only (with no comment provided by the teacher), on a small portion of them only had the teachers provided feedback or comments on various language features inlcuding organization, content, vocabulary and the like.

Also, an opinion survey questionnaire was utilized to have an in-depth understanding of teachers' appraisal of relative weight of the above language features. The questionnaire items were extracted from instruments used in previous studies (Amrhein & Nassaji, 2010; Diab, 2005, 2006; Hamouda, 2011). The researchers necessarily modified and added items to make the questionnaire relevant and appropriate for the study's purpose. Because the original questionnaire underwent some modifications, and to make sure that the questionnaire was ambiguity free, it was pilot-tested with a small number, yet more or less similar to the target group, of subjects before applying it to the target and actual group. Pilot testing of the questionnaire during which the researchers amended some difficulties in wording, was followed by testing the reliability of the questionnaire. Using Cronbach's alpha (the most common measure of internal consistency), the reliability of the questionnaire was determined and the reliability index of 0.719 was obtained. Of course, the reliabilty index of the questionnaire would have been higher, had the researchers not omitted certain items intended to seek students' viewpoints as to the teachers' comments. Obtaining an acceptable internal consistency index of 0.719 further refrained the researchers to run the items in the survey through an exploratory factor analysis to weed out those variables that failed to show high correlation.

The questionnaire inlcuded demograghic information and Likert-type items. Respondents were asked to express their opinions freely by completing the questionnaire individually. This quality adds to the reliability of the questionnaire, for the researchers along with two other persons had them filled out by the respondents individually whenever and wherever it was convenient for them, thus thwarting the cross-fertilization effect which usually occurs when a group or a class of respondents fill out a questionnaire simuntaneously in one place, say, in a classroom.

Apart from questionnaires, the participants (i.e. teachers), in this study, were given an open-ended question aimed at exploring the reason for the existing incongruity between teachers' self report beliefs and their actual clasroom performance. The rationale for employing this supplementary information eliciting tool was to vaildate the results of questionnaire by citing evidence, reasons, or explantions from the participants whenever necessary. In the interest of anonymity, teachers are given pseudonyms as T1, T2, etc. in the analysis below.

D. Data Analysis

To analyze the data obtained from the participants, in the present study, an attempt was made to juxtapose university teachers' actual classroom practices (i.e. comments they inscribed on the students' first drafts with the aim of helping them to revise their papers in response to the teachers' comments) with their stated beliefs (elicited through the utilization of a questionnaire) to demonstrate whether there existed any incongruity between their actual classroom enactment and their self-report beliefs. The data analysis embodies three distinct parts: the first being the analysis of teachers' comments on students' papers; the second teachers' self-report beliefs; and the third, teachers' evaluations of the nature of mis-match between theory and practice. Each stage of analysis is fully decscibed next.

IV. FİNDİNGS

A. Analysis of Teachers' Actual Classroom Comments on Students' Written Papers

To analyse teachers' comments, a need for a simple yet rigorous categorisation system is felt to identify what features of language the teachers' comments address and what value or weight the teachers award to global issues such as content, organization, and idea, etc. and local issues such as vocabulary, grammar, spelling, etc. In plain language, whether teachers' comments on the students' papers called for macrostructural changes or microstructural changes is to be clarified using the right calssification system. This need was met by the taxonomy provided by Faigley and Witte (1981). This taxonomy has two subdivisions: 'surface changes' which "are changes that do not bring new information to a text or remove old information" and 'text-based changes' that "involve the adding of new content or deletion of existing content" (Faigley & Witte, 1981, p. 402). The former (i.e. surface changes) is itself divided into 'formal changes' which "include conventional copy-editing operations" and 'meaning preserving changes' which "include changes that paraphrase the concepts in the text but do not alter them". The latter (text-based changes) is divided into 'microstructure changes' or "changes which are simple adjustments or elaboration of existing text" and 'macrostructure changes' which "make more sweeping alterations" (Faigley & Witte, 1981, p. 404). This taxonomy embodies both those changes caused by teachers' comments and those which students make independently of teachers' comments. What is left outside of this taxonomy is a great number of comments (about 50) on the students' papers which do not call for the students to make textual changes, such as 'good', 'well down', 'good English sentence', 'good handwriting', 'ok' and the like. Since the taxonomy in question is change-oriented, there is no room for these types of comments. Thus, docking these so-called neutral comments (50 in number) off the total number of comments (1200) on the students' papers, it leaves us with 1150 comments which require student-writers to make textual changes. Through independent classification of teachers' comments by the researchers and another proficient university professor, we

obtained a higher a degree of agreement (more than ninety five percent of the time, we agreed on subsuming the teachers' comments under appropriate categories).

It is worth mentioning that as with other classification systems, in this classification, too, an element of subjectivity is evident since one cannot place, with one hundred percent of certainty, the comments under the appropriate groupings. This high degree of agreement is because of the fact that an overwhelming majority of teachers' comments, that is about 97 percent (1116 out of 1150) targeted and addressed surface changes. For ease of observation and classification, Faigley and Witte's taxonomy of revision changes is given below.

Figure 1. A Taxonomy of Revision Changes (adopted from Faigley & Witte, 1981, p. 403).

Using Faigley and Witte's classification system as the criterion, teachers' comments can be tabulated as in table 1.

TABLE 1
TEACHERS' COMMENTS

Formal Changes	F	%	Meaning Preserving Changes	F	%
Capitalization	110	9.5 *	Reword	73	6.5
Spelling	74	6.5	Rewrite	87	7.5
Punctuation	63	5.5	Redundant	43	3.7
Wrong Word	91	8	Underlining	23	2
Grammatically Wrong	123	10.70	Circling	24	2
Wrong Tense	92	8	Add	27	2.5
Wrong Word Order	53	4.6	Delete	28	2.5
Subject-Verb Agreement	41	3.5	Incomplete Sentence	30	2.6
Wrong Sentence	55	4.8	Non-Sense Word	17	1.5
Wrong Verb	44	3.8	Awkward Word	18	1.56
Total	746	65		370	32

Micro - Structural Changes	F	%
Ambiguous Sentences	11	0.95

Macro - Structural Changes	F	%
Not Clear Paragraph	10	0.87
No Conclusion	9	0.78
Not Good Paragraphing	4	0.35
Total	23	2

*Note: Percentages have been rounded to the nearest whole number, and thus may not add to 100.

An analysis of teachers' comments reveals that a great majority of teachers' comments (1116 out 1150; that is about 97%) focused on surface changes. In other words, over 746 (about 65%) out of 1150 comments directed students' attention to formal changes (spelling, punctuation, tense, number, abbreviation, capitalization) and only about 370 (about 32%) out of the total number of comments addressed meaning preserving changes (addition, deletion, substitution, permutation, distribution, consolidation). A very negligible number of the comments, 11 (that is about 1%) directed students' attention to microstructural changes and just a very small fraction of comments 23 (that is about 2%) concentrated on macrostructural changes.

B. Analysis of Teachers' Self-report Beliefs

The data obtained from the participants through the utilization a questionnaire containing Likert type items seeking the participating teachers' beliefs on the relative importance of various language features are presented as in the table below.

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Organization errors	6	4.47	1.042
Grammatical errors	6	3.07	1.280
Content or ideas errors	6	4.43	1.037
Punctuation errors	5	1.90	1.235
Spelling errors	6	1.87	1.224
Vocabulary errors	6	2.73	1.264

The items in the questionnaire were Likert type items in which the respondents were intsrcucted to indicate their preference or opinion by circling one of the scales (1 = not useful at all, 2 = not useful, 3 = doesn't matter, 4 = quite useful and 5 = very useful). As shown in table 2, the mean responses for *organization* and *content or ideas* errors are 4.47 and 4.43, respectively. Teachers' responses showed that teachers were more positively inclined to provide feedback or comment on *organization* and *content* errors. To put it differently, teachers stated that providing comments on the organization errors were their top priority and that their next most favored option in the descending order of popularity was giving comments on errors of content or idea in the students' drafts. In contrast, mean responses for *grammatical errors* (3.07) and *vocabulary errors* (2.73) showed that teachers displayed an overall neutral preference for the correction of grammatical errors and negative attitude towards the correction of vocabulary errors. The correction of *punctuation errors* (1.90) and *spelling errors* (1.87) are negatively perceived by the teachers. Not only is there a difference between teachers as regards the relative imprtance of various features of writing listed in the above table, there exists a slight variation amongst teachers themselves as well.

V. DİSCUSSİON

Prior to answering the research questions, a few points need to be uttered about the contextual factors that seem to constrain the teachers from translating their stated beliefs into actual practices in the classroom context. The results of this study reveal that the contexts in which the teachers operate may tend to constrain the teachers from proceduralising their stated beliefs, a problem which leads to the teaching practice not reflecting the teaching beliefs. A growing body of studies has found that teachers' beliefs and practices are inextricably intertwined and cannot be explored without attending to the role of context. This indicates that the relationship between teachers' beliefs and their practices is complicated and context-bound (Mansur, 2009). In a similar vein, Fang (1996 cited in Mansur, 2009) argues that there may exist a large rift between teachers' beliefs and practices owing to the complexities of classroom life, which may constrain teachers' abilities to ensue their beliefs and offer instruction that is in harmony with their thoretical beliefs. Conextual factors such as "prescribed curriculum, time constraints, and high-stakes examinations, mediate the extent to which teachers can act in accordance with their beliefs" (Phipps & Borg, 2009, p. 381 see also Melketo, 2012). Phipps and Borg's position is well echoed in the words of a teacher in this study while being interviewed. *The classroom context robs us of our ability to enact on or exhibit our deep beliefs about the writing task in actual classroom practice* (T3). Melketo (2012) corroborating the viewpoint of T3 contends that writing classrooms are not a standard place where every teacher can be hoped to congruously employ practices that directly mirror his or her beliefs.

Situational factors such as time constraints for lesson delivery, classroom management concerns and the pressure or need to comply with program requirements are taken as the leading impediments to translation of beliefs about treaching and learning into practice (Cain & Cain, 2012 see also Khader, 2012; Phipps & Borg, 2009). Two teachers, in this study, conceded that *students' expectations might have a great impact on their teaching. To put it differently, they may have compromised their own beliefs to do what they perceived students expected from their classes* (T4 and T5). The pertinent question that needs to be asked, here, is 'How do teachers know what students expect from them?' as our first research question.

Teachers are permanently busy with interpreting their worlds; they interpret their subject- matter, their classroom context, and the people in it. These interpretations are pivotal to their reflection and actions. "Classroom and students are not just settings for implementing ideas; they are framework of interpretation that teachers use for knowing: knowing when and how to act and read, what information to present and explain, and how and when to respond" (Freeman, 1996 in Barcelos, 2000, p. 299).

Breen (1985 in Barcelos, 2000) stipulated that three factors seemed to be the origin of teachers' interpretations of students' beliefs. First, teachers' own experience as students assisted them to conjecture students' beliefs. For, once, they themselves were students. They know that their students may believe the same thing. Secondly, teachers' feeling of "students' actions in class and their interpretations of students' comments to them influenced what they believed students believed" (Breen, 1985 in Barcelos, 2000, p. 300). Lastly, teachers' studying the theories in the field and their collation with students' beliefs and behavior in class had a great impact on their interpretations.

Students' language learning belief (LLB) seemed to impress teachers' LLB and practice. This effect was accomplished through teachers' interpretations of students' LLB. Teachers' interpretations of students' beliefs framed or shaped their classroom practice which, in turn, moulded students' conceptions and beliefs about the class. "Teachers' beliefs about students' beliefs and expectations exerted an important role in what and how they taught. Myriad of

factors influence teachers' actions in class, such as teachers' previous experiences, their learning experience as students, the type of students in class and students actions in class" (Barcelos, 2000, p. 302).

Based on Dewey's (1938 in Barcelos, 2000) principle of interaction, teachers and students interact and impact each other in different ways. Teachers interpreted students' beliefs and behaved according to those interpretations. Students, in turn, interpreted teachers' beliefs and actions and behaved based on those interpretations and beliefs. Teachers and students were moulded and remoulded by this interactive relationship. In brief, teachers' interpretations of students beliefs impressed teachers. Teachers' actions, in turn, impacted students' actions and beliefs. Phipps and Borg (2009) conducted a study in which they investigated the tension or incongruity between teachers' stated beliefs on teaching grammar and their actual classroom enactment of those beliefs. In one case, one teacher (participant in the study) upon justifying a tension between her belief and her classroom practice asseverated that she approached grammar through exposition not because she felt this was ideal but because she felt it was what her higher level students expected. It seems that teachers' perceptions of students' expectations override their beliefs about how best to teach grammar.

Regarding the second research question (i.e., What is the cause of tension or incompatibility between teachers' self-report beliefs and their actual classroom practice?), juxtaposing the above teachers' actual classroom practices (table 1) beside their self-report beliefs (table 2), one conspicuously notices instances of incompatibility between what teachers say and do. Explanations [such as *I think students, parents, and teachers are all used to or expect comments on grammar, spelling, vocabulary, etc.* (T2); *It is partly because it is easy to write comments addressing local issues than writing comments for the global issues* (T1); *Contextual factors, such as prescribed curriculum, time constraints, complying with school and educational policies, mixed ability level classes, school administration and parents expectations and so many others are the factors that stand in the way of teachers' beliefs to be translated into practice* (T3)] that were put forward by teachers are far from being true and, indeed, mere pretexts to justify the mismatch between their beliefs and practices.

It seems that there are other things such as experience at work of which teachers are unwary. It would seem that beliefs which exerted most influence on the teacher's work were ones deeply ingrained in experience. The opposite is of sure possibility. Beliefs in ideas which had not been deeply "established through positive first-hand experience, ... remained unimplemented ideals" (Phipps & Borg, 2009, p. 388). In plain language, teachers hold a wide array of complex beliefs about pedagogical issues which compete with each other in manifesting their influence in practice. It seems that those beliefs that are firmly grounded in experience exert the most influence on practice. Phipps and Borg's (2009) reasoning is well upheld by a teacher who contended that *many foreign language teachers are reluctant about shifting from traditional instruction to new approaches, especially if they represent a significant departure from their consolidated set of teaching practices* (T4). Truscott (1996, p. 369) holding the same viewpoint as Phipps and Borg contends that "tradition, no doubt, plays a role. There is a natural reluctance to abandon a practice that has always been a mainstay of teaching". Having been in classrooms for many years, the teachers have internalized and shaped, through an apprentice of observation, many of the values, beliefs and practices of their teachers. They frequently do not understand the importance of challenging their beliefs. What is more, these conservative beliefs are so strong that they remain latent during formal training in pedagogy at the university and become a major source once the candidate is in his or her own classroom (Phipps & Borg, 2009).

Incompatibility between what teachers preach and practice is a reflection of their belief sub-systems and of competing forces which influence their meditation and actions (Phipps & Borg, 2009). The incompatibility between teachers' perceived belief and their classroom practices, as Qingmein, Wenhuan and Yang (2011) contend, may emanate from the distinction between technical and practical knowledge during the teachers' professional development. To put it differently, being interviewed, the teachers reformulated their answers based on their technical knowledge. Faced with actual classroom problems, however, they unconsciously utilize their practical knowledge about language learning.

Similarly, Ellis (2013) makes a distinction between pedagogic discourse (practical discourse) and theoretical discourse (research-based discourse). By the former, he meant the step by step decisions that teachers make in the process of lesson delivery or dissemination and step by step decisions that demonstrate themselves in teaching as interaction. In making these decisions, teachers typically make use of their practical knowledge of what is suitable in a particular teaching context -- knowledge formed more by experience than study. In other words, "pedagogic discourse draws on authors' prior knowledge of such discourse and on their own practical experience of teaching a language" (p. 2). The latter (theoretical discourse) constitutes the technical knowledge that is accessible in expository explanation of instructional process. It includes accounts about what and how to teach and the theoretical justification for these. Language teachers may apply this technical knowledge both in planning a lesson and fulfilling it in the classroom though teachers' prime interest with practical action does not easily permit for the use of technical knowledge. However, Technical knowledge is worthwhile. It yields a bulk of knowledge that teachers can utilize to ponder over their teaching and to try out with new possibilities (Ellis, 2013 see also Phipps & Borg, 2009).

Teachers hold an array of beliefs about themselves, the nature of writing, the individual students, the nature of the course they teach, the social context which they operate in, the school setting in which they work, and the constraints they have to confront. "These beliefs, in turn, work through the lens of past experiences, since they are translated into teacher practices within the complex context of the classroom" (Mansour, 2009, p. 37). By the same token, Richards,

Gallo and Renandya (2001, p. 42 see also Melketo, 2012; Mansour, 2009; Phipps & Borg, 2009) asseverate that "the most resilient or core teachers' beliefs are formed on the basis of teachers' own schooling as young students while observing teachers who taught them. Subsequent teacher education appears not to disturb these early beliefs, not least, perhaps, because it rarely addresses them". Correspondingly, Stuart and Thurlow (2000) assert that the individual teacher is acted upon by vigorous, energetic, permeable school culture in such a way that individual teaching philosophies are subsumed into the existing school culture.

VI. CONCLUSİON

Teachers' beliefs exist as a system in which certain beliefs are core, and characterized as the most resilient and experientially ingrained and exert the most influence on teachers' practice than peripheral ones. Peripheral beliefs "though theoretically embraced, will not be held with the same level of conviction" (Phipps & Borg, 2009, p. 388 see also Richards, Gallo & Renandya, 2001). Based on the above line of discussion, one can claim that if a teacher in our study failed to provide feedback on global issues such as content, idea, and text organization and if he failed to adopt a process approach to writing, despite acknowledging its acquisitional value, vis-a-vis a product approach, it is not because *students, parents, and teachers are all used to providing comments on grammar, spelling, vocabulary* (T1). It is not because *it is easy to write comments addressing local issues than writing comments for the global issues* (T1). It is not because *contextual factors, such as prescribed curriculum, time constraints, complying with school policies, mixed ability level classes, school administration and parents expectations and so many others are the factors that stand in the way of teachers' beliefs to be translated into practice* (T3). It is because they have not experienced them themselves once they were students. Freeman and Johnson (1988 in Barcelos, 2000, p. 70) endorsing the above argument contend that "what teachers know about teaching is largely socially constructed out of experiences and classroom from which teachers have come".

To sum up, it seems cogent to state that teachers' core beliefs serve as filters for new information in such a way that culturally-held and experientially-obtained beliefs are frequently confirmed rather than confronted, but culturally- and experientially-devoid beliefs are rejected.

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Teaching Oral English from the Perspective of Educational Ecology[*]

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Abstract—**Every year in China, thousands of University students passed the College English Test Band 4 and College English Test Band 6. However, these students found that after they entered into the society, they still could not speak English. Why? With this question in mind, the paper is designed to discover the problems in oral English teaching from the perspective of Education Ecology, and also, bring out the solutions to these questions.**

Index Terms—**dumb English, Education Ecology, oral English teaching, College English Test**

I. INTRODUCTION

In a traditional English class, students only receive passively what their teachers want them to learn. In this environment, teachers value "how to teach" more than "how should students study". We have long been promoting "student centered", but we still have a long way to go to realize it. Secondly, traditional teachers put much emphasis on procedural knowledge, but ignores oral English practice. Thirdly, students lack real language environment. Some teachers can not speak English well themselves, which will have negative impacts on students. Last but not least, students are afraid of making mistakes, therefore, they are not confident in speaking English. In the long-term, oral English will become a burden for them, and students will finally give up on speaking English.

If we compare the traditional English class to an ecological system, the teachers and students can be seen as ecological subjects, and teaching environment and teaching methods can be regarded as ecological objects. We can know from the problems mentioned in the last paragraph that this ecological system is not well balanced. So in order to improve oral English teaching, we should create a balanced ecological system for it. And the answer can be found from Education Ecology.

In 1858, naturalist Henry David first put forward the concept of ecology. Then in 1868, Haeckel defined it as the scientific study of the relations of animals to each other and their surroundings (Haeckel, 1905). With more and more researchers step into this field, the connotation of ecology has been broadened, and many branches of ecology have come into being. There are two main branches of ecology: bioecology and humanecology. The Education Ecology is one of the important branches of humanecology, which provides a new perspective for education. One definition of Education Ecology is that it is a discipline integrating natural, social sciences and the humanities researching in the interrelation of a person as an individual and/or a social system with the multidimensional environment in a holistic perspective in the aspect of education as means promoting the development of the sphere, process and result of human activities, the content of interrelation, human and environment qualities/characteristics. To put it in a plain way, Education Ecology is mainly about the relations between education and the environment. Researches on the Education Ecology began from the British scholar Ashby who first put forward the concept of ecology of higher education, which stands for the milestone of applying ecological principles into the study of higher education. Later in 1970s, Cremin and Eggleston took the lead in the study of Education Ecology. Thereafter, a growing number of scholars conducted many researches on Education Ecology (Cremin, 1976; Eggleston, 1979).

In addition, domestic and foreign scholars have done many researches on oral English teaching. Task-based approach appeared in the late 1970's in India, which is a new model of teaching, and this approach emphasizes communicative language teaching and learning. In China, task-based approach has become a research trend. Liu Ting from Hebei Normal University thinks that task-based approach can be used to change students' attitude toward oral English, thus improving their oral English. Canadian scholars Gardner and Iambert did a research on oral English learning from the perspective of social psychology (Gardner and Iambert1972). They think the learning of oral English is driven by instrumental motivation and integrative motivation. Wilga M Rivers think that the interaction between teachers and students is of great importance to oral English teaching. She insists that oral English teaching should follow this principle strictly (Wilga M Rivers, 1978).

There are many researches in the field of Education Ecology and oral English teaching. However, the study of oral English teaching based on Education Ecology is rare. This paper tends to improve oral English teaching from the perspective of Education Ecology.

II. CHARACTERISTICS OF ORAL ENGLISH AND EDUCATION ECOLOGY

This part focuses on the characteristics of oral English and Education Ecology. By analyzing the essential attributes of Education Ecology environment and oral English, the author will draw to a conclusion that it's feasible to improve oral English teaching with the ideas from Education Ecology.

A. Characteristics of Education Ecology

Just like other subjects, many principles are required in ecology, that is, the ecological principles. Ecological principles usually include ecological system, niche, co-evolution, competition, cooperation and ecological balance. Taking the research purpose of this paper into consideration, the author will mainly focus on ecological system and ecological balance.

In traditional sense, Ecological system is a biological community of interacting organisms and their physical environment. With time goes by, the connotation of ecological system has been greatly broadened. Nowadays, ecological system not only refers to the natural ecological system in biology, but also the ecological system in human society and activities. And both natural and human ecological systems share some common characteristics. Next the author will elaborate these characteristics.

1. Mutualism

Ecologically, mutualism refers to the concept that the living of one organism depends on the existence of another organism, and these two organisms will contact with each other both directly and indirectly. As for Education Ecology, mutualism is very apparent between students and teachers. For example, when it comes to the evaluation of one particular teacher, the main issue to consider is the performance of his or her students. Therefore, students are indispensible for the success of teachers. For another, students rely on teachers to gain not only knowledge but also social virtues. Also, a harmonious relationship with teachers can well promote the overall development of students. In order to achieve their separate goals, communication between students and teachers is necessary. Through communication both in and outside the class, students and teachers realize mutualism.

2. Integrality

In ecology, many organisms constitute a stable and ordered community. And every organism itself is also a stable and ordered community, which is composed of many parts. In order to function well, the ecological system has to be well integrated.

For example, in a real school environment, if a student wants to make to the top in the class, he or she needs to make many preparations such as pre-learning, practice and reviewing. And he or she needs to coordinate these elements so that they can be well integrated. Satisfactory results will be achieved if the study elements are well integrated. In the same way, if a teacher wants to achieve satisfactory teaching results, he or she needs to integrate teaching elements such as arising students' learning interest, creating harmonious class environment and providing fair evaluation. On the other hand, students and teachers also form a community in which student and teacher can influence each other. The relation between students and teachers exerts great importance. Teachers should trust students first in order to gain the trust of students, and students and teachers share equal status and mutual respect. And these are the integrated elements for establishing a harmonious relationship between students and teachers. With integrated studying elements, teaching elements and harmonious teacher-student relationship, we can certainly achieve expected results. In essence, the Integrality of Ecological System is achieved.

3. Covariance

Covariance in ecology means that the evolution of one organism will influence another organism or some relative organisms, and these organisms will change correspondingly. In the real school environment, covariance happens very frequently. For example, if a teacher is passionate in the class, the students will be affected and perform actively in the class. And if a teacher sees the laziness in students' eyes, his or her passion might slowly fade away. In this case, the school environment can be seen as an ecological system, and the reaction between students and teacher is the covariance of ecological system.

4. Dynamic balance

In ecology, the structures and functions of the parts of the ecological system are constantly adjusting themselves so that to be coordinated with each other. This is called the dynamic balance of ecological system. In the school environment, teachers will set a teaching target for a certain period. In the process of achieving this teaching target, students need to constantly adjust their studying plans to catch up with what they have learned in the class. And the teachers should constantly adjust teaching plans, so that they will not be too far ahead of the schedule or lag behind.

B. Characteristics of Oral English

Oral language, as a face to face verbal language, is an important tool to communicate with others. Oral English is a term relative to written English, which includes the active oral speech and passive oral speech. Active oral speech refers to speaking and the passive oral speech refers to listening. As for the language learning, human learned to speak first, then was writing. So the same will go for the study of English. There are three basic elements for the learning of oral English.

The first element is vocabulary, which is the foundation of oral English. As the old saying goes "One can't make

bricks without straw", vocabulary can be a barrier for many English learners. It's a common phenomenon that many students get stuck while speaking English because they can not find one proper English word.

The second element is grammar. If we compare oral English as a pearl necklace, the vocabulary can be seen as the pearls, and grammar would be the thread that strings the pearls. Along with the structure of sentences, grammar plays a vital part in the learning of oral English.

The third element is pronunciation. Without the help of non-language tools, you can understand what others say only when you can recognize their pronunciation. And mutual communication happens only when both sides can understand each other's pronunciation. In addition, the pause, stress and intonation will affect oral English learning directly.

According to these elements, we can generalize four characteristics of oral English. The author will elaborate in detail.

1. Synchronicity

When one speaks English, he or she can not prepare every sentence and then speak it out. As a matter of fact, speaking and linguistic thinking should proceed in synchrony.

A joke can well explain the synchronicity of oral English, which is about Chinese students speaking English. One day in America, a Chinese student fell from the cliff, then he shouted for help. Later on an American passed by and asked: "How are you?". The student replied: "I am fine, thank you!". The student never came out. This joke shows that the way many Chinese students learn English violates the synchronicity of oral English, which requires the synchrony of speaking and thinking.

2. Interactivity

Like other languages, oral English requires active communication between listeners and speakers. Take one famous television program *friends* for example, many people found that the daily talks interesting, and that should give credit to the interactivity of oral English.

3. Situationality

As for the same contents and topics, the way we express them varies with different situations. For example, in a face to face situation, one might say *hi, my name is Tom*. But in a telephone situation, he will say *hi, this is Tom speaking*. So we can see the way we talk should comply with the situation, or else we may make mistakes or offend others.

4. Comprehensiveness

Oral English require comprehensiveness in aspects including grammar, intonation, gestures and pronunciation. If one speaks without changing the intonation, the language will be dull. In addition, body language makes the language more vivid, which plays an important role in conveying information to others. To achieve the comprehensiveness of oral English, one needs to coordinate these elements properly.

C. Summary

After studying and comparing the characteristics of Education Ecology and oral English, the author found the similarity of these characteristics, which will provide theoretical support for the study of oral English teaching based on education ecology. The author will elaborate in the next paragraphs.

Synchronicity and mutualism. From the context mentioned above, we can know the action of speaking and linguistic thinking goes in synchrony, therefore these two elements rely on each other to exist. Without linguistic thinking, we have nothing to speak; without the need to speak, there will be no need for linguistic thinking. From this perspective of ecology, we can say the living of one organism depends on the existence of another organism. So synchronicity of oral English follows the mutualism in ecology.

Interactivity and integrality. In ecology, in order to function well, the ecological system has to be well integrated. As for oral English, the listener and speaker have to do their separate jobs, that is the listening and speaking. In addition, the listener and speaker form a community, in which the listener and speaker actively communicate with each other. In this sense, interactivity of oral English follows the integrality in ecology.

Situationality and covariance. In ecology, covariance means the evolution of one organism will influence another organism or some relative organisms, and these organisms will change correspondingly. The same goes for oral English, that is, the way we express the same contents varies with the change of situations. So the situationality of oral English follows covariance in ecology.

Comprehensiveness and dynamic balance. In ecology, dynamic balance means the structures and functions of the ecological systems are constantly adjusting themselves so that to be coordinated with each other. Similarly, a good English speaker can coordinate elements like intonation, pronunciation and body gestures. If he mistakenly conveyed the wrong message to others, he would adjust some of the elements. So the comprehensiveness of oral English follows the dynamic balance in ecology.

Oral English itself is just like a mini ecological system, and it follows the rules in ecology. This proves that the study of oral English teaching based on Education Ecology in feasible. In the following part, the author will analyze the problems in oral English teaching from the perspective of Education Ecology.

III. Problems in Oral English Teaching

This part the author will analyze the problems in oral English teaching from the perspective of Education Ecology. A

balanced ecological system should follow some certain principles, which includes the law of limiting factors, flower pot effect and law of niche. The author will illustrate the problems from these three aspects.

A.   Lack of Limiting Factors

According to a scientific research, it is not the amount of nutrients but the amount of nutrients that are needed that determines the output of grains. If we want to increase the output substantially, the only way is to increase the amount of these needed nutrients. These needed nutrients are called limiting factors, which are more important than other factors. Some phenomena in oral English teaching violate the law of limiting factors.

1. Students' lack of interest

Take the author's experience as a part-time oral English teacher as example. When the author asked his students about their view about oral English, almost all of them told him that their oral English was not good. Few students told him that they liked speaking English. As we all know, interest is the best teacher. The author chose English as his major because he like English. However, many students lack interest for oral English. Since interest is an important limiting factor for the learning of oral English, oral English became one big barricade for many Chinese students.

2. Lack of English environment

Another important limiting factor for oral English is English environment. All of us can master our native language because we were born to this language environment in which everyone speaks the same language. But when it comes to the learning of second language, we do not have the language environment, so it becomes more difficult to learn it. In our English class, the dominated environment is still Chinese environment instead of English environment. Some teachers themselves can not speak English fluently, which will have negative impacts on students. In the long term, students will stay at where they started and hardly make any improvement on oral English.

B.   Lack of Oral English Practice

Flower pot is an artificial living environment. Because of those comfortable conditions created by human beings, flowers in the pot can grow well in a short period of time. However, without careful attendance, those flowers will wither and then die.

In our English classes, teachers often plant students in flower pots. Chinese teachers often put great emphasis on procedural knowledge, such as words and phrases. And students are often required to memorize the procedural knowledge. However, these knowledge can only provide nutrients for students for a short period of time, but can not guarantee the long-term development. When it comes to reading, the students may understand the meaning of the text. But they can not speak English, because all they know is about words and phrases, and they haven't learned the skills for organizing these words and phrases.

C.   Teachers as the Authorities

According to the ecology theory, niche refers to different positions of species. The species of the same position have to compete with each other and it's impossible that two kinds of species will get along with each other for a long period of time. Under the situation of resource shortage, species compete with each other seriously to get the greatest survival advantage in particular ecological position. The following two cases in oral English teaching violate the Law of Niche.

1. Disharmony of teacher-student relation

One of the key points of learning oral English is talking in English on a regular basis. English teachers inevitably play the important role of starting a conversation in English classes. However, the disharmony of teacher-student relation often stops the interaction between students and teachers from happening. Usually, Teachers' partiality in English classes lead to the disharmony of teacher-student relation.

Chinese teachers tend to categorize students into good student (refer to A in the following) and bad student (refer to B in the following) according to their performance. With that concept in mind, partiality may be given to A, and B may be neglected. According to the Law of Niche, B will try harder to compete with A. However, teachers' partiality will greatly frustrate B' confidence. Thus, the relation between B and the teachers becomes disharmonious. Gradually, B will lose confidence in oral English learning, and he/she will blame the teacher for his/her less satisfactory performance in English speaking.

Apart from the partiality occurring in classes, teachers' partiality in other situations such as extracurricular activities may also cause the disharmony of teacher-student relation. This violates the Law of Niche because students can not have an impartial environment to study and to compete with each other.

2. Teacher-centered teaching

The emphasis of English learning should be put on speaking. Although many teachers know that and often encourage students to speak English on a regular basis, they are actually hindering students from doing so. In fact, students are frequently required to recite procedural knowledge such as words and phrases, and students are limited by the dull practice like this.

A successful teaching should be student-centered. Students have the right to choose their own studying methods, at the same time, teachers should give a correct guidance to students. Therefore students and teachers have separate duties and positions. The Law of Niche is violated in teacher-centered teaching because teachers compete for a position which does not belong to them.

IV. BUILDING OF BALANCED ECOSYSTEM FOR ORAL ENGLISH TEACHING

In Education Ecological system, the teachers and students can be seen as ecological subjects, and teaching environment and teaching methods can be regarded as ecological objects. However, in the ecological system of oral English teaching, the subjects and objects violate three laws in Education Ecology. Therefore, this ecological system is not balanced.

From the perspectives of subjects and objects, this part of the paper focuses on the building of balanced ecosystem for oral English teaching. The process consists of three parts: providing limiting factors for students, switching emphasis to oral English practice and student-centered teaching.

A. Create Limiting Factors for Students in Oral English Teaching

In Education Ecology, students are the main subjects. As the author mentioned before, limiting factors are vital to the survival and development of the subjects. Therefore, by providing students with the limiting factors, they can achieve a better performance, which is conducive to the balance of ecological system.

1. Arousing students' interest in English speaking

As Confucius said: "People who know it are no better than those who love it; Those who love it are no better than the ones who love to know it." It's a universal truth that interest is the best teacher. Many students are not willing to learn English because they are not interested in English. Therefore, the first step in oral English teaching is to arouse students' interest in oral English learning.

In an English class, we can often find that most students are silent throughout the whole class, or some students are hesitating about whether they should speak or not. Anxious psychology, which is the anxiety and fear one expresses when he/she speaks in a foreign language, can destroy students' confidence in speaking English. Therefore, teachers should take some measures to avoid anxious psychology.

First, teachers should create a relaxed atmosphere in English classes. This requires teachers to abandon the traditional concept of "teachers are the absolute authorities". Teachers should not expect students' servile obedience, instead, teachers should be the close friends of students. Harmonious teacher-student relation will put students at ease in the class. In addition, the choice of English topic should be carefully considered. Generally, students will not feel anxious about familiar and life-related topics, such as movies, novels, music, basketball, social affairs, etc. Students all have their own opinions about these topics. However, political, military and technological issues are too intricate for students, which will make students feel stressed. Of course, the level of difficulty should be continuously adjusted according to the overall level of the students.

Second, learn how to ask questions and praise students. Usually, teachers like appointing one of his/her students to answer questions. This behavior will put students in intense anxiety. Changing the way of raising questions will achieve much better effect. For example, the class can be divided into groups, and for every question raised by teacher, students in the group will discuss the question together and then the representative of this group can answer the question. This can not only greatly avoid students' anxiety but also increase the interaction between students. In addition, teachers should never criticize on students' wrong answers. The learning of a language is the process of practicing and making mistakes. Teachers should encourage students to speak in English without worrying making mistakes. It is what they learn from these mistakes that lead to the master of English. More importantly, for any progress students make, teachers should give a positive response to them by using the expressions like wonderful, well done and good job.

In oral English teaching, teachers should help students release psychological burdens and keep them motivated in English learning. In this way, students will form an interest in English learning, which will make English learning more enjoyable.

2. Providing language environment for students

As we all know, a child can easily master a language because he/she lives in the language environment. In an English class, Chinese students hardly have any opportunity to practice oral English. Therefore, teachers should try to provide students with English environment. This can be done via extracurricular activities and the orientation of British and American culture.

Extracurricular activities like English Club, English Salon can provide students with good English environment. By participating in these activities, students are motivated to speak English because they are exposed into the English environment. By communicating with classmates on a regular basis, their oral English can be greatly improved. Muti-media classroom should also be open to students so that students can watch English movies or listen to English songs. In this kind of environment, English learning are turned into a natural process. In the long-term, the efficiency of oral English teaching can be greatly increased.

The orientation of British and American culture will also help to create English environment for students. For example, on some special occasions such as the Christmas Day and the Halloween, teachers can take this opportunity to organize all kinds of activities to give a culture orientation to students. Since the western festivals are becoming more and more popular in China, their culture can provide students with more favorable environment to learn English.

B. Switch the Emphasis to Oral English Practice

The objects like teaching environment and teaching methods also play an important role in Education Ecology. These

objects can provide subjects with favorable conditions to develop. We can provide students with these favorable conditions by switching the teaching emphasis to oral English practice.

According to the Flower Pot Effect, procedural knowledge like words and phrases can not help students improve their oral English. However, it is not realistic to require teachers to put aside some time in the class for oral English practice, because they have to finish the teaching targets of every semester. Teachers can only provide students with a few opportunities to speak English in the class. But this is far from adequate. Students need more time to practice oral English. This requires the establishment of the second class. A second class refers to a public stage for English communication. There are some different forms of second class.

English speaking competition. A good English speech requires a lot including intonation, pronunciation, stress, body language, eye contact as well as a clear idea that you want to convey to the audience. Therefore, English speaking competition provides students with a wonderful opportunity to practice oral English. Teachers can select some hotly debated topics from the newspaper or Internet. Students then prepare speech draft on their own. In the process of speech writing, students are highly motivated to learn the pronunciation of words, how to express an idea in a more precise way and how to behave while giving a speech to others. And by competing with each other, students can learn from each other. For example, student A have a good pronunciation, but the body language of student B is more natural. In addition, teachers should encourage shy students to take part in the competition, which can efficiently build up their confidence. So English speaking competition can not only improve students' oral English but also build their confidence in English speaking, which make English speaking competition a great opportunity to practice English.

Role play. The class can be divided into several groups, three to five students for each group. Every day when the class is over, the teacher can assign a task to one of the groups, that is to give a short scene play in English before the start of next English class. The topic should be interesting and easy for role playing. For example, if the group have five boys, topics like "Michael Jordan' travel to China" will be appropriate. One boy can act as Jordan, and the others can be his fans and reporters that interviews Michael Jordan. Since boys are interested in basketball, English role play can arouse their interest in English learning and help improve their oral English. What's more important, this activity will only take a few minutes, but the yielding will be twice the effort.

The use of multimedia devices. In well-developed areas, teachers can make full use of the multimedia room. Once in a week, students can have an English movie class. After a clip of English movie or other English videos, teachers can organize a dubbing competition immediately. Dubbing is interesting and is conducive to the learning of intonation and pronunciation. In a less developed area, English teacher can use the recording machine. For every sentence played in the recording machine, students are required to repeat. With the use of multimedia devices, English teaching is no longer a boring task, instead, students are willing to learn English and speak in English.

By providing students with the second class, students can not only learn the procedural knowledge in the class but also practice oral English in the second class.

C.   Switch to Student-centered Teaching

According to law of niche, species of the same position have to compete with each other and it's impossible that two kinds of species will get along with each other for a long period of time. In a balanced ecological system, students should be in the dominated position of learning. However, teachers usually occupy this position, which directly causes the disharmony of teacher-student relation. So we should establish harmonious teacher-student relation and adjust teaching methods to realize student-centered teaching.

1. Harmonious teacher-student relation

A good teacher-student relation should be harmonious and democratic. This ecological atmosphere can motivate students to study with enthusiasm. A good teacher will never give up on students with bad performance. Instead, the teacher will care more about these students by constantly encouraging them. In return, these students will become more and more confident in study, and their performance will improve.

Apart from treating every student equally, teachers should also give full respect to students. Since every student has a different background, everyone may have different personalities. In addition, student culture is different from the adult culture because students are still immature both physically and mentally. Teachers need to fully understand the uniqueness of student culture and learn to analyze students' behavior from their perspective. In this way, students will be happy to communicate with teachers because they think teachers can understand them.

Emotional link between students and teachers is the essence of a harmonious relationship, which is also the foundation of efficient teaching. After Confucius passed away, his student Zi Gong lived near his grave for three years in order to express his sincere gratitude to his teacher. In modern society, teachers should abandon materialism and treat students with honesty and love. Only in this way can a harmonious teacher-student be achieved.

2. Teach less, learn more

Give a man fish and he can eat for a day; but if you teach him how to fish, he will eat for a lifetime. The idea of TLLM advocates that teachers should arouse the enthusiasm of students by admitting their subjective role.

In an English class, teachers need not to exemplify every detail in the textbook, instead, they should learn to make these dead and dull knowledge interesting for students to learn. In addition to propagating the doctrine, imparting professional knowledge and resolving doubts, teachers should teach students how to form healthy studying habits and effective studying strategies. In this way, students can enhance their self-study ability and achieve sustainable

development.

V. CONCLUSION

This paper mainly focuses on the study of oral English teaching with the ideas from Education Ecology. By listing and comparing the characteristics of oral English and ecological system, the author finds the common grounds for both parties, which provides the theoretical basis for the subject. In the next part, the author analyzes the problems in current oral English teaching from the perspective of Education Ecology. These problems violate three important laws in Education Ecology. Next is the building of balanced ecosystem for oral English teaching by giving solutions to the aforementioned problems. Only when we respect the laws and principles in Education Ecology can we make substantial improvement in oral English teaching.

There is still a long way to go in oral English teaching. The phenomenon of *dumb English* is still very common in China. A Chinese student spends an average of ten years studying English. However, the majority of students only get procedural knowledge such as words and phrases, while oral English is always the weakest part. At the same time, English is entrenching its role as a global language because of American dominance in economy and politics. Therefore, it is in urgent need for Chinese students to speak English fluently. In order to achieve this goal, the oral English teaching should deserve much more attention. In this way, Chinese students can improve their oral English substantially.

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The Advantage of Power of Goal-setting Theory Coupled with the Power of Choice in Iranian EFL Learners' Writing

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Abstract—This study attempted the effectiveness of implementing a basic goal-setting choice model in Iranian EFL students' essay writing course. It explored a motivational strategy, power of goal-setting theory coupled with the power of choice, to motivate students to choose the challenging tasks when given the choice. To boot, the difference between male and female learners with regard to their choice of goals was surveyed. The findings of the study on 93 EFL university students revealed that the majority of students preferred to pick the most challenging goal when presented with the choice to select their own goals. Furthermore, the results indicated that there was no significant difference between male and female learners regarding their choice of goals. The findings of this study can draw the attention of teachers to the fact that goal-setting theory can serve as an extremely promising pedagogical strategy in teaching L2 writings.

Index Terms—writing, goal-setting theory, power of choice, EFL learners, gender

I. INTRODUCTION

Why some students participate eagerly in classroom activities while others not? The reason for this disparity can be clarified through the concept of motivation. Generally motivation means "the reasons underlying behavior" (Guay et al., 2010, p. 712). It is "what gets people going, keeps them going, and helps them finish tasks" (Pintrich & Schunk, 2002, cited in Pintrich, 2003). Student motivation is one of the problems commonly cited by teachers; thus, they want to know what factors affect motivation and what strategies can boost it.

One of these factors is goal-setting which is an important source of task motivation (Bandura, 1986; Locke, Motowidlo, & Bobko, 1986; Locke, Shaw, Saari, & Latham, 1981). Given the fact that goals are fundamental elements to the study of motivation, it is not surprising that researchers interested in student motivation and learning are concentrating considerable attention to the role of goals during learning. Hence, Goals are assumed to be central components of motivation and learning (Schunk, 2003).

Therefore, in this study we aim at throwing more light on the power of goal-setting theory combined with the power of choice and employing it as a model for motivating Iranian EFL learners. This model is on the basis of motivational goal-setting theory. Dailey (2000) asserts that management and organizational behavior theory recommends that goal-setting is assumed to be a useful strategy in enhancing motivation. In addition, goal-setting theory held the first rank in validity and second in efficacy in comparison with other motivational strategies (Lee & Early, 1988).

In 2002, Nunley presented a very successful method for curriculum design entitled as Layered Curriculum ™. This approach has been effectively employed in many subjects including language learning and works on three layers of curriculum objectives relating to deeper levels of understanding. Moreover, students are provided with the opportunity of picking their own learning goals in this method. Accordingly, the power of choice for selecting proximal goals can be a useful motivational strategy in educational contexts.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

According to Gardner (1985), motivation is generally "a combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language plus favorable attitudes towards learning the language" (cited in William & Burden, 1997, p.116). As a matter of fact, motivation plays an indispensible role in the process of learning while it still provokes much discussion and debate as identifying specific factors influencing motivation in language learning. Teachers and managers have experienced that motivation is needed for success. Experience indicates that students must sustain motivation to be successful even if they do not enjoy their learning tasks (Melendy, 2008).

Wlodkowski (1984) put forward a remarkable motivational sequence for learning. Based on his motivational sequence, there are three stages that can contribute to motivation. The beginning stage includes attitude and needs; stimulation and affective strategies are in the middle; and competence and reinforcement strategies are in the final stage.

In the first stage, the attitude component implies that teachers make an attempt to facilitate positive attitudes towards learning the subject and to build expectancy that task requirements can be satisfied successfully. Furthermore, the needs component relates to providing a collaborative rather than competitive environment. In the second stage, stimulation involves the stimulation of learners' attention, and the affective component refers to establishing a positive group atmosphere. In the third stage, the competence component relates to designing activities which bring about feelings of accomplishment and progress as results of effort. At last, the reinforcement element refers to creating activities resulting in praise and rewards by dint of indicating the positive results of tasks.

In 1988, Glasser proposed a similar motivational model which had four elements: survival, love and belonging, power, and freedom .It is very similar to Wlodkowski's sequence. Firstly, the survival element refers to feelings of comfort and security. The love and belonging element refers to a more cooperative and desirable group atmosphere which is less competitive. Next, the power element refers to feelings of empowerment as a result of attaining one's goals. At last, freedom deals with providing students with more autonomy and more opportunities to make choices.

Power and freedom are of special interest; power deals with the empowerment and satisfaction in making progress towards one's goals. That is, as students get better, they enjoy experiencing a sense of power from enhancing their skills and acquiring more knowledge. Hence, power can be regarded as highly motivating. Freedom is also greatly motivating because when students are provided with the opportunities of making choices, they tend to become more intrinsically motivated to attain their goals.

"Goal setting involves establishing a goal and modifying it as necessary" (Bandura, 1986, 1988, cited in Schunk, 1990). Goals encourage people to invest much effort, show persistence, and make people attend to task features and the strategies which facilitate their accomplishment in the task (Locke & Latham, 1990). Goals do not intrinsically promote learning and motivation; however, the goal properties of specificity, proximity, and difficulty are of utmost importance (Bandura, 1977; Latham & Yukl, 1975; Locke, 1968; Locke et al., 1981; Schunk, 1984). Specific goals tend more to improve learning and performance than no goals or general goals (Locke & Latham, 1990; Locke, 1968; Locke et al., 1981; Rosswork, 1977; Bandura & Schunk, 1981; Gaa, 1973; Schunk, 1983, 1985; Tollefson, Tracy, Johnsen, Farmer, & Buenning, 1984). Proximal goal setting refers to splitting complex or larger tasks into simpler completed parts (Wolters, 2003; Schunk & Gaa, 1981). Another property, namely, difficulty is the needed task proficiency being measured on the basis of a standard (Locke, et al., 1981). The amount of effort students exert to achieve a goal relies on at which level it is set. Furthermore, the research shows a positive relationship between task performance and difficulty level of a given task (Locke, et al., 1981; Rosswork, 1977; Schunk, 1983). To conclude, abundant research confirms the value of goals in enhancing students' motivation, self-efficacy, and achievement (Bandura, 1988; Locke & Latham, 1990; Schunk, 1990).

Reviewing the literature, it seems that plenty of studies has been carried out in the realm of motivation (Ames, 1992; Bandura, 1991; Bandura & Cervone, 1986; Bandura & Schunk, 1981; Britner & Pajares, 2001; Broussard & Garrison, 2004; Choi & Medalia, 2010; Dev, 1997; Dornyei, 1994a, 1994b, 2001, 2003; Elliot & Dweck, 2005; Hosseini Fatemi, Pishghadam, & Vahidnia, 2014; Hosseini Fatemi & Vahidnia, 2013a, 2013b; Tremblay & Gardner, 1995; Yusuf, 2011). Although some research compared goal theory of motivation with task motivation (Bandura, 1986; Locke et al., 1981; Locke et al., 1986), few studies (e.g., Melendy, 2008) have examined the role of power of choice in proximal goal-setting. To the best of the researchers' knowledge, Melendy (2008) is the only researcher who has investigated the effectiveness of the power of choice of proximal academic goals as a strategy for enhancing student motivation in an undergraduate composition. The results of his study indicated that more students selected the most challenging tasks when given the choice. In addition, the implications of his study showed that this approach could be an effective motivational strategy in academic writing courses.

Therefore, paucity of research in this realm makes this particular study significant, with the prime purpose of testing a motivational strategy which was the power of goal-setting combined with the power of choice. Moreover, this research was about to explore the value of implementing a basic goal-setting choice model in essay writing courses within an EFL context. The chief objective of this study was to ascertain whether offering the Iranian EFL students the choice to select their own goals could motivate them to pick the most difficult task or not. In addition, this research aims at exploring the difference between male and female learners with regard to their choice of goals.

Research Hypotheses are as follows:

H.1: Students are not willing to perform more difficult tasks when given the choice.

H.2: There is no difference between male and female students concerning their goal choices.

III. METHOD

A. Setting and Participants

This research was carried out in Mashhad, Iran. A community sample of 93 Iranian EFL learners, 38 male and 55 female participated in this study, among whom 38 were in MA level and 55 students were in BA level. They were university students majoring in English translation, English literature, and English language teaching at Ferdowsi, Khayam, and Imam Reza universities of Mashhad, Iran.

B. Instrumentation

Writing Task

Participants of the current study needed to have passed writing course in advance due to being assessed with essay examinations. A weak prior to the exam day, the researchers introduced two possible examination topics and three goal choices (A, B, and C). The students had the choice to select the goal they wanted to pursue for the exam day. The goal A was a six-paragraph essay with six references, goal B was a five-paragraph essay with five references, and C was designed as a four-paragraph essay with four references.

Each goal needed a longer composition with more research, so the goals were resource based. Since the preparation time for the exam was limited and the requirements for the task were presented in detail, the goal-setting was proximal and time specific and the goals were specific and measurable. Hence, this goal-setting model clearly followed the basic requirements outlined by goal-setting theory.

It is worthy to note that the candidates were expected to receive extra score for participating in this project and they were told that they were taking part in a writing competition in which top ten writers would be rewarded. The researchers explicitly told them that their grades were directly related to their choice of goals and the quality of their writing.

A week later, the researchers selected one of the topics to be written about on the exam session. The candidates were recommended to spend around 90 minutes on this task. Two writing examiners, one of whom was the researcher, marked learners' essays based on the scale adopted by Engelhard et al. (1992). This rating scale consists of five domains: content and organization, style, sentence formation, usage, and mechanics. The overall score of the five domains considered to be 100 full score, each domain having 20 points. It is worth noting that the inter-rater reliability for the scores was found to be .86.

IV. RESULT

First of all, this part deals with the willingness of Iranian EFL learners to perform more challenging tasks if given the choice. Then, the difference between male and female learners with regard to their choice of goals will be explored. Table 1. depicts statistical information about goal choices set by students.

TABLE 1.
Statistical Information about Goal Choices

Goal	Frequency	Percentage
A	42	45.2
B	16	17.2
C	35	37.6
Total	93	100.0

As Table 1. demonstrates, there were 93 Iranian EFL learners taking part in this study. As the table shows, among 93 students, the frequency of students who attempted goal 'A' equals to 42, the number of students who chose 'B' as their goals is 16, and 35 students selected goal 'C'. The next column labeled as percentage shows the percentage of the study's population who picked each goal. As indicated in Table 1., 45.2% of students opted for the goal 'A', 17.2% of learners picked 'B', and 37.6% preferred goal 'C'. It implies that EFL learners tended to pursue the most demanding goal when presented with the choice to choose their own goals. Therefore, the result can be summarized as follows:

Goal A > Goal C > Goal B

To conclude, goal 'A' was the most favored goal among EFL students, goal 'B' was found to be the least favored option among them, and goal 'C' ranked the second.

To spot the difference between male and female learners concerning their choice of goals, Chi-square was run. Table 2. was created to present the findings of the Chi-square.

TABLE 2
CHI-SQUARE: GENDER IN TERMS OF GOAL CHOICES

Goal Choice	Gender	Observed N	Expected N	Df	χ^2	Sig.
A	Male	16	14.7	2	.557	.757
	Female	26	24.2			
B	Male	7	6.5			
	Female	9	9.5			
C	Male	15	16.8			
	Female	20	21.3			

As the results of the Chi-square (χ^2 = .557, p > .05) indicates, there is no significant difference between male and female learners regarding their choice of goals. Since the Sig. value is .757 (which is greater than .05), we can say that male and female students in general seem equal in choice of goals.

According to table 2., male and female students equally preferred goal 'A' (Female N = 26, Male N = 16) more than was expected (Female N = 24.2, Male N = 14.7). It implies that most female and male learners judged themselves capable enough to pursue and attain high (hard) goal. Alternatively, both male and female students opted for the goal 'C' (Female N = 20, Male N = 15) a bit less than was expected (Female N = 21.3, Male N = 16.8) which carries this implication that they were less likely to set the low (easy) goal. As indicated for goal 'B ', male students tended to choose this goal (N = 7) a little more than was expected (N = 6.5), while female students desired to pick this goal (N = 9) a little less than was expected (N = 9.5).

All in all, as can be seen in Table 2., both male and female learners exhibited strong desire to attain the harder goal and as a result seemed to favor great effort and persistence. To put it another way, most female and male learners sought challenging goal which provided them the opportunity to develop their competencies. In closing, the most favored goal among female and male students was 'A', and goal 'C' found to be the second prevailing goal among both of them. Furthermore, goal 'B' was detected as the least favored option among male and female students.

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The obtained result greatly depends on goal-setting theory and power of choice which contribute to students' motivation. Dailey (2000) asserts that management and organizational behavior theory recommends that goal-setting is assumed to be a useful strategy in increasing motivation. In addition, goal-setting theory held the first rank in validity and second in efficacy in comparison with other motivational strategies (Lee & Early, 1988). Moreover, in line with Glasser's motivational model (1988), freedom, one of the four motivational elements, is greatly motivating; if students are provided with the opportunities of making choices, they tend to become more intrinsically motivated to attain their goals. Accordingly, it can be inferred that due to having the opportunities for selecting their goals, learners of this study became motivated to choose the challenging goal.

Another explanation for this finding maybe rely on the fact that the participants of this research were told that they were taking part in a writing competition in which the top ten best writers would be rewarded by presents and the higher grades directly correspond to their goal choices and their quality of their writing. As a result, they became motivated to pursue the most challenging goal hoping for surpassing others in higher grades and being one of the ten winners.

The results of the present study confirmed that of Melendy (2008). He investigated the effectiveness of the power of choice of proximal academic goals as a strategy for boosting Thai students' motivation in an undergraduate composition and rhetoric course. He concluded that more students in the sample group attempted the most challenging tasks when given the choice (Melendy, 2008). Hence, Iranian EFL learners and Thai students are the same in opting for the most difficult goal: they all prefer to pick the challenging goal when given the choice; this demonstrates that there seems to be a universal trend among Asian learners. There exists some differences as well, for instance, from 93 subjects of our study, 45.2% of students selected the most difficult goal, 17.2% picked the moderate, and 37.6% preferred the least difficult one; however, 50% of TS selected the most difficult goal, 37% picked the moderate, and 13% chose the least difficult one in that study (Melendy, 2008).

Another finding revealed by this research was that there existed no significant difference between male and female learners with regard to their choice of goals. Therefore, the second hypothesis of this research is confirmed. Consequently, it can be inferred that goal-setting theory is more culture-bound rather than being related to gender. To the best of the present researchers' knowledge, two genders' similarity or difference in goal choice among EFL learners, in the global context in general and in the context of Iran, seems rather unexplored. Hence, the present researcher cannot draw a comparison between the difference between male and female EFL learners regarding the choice of goals. Of course, future research is necessary to ensure the two genders' similarity in these areas.

Examining the results of this study, several implications are put forward; first, it will bring about consciousness-raising of those involved in EFL/ESL learning or teaching through informing them about the importance of setting goals at different stages of leaning. Thus, teachers should make their best shot to take on the responsibility of training their students to set high, specific, and realistic goals. Moreover, shifting the focus of classroom instruction toward spurring setting goals could turn out well in enhancing L2 motivation in universities. Second, this study will carry some weight in cross-cultural studies which aim to compare different cultures and figure out the sources of cross-cultural differences. A further notion that may be highlighted by this study is that incorporating this motivational strategy into course and curriculum design can be effective for pedagogy and encouraging students to invest more effort into their work. Our study also underscores the significance of paying attention to writing skill and attempting to probably change the attitude of learners toward this skill, because students frequently consider this skill as a laborious and boring skill.

As it is clear from any scientific research, nothing can be obvious unless verified by observation or experimentation. To conduct any kind of scientific research, one may confront with problems and limitations. The present study could have obtained rather different findings if it had not faced the following limitations. First, since this study was done in only a few universities in Iran, its results cannot be safely generalized to other EFL contexts; thus, further research is called for to be conducted in other universities in Iran or in other countries to compare the results. Second, in this study EFL learners' educational level and age were not taken into account as variables, so another study is required to take these points into consideration. Furthermore, this research did not delve into the influence of EFL learners' motivation and self-efficacy on their choice of goals, which can be the subject of further inquiries. Last but not least, the subject of

future investigations can focus on the value of the power of choice of proximal goals for different groups of students, such as high school students and for different subjects.

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Traditional Chinese Language Teaching Revisited: The Example of Recitation

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Abstract—**Recitation is a traditional practice in Chinese literacy education and later was transferred to English Language Teaching (ELT) in China. This article, taking the example of recitation, conducts an analysis of traditional Chinese language teaching which is expected to yield implications for current ELT in China. This research has reached the conclusion that certain aspects of traditional language teaching might be relevant to modern situation in ELT.**

Index Terms—**traditional language teaching, China, recitation**

I. INTRODUCTION

Recitation is, from the contemporary western point of view, a traditional but outmoded pedagogical practice. In early western documentation, Chinese learners, were usually portrayed as passive, imitative memorisers, as is described below:

… they memorate[sic], they hear the Chinese explanation, and this goes on from morning to night for years, and they get the classics into them. (1882 Education Commission's interview with the Bishop of Victoria, cited in Pennycook, 1996)

Western teachers in China have more often than not responded to recitation by Chinese students with derision and scorn (Sampson, 1984). For instance, dating back to the 19th century, a western educator named Frederick Steward (1865 cited in Pennycook, 1996) thought that 'the Chinese have no education in the real sense of the word', because the development of mental powers were 'all sacrificed to the cultivation of memory'. From this viewpoint, recitation seems to be seriously irreconcilable with modern education. As we have seen, Lips (1949) stated that, without the benefits of education, our civilisation would be reduced to laying more stress on a good memory. This implies that the most progressive forms of education may involve little recitation while emphasis on memory is considered as primitive or backward. Echoing this perception, some Western scholars equate recitation with rote learning. For instance, statements are found such as: 'Rote learning is recitation' (Cohen & Feigenbaum, 1982). In this sense, Chinese education relying heavily on recitation and Chinese learners cast as rote-memorisers need to be enlightened by the ideas of the creative West because the Chinese way of learning is inferior to the Western way, a corollary resulting from the stereotyping view that the Chinese are rote learners (Wen, 1997)

Scepticism among Western teachers and methodologists on the purpose of extensive use of recitation in foreign language learning and teaching (as is the case in China) has not ceased. The Chinese mastery of English through recitation is commonly characterised as 'rather quaint, a misguided use of effort and a barrier to communication'[1] (Cortazzi & Jin, 1996, p. 185). When Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) failed to make the expected impact on ELT in the Chinese context (Hu, 2002; Rao, 1996), recitation, the most salient feature in the Chinese way of learning English, has become a convenient practice to blame for its suppression of Chinese students' communicative competence. Thus it is rarely mentioned in English textbooks or discussed in foreign language education journals as if it is the causal factor of the current situation of ELT in China – which a Chinese education official has described as 'time-consuming but of low efficiency' (L.-Q. Li, 2003). Is recitation the major culprit which bears responsibility for any unsatisfactory outcome of ELT in China, a country with an enormous population and a very short history of English teaching?

II. CURRENT SITUATION OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING IN CHINA

Above all things, it is questionable whether ELT in China is 'time-consuming and inefficient' (L.-Q. Li, 2003) given the limited English class time (about 4 class hours a week, 18 weeks a term, for 12 terms in high school and 4 terms at university) and the EFL context (where little English is to be encountered outside the classroom). Such an amount of class time may be 'just enough to help students understand how the language works, it does not allow them to practice using it' (Liu, 1998, p. 5; see also Q. Li, 1994). Moreover, as a result of stringent controls on access to international media by the Chinese government, the Chinese students have little exposure to up-to-date information directly from English-speaking countries that may provide a language model for them to follow and give them a flavour of the culture

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[1] It needs to be pointed out that this is not the opinion of Cortazzi & Jin who just quoted commonly held Western interpretations of Chinese way of English learning. The context of this quotation is this: 'Chinese students' undoubted achievement in acquiring an advance knowledge of grammar or memorising many English words is seen by Western teachers as being primarily a negative factor: …'(Cortazzi & Jin, 1996, p. 185).

of those countries. Other constraining contextual factors, including large class sizes, limited resources and equipment, lack of competent teachers, and particularly the absence of a test of oral English due to a long-term neglect of oral skills, may provide a more reasonable account of Chinese students' insufficiency in communicative competence than their experience of memorising texts.

ELT in China over the past decades is 'undoubtedly successful in its own terms' (Burnaby & Sun, 1989, p. 229) given that China is culturally and geographically distant from the English-speaking world and that the Chinese language is typologically distant from English language; as we have seen, ELT has a very short history in China, which has been disrupted by political events or upheavals and decades of isolation from western countries. An English major who has only studied within China, as observed by an American expert (Nida, 1984; cited in Ding, 1987), often has a better command of the language than the average American college graduate has of a foreign language which he or she has majored in and studied only in America.

Chinese investment of effort in mastery of English through recitation, which may give them a sense of progress and achievement, crucial to morale, may not necessarily be in opposition to a change towards a more communicative direction. To explain why extensive use of recitation inherited from traditional language teaching is not inconsistent with creative use of language, in the following section, I shall conduct a positive evaluation of certain relevant principles salient in traditional language teaching.

III. WHAT CAN WE LEARN FROM TRADITIONAL CHINESE LANGUAGE TEACHING?

One caveat I have to mention prior to proceeding further is that my analyses in this section focuses more on the positive aspects of traditional language learning than on the problems. This may make me appear overly enthusiastic about Chinese tradition and blind to modern values in Western language education. Needless to say, there are many problems in traditional language teaching, just as there are obvious virtues and strengths in modern Western pedagogical theories. With no pretense of offering a balanced assessment of the strong points and weaknesses of traditional Chinese and modern Western language education theory, my goal in this article, however, is to explore what essence we can extract from traditional Chinese language teaching which can be drawn on appropriately in our current effort to direct our foreign language teaching towards western approaches.

Traditional language teaching in China, according to Z.-G. Zhang (1983), refers to 'the sort of language teaching conducted in China between the Song Dynasty (960 A.D.) until the middle of the 19th century'[2], that is, the literacy-focused teaching of the *wenyan*[3] version of Chinese. From fragmentary written records and historical film clips, we are easily imprinted with the impression that traditional language education treated students like machines who had to passively and mechanically accept whatever was instilled without understanding. Indeed, there are many traditional guidelines or practices which are seriously irrelevant to contemporary language teaching especially those connected with the 'eight-legged' essay or *baguwen* [4]. Recognition of this, however, should not blind us to the fact that there were certainly valuable experience in and sensible precepts underlying traditional Chinese language teaching that are worth inheriting.

First and foremost, traditional Chinese literacy education never failed to emphasise the paramount importance of wide reading. As the Chinese saying goes, 'He who reads ten thousand books thoroughly can work wonders with his pen.' [*du shu po wan quan, xia bi ru you shen*] It was believed that only through wide reading could one be capable of good writing. In addition to extensive reading, intensive reading was also highly valued. In order for the students to internalise the language material, traditional language teaching demanded that some classic writings be intensively studied and recited to the extent that they could be recalled effortlessly at any time. Meanwhile, the importance of plenty of practice with language (e.g. constantly composing poems, verses or prose) was not neglected. So 'read plenty and write plenty'[5] became an established maxim in traditional language teaching. Quite obviously, the Chinese ancestral scholars' insistence on the command of a rich linguistic resource through abundant exposure (either through wide reading or intensive recitation) and on the engagement with output (writing) has considerable justification even examined under modern theories of language and literacy development. More importantly, reading was not simply study and recitation of texts for examinations, rather, understanding should become an integral part of meaningful reading. As Zhu Xi (1130-1200) put it,

In learning we have to read for ourselves, so that the understanding we reach is personally meaningful. Nowadays, however, people read simply for the sake of the civil service examinations … reading must be an experience personally meaningful to the self … (translation from Gardner, 1990, pp. 17, 148)

Another prominent value in traditional Chinese language teaching is that it attached great importance to students' 'independent thinking as a pre-requisite to reading and writing development' (Zhang, 1983, p. 8). This attribute has long been ignored because it was made vague and ambiguous by the unanimous attack on the 'eight-legged' essay and

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[2] The time span is roughly in line with the period of imperial civil service examination system.

[3] *wenyan* is an older version of written Chinese which is drastically different from vernacular and oral-focused *baihua* version used today.

[4] To quote Kang You-Wei, a reformer in late Qing Dynasty, 'those who learn *baguwen* read no books published after Qin and Han Dynasty, know nothing about practices in foreign states …'. (cited in T. Li, 2008, p. 65)

[5] Traditional language teaching takes as its goal of the improvement of only reading and writing (Zhang, 1983), which has a far-reaching impact on language teaching in China, either it being Chinese or foreign language.

imperial civil service examinations as well as overenthusiastic worship of authority which characterised traditional language education. Moreover, presumably people became teachers through an apprenticeship model so that there was a dearth of systematic exposition and coherent theories of language teaching throughout the hundreds of years.

In essence, there are many examples throughout ancient Chinese literature of cultivating independence of mind. Confucius, for example, advised his students to 'be learned, ask questions, think carefully and discriminate' [*boxue, shenwen, zhensi, mingbian*][6], which is apparently another evidence of his unwavering emphasis on the importance of critical thinking in learning. The Confucian sense of learning involved continuous effort of fostering independence of mind and a willingness to doubt others' views as well as one's own preconceived ideas: 'In reading don't force your ideas in the text. You must get rid of your own idea …'; '… the student must first of all know how to doubt' (Gardner, 1990, p. 46)[7].

Teachers, on the other hand, were supposed to enable the students to achieve their genuine mastery by guiding the students to sense the elusive meaning implied in the reading materials rather than demanding that they follow parrot-fashion through rote recitation. The pre-Confucius *Liji* classic famously links 'a good teacher' with guiding students to think for themselves:

In his teaching, the superior man … opens the way, but does not take them to the place. … opening the way without leading the students to the place makes them think for themselves. Now if the process of learning is made gentle and easy and the students are encouraged to think for themselves, we may call the man a good teacher. (translation from Lin, 1938, p. 247)

Historically, up to the Ming and Qing periods, writers heaped scorn on pedants who blindly followed the past (Zhang, 1983). It was the deep understanding and synthesis, systemisation or integration of the material that Chinese scholars meant to achieve through extensive reading or intensive recitation. This conception is displayed in the expression going like '*ru hu qi nei, chu hu qi wai*' [literally meaning 'going into the material in order to get out of it']. This is to say, punctilious study of the material is aiming to eventually achieve a holistic mastery of it.

Summing up, developing a rich command of language resources through persistent accumulation and constant practice seems to be a positive theme in traditional Chinese language teaching. More importantly, cultivating students' independent or creative thinking in reading was seen as essential to enabling them to take full control of the material available for their own use. Clearly, amassing large amounts of linguistic resources without neglecting independent thinking or creative reflection is a positive experience which we can learn from.

Unfortunately, over the past hundred years or so, some rational language teaching principles such as I have mentioned above have either not received the attention they deserve in foreign language education or have been misunderstood and therefore misused in transferring them to current foreign language teaching. One example is the traditional practice of recitation of contextual material, which is often misused in foreign language teaching in China. The students may be forced to memorise verbatim a text designated by the teacher simply for the purpose of reproducing it in examinations, or fulfilling an assignment without being afforded a chance later to use what they have gained from the painstaking task. In addition, little effort may be made on the part of the teacher to guide the students to appreciate or enjoy the beauty of the language per se. Thus, on top of being demotivated in foreign language learning, Chinese students become used to an introverted and conservative approach to learning, unable to use English as an effective communicative tool, reluctant to engage in critical or independent thinking, and happy to be a passive receivers of knowledge (Rao, 1996).

When some prestigious officials in education made reference on how traditional education practices discourage students' creative thinking, text recitation seems to be among the first factors to be blamed. Worrying about being regarded as old-fashioned, textbook compilers are prudent in assigning texts for students to memorise. For instance, learning texts by heart is rarely mentioned in high school English textbooks and only occasionally required in the exercises following the text in Chinese language textbooks[8]. Language teaching specialists and researchers are cautious in talking about it presumably because they believe it is dismissed in the progressive West as primitive or misguided or because it has not been endowed with a sensible theoretical justification. Facing the predicament of failing to get satisfactory outcome of ELT in China despite enormous investment, especially under the pressure of criticism from government officials, Chinese educators may hasten to stay away from any learning practice imprinted with palpable traditional marks.

IV. THE PARADOX OF CHINESE LEARNERS

What some western researchers (e.g. Biggs, 1991; Cooper, 2004; Watkins & Biggs, 2001) consider to be the so-called paradox of Chinese learners is that Chinese learners achieve their equally often reported academic success apparently by using rote strategies and surface learning approaches. On the one hand, they are held up as paragons of educational

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[6] The complete quote goes like, *boxue, shenwen, zhensi, mingbian, duxing* (from *The Doctrine of the Mean*). Zhu Xi (1130-1200) elaborated each phrase as the proper sequence of five steps for learning from any worthwhile text: 'Study it extensively, question its meaning precisely, ponder it with full vigilance, scrutinize its distinctions with clarity of vision, practice it in all earnestness' (Plaks, 2003: 42).
[7] Gardener is quoting Zhuxi (1130-1200) here.
[8] The textbook series under examination are those published in 1990 by People's Education Press affiliated with Ministry of Education. They have been used by an overwhelming majority of secondary schools throughout China.

excellence, while on the other hand, they are derided as rote learners (Biggs, 1991). How is it possible that students with an orientation to rote learning, which is negatively correlated with achievement (cf. Biggs, 1979), achieve so highly? In the case of foreign language learning, the paradox becomes this: Chinese students were learning 'rather more effectively than they "should" have been, given what Western research predicted to be counter-productive teaching/learning environments' (Watkins & Biggs, 2001, p. preface; see also Watkins & Biggs, 1996). This paradox can only be solved by exploring what Chinese learners actually do when they memorise.

One particular aspect of the 'paradox of the Chinese learner' is the relationship between recitation and understanding. Chinese students are perceived as passive rote learners, yet show high levels of understanding (Watkins & Biggs, 2001, p. 3).

Two opposing findings emerged from the considerable bulk of documents discussing this issue. While earlier documentation often describes Chinese learners as rote learners who learn mechanically without meaningful understanding (Ballard & Clanchy, 1984; Politzer & McGroarty, 1985; Samuelowicz, 1987), literature in the last decade or so has seen numerous expressions of a contrary argument, namely, 'what from the outside looks like mere rote learning is then in reality a combination of both recitation and understanding' (Dahlin & Watkins, 2000, p. 67; see also Cooper, 2004; Kennedy, 2002; Marton, Dall'Alba, et al.,1996; Marton, Wen, et al., 1996; Marton et al., 2005). Tweed and Lehman refute what they describe as the western instructor's belief that Chinese students adopt a shallow, rote-learning approach on the ground that 'Chinese students often use recitation not as an end in itself but as a path to understanding' (2002, p. 93). Similarly, Lee (1996) argues that recitation may be the best way to become familiar with a text for Chinese learners in the sense that it is just a stage in the learning process, preceding understanding rather than stopping at rote learning.

Thus viewed, it is argued that recitation is seldom separated from understanding for learners of Confucian heritage culture (CHC)[9], hence the conception of 'meaningful understanding' (Marton, Wen, & Nagle, 1996). The two subcomponents identified under this label are 'memorising what is understood' and 'understanding through recitation' (Marton, Dall'Alba, & Tse, 1996, p. 77). Summing up, different from the common Western thinking that recitation and understanding are antithetical, Chinese students consider recitation and understanding to be closely related and it is normal practice for them to try to understand and memorise simultaneously. The fact that many Chinese students are able to combine the processes of recitation and understanding in a way that Western students seldom do (cf. Kember, 1996; Marton, Dall'Alba, et al., 1996; Marton, Watkins, & Tang, 1997; Wen & Marton, 1993) may help explain another aspect of the 'paradox' of Chinese learners: they report in both qualitative and quantitative investigations that they are trying to understand what they are learning while their Western teachers consider them as mere learners by rote (Dahlin & Watkins, 2000).

V. CONCLUSION

While overuse or misuse of recitation can admittedly be detrimental to the cultivation of mind to some extent, some contemporary researchers (e.g. Biggs, 1996; Sampson, 1984) have argued that recitation should be carefully re-examined. According to Pennycook, there is a need to seek different possibilities in 'how language, texts, and recitation may be understood' (1996, p. 222).

Indiscriminatingly deleting all learning habits inherited from traditional language education can be as injurious as obstinately clinging on to those language teaching traditions which prove seriously irrelevant to modern situation (for example, overemphasis on the teaching of Classical Chinese (Zhang, 1983)). We should not be blind to the fact that a number of recent research studies have documented the use of text recitation by high-achieving Chinese English learners (Gao, 2007; Gu, 2003). In fact, an increasing number of contemporary Western researchers (e.g., Pennycook, 1996; Sowden, 2005; Watkins & Biggs, 1996) have recognised that recitation, a highly valued way of learning in the Far East, can lead to high levels of understanding if applied appropriately. Chinese students' inadequacy in oral communication may rather lie in the fact that oral skills have long been neglected and a main emphasis has been placed on the improvement of reading and writing (Zhang, 1983) than in the practice of text recitation which is assumed to stifle the creative use of language.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

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[9] In their in-depth interviews with 20 students, Marton et al. (2005) also reported, apart from 'recitation that succeeds understanding', there also exists the type of 'recitation that precedes understanding' which means, the learner rote-memorise in the first instance in order to understand later.

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Translation of Technical Terms: A Case of Law Terms

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Abstract—**According to Nida and Taber (1969) "a good translation focuses on the meaning or content as such and aims to preserve that intact" (p.173) The purpose of this study is to take into account law terms and their equivalents in Persian language and also is to classify and identify the most frequent strategies which are used by Persian translators in the process of translating the law terms from English into Persian. For this purpose, the intended books were studied from the beginning to the end, and instances of law technical terms were identified and compared with their Persian counterparts in translated texts and also their equivalence in law technical dictionary. Based on the results of this research, the strategies used by the translators in translating technical terms of law are not due to the chance, and there is relationship between words and their translation strategy. Hence, the equivalence strategy had the highest percentage which showed that in translating technical words from English into Persian language this strategy was used with the highest frequency by the translators.**

Index Terms—**English language, law terms, Persian language, translation strategy**

I. INTRODUCTION

The choice of a suitable equivalent in a language depends on many factors. Some of them are linguistics; others include extra-linguistic. So, words in two different languages are not always equivalent. Thus, Baker (1992) expresses that "non-equivalent at word level means that the target language has no direct equivalent for a word which occurs in the source text; the type and level of difficulty posed can vary tremendously depending on the nature of non-equivalence." (p.20) so, different kinds of non-equivalence use different strategies and translators should try produce equivalent meaning and effect for the target language recipients. Gutt (1991) states that "the translators produces a receptor language text, the translation, with the intention of communicating to the receptors the same assumptions that the original communicator intended to convey to the original audience." (p. 94) Beekman and Callow (Cited in Gutt, 1991) further emphasis that the naturalness of the target text should be comparable to the naturalness of the source text. As for conveying the meaning of the original message in the translation and for correctness of translation, Nida and Taber (1969) maintain that "correctness must be determined by the extent to which the average reader for which a translation is intended will be likely to understand it correctly." (p. 1) Therefore, purposes of translators are also important in choosing translation strategies for various words. The purpose of this study was to take into account law terms and their equivalents in Persian language and also is to classify and identify the different strategies which are used by Persian translators in the process of translating the law terms from English into Persian.

A. Terminology Management

Considering terminology and terms Cabré (2003) argues that:

Terminology presupposes a need for all the activities related to their presentation and transfer of specialized knowledge such as technical translation, the teaching of languages for specific purposes, technical writing, the teaching of special subjects, documentation, special language engineering, language planning, technical standardization, etc. We note that all professions dealing with special knowledge need terminology. This is obvious: terms, in their widest sense, are the units which most efficiently manipulate the knowledge of a particular subject. (p. 182)

Cabré (2003) also mentions that terminology is a set of applications in as far as it allows the development of products specifically intended to satisfy needs. The important characteristic of such products is their appropriateness; a terminological application must be oriented towards the solution of specific needs and therefore it must take into account its recipients and the activities they plan to carry out by means of such a specific application. (p. 182-183)

Cabré expresses that the central object of terminology are terminological units including units of knowledge, units of language and units of communication. According to Cabré (2003) from the perspective of their linguistic component, terminological units fulfill, among others, the following conditions:

(a) They are lexical units, either through their lexical origin or a process of lexicalization; (b) They can have lexical and syntactic structure; (c) As lexical structures they exploit all the devices of word formation and the processes of

acquiring new units; (d) Formally, they may coincide with units belonging to general discourse; (e) Regarding word class, they occur as nouns, verbs, adjectives or adverbs or nominal, verbal, adjectival or adverbial structures; (f) They belong to one of the broad semantic categories: entities, events, properties or relations; these categories with their own subcategories do not necessarily exclude each other and should therefore be rather considered as semantic values; (g) Their meaning is discreet within a special subject; (h) Their meaning is extracted from the set of information of a lexical unit; (i) Their syntactic combinability is restricted on the basis of the combinatory principles of all lexical items of a language. (p. 184)

Cabré(1999) also expresses that:

A general theory of terminology considers terminology to be an interdisciplinary but autonomous subject at the service of scientific and technical disciplines in which the nature of concepts, conceptual relations, the relationships between terms and concepts and assigning terms to concepts are of prime importance. (p. 7)

Based on Cabré "terminology is closely linked to the special subject fields."(p. 9) As technology develops so does the terminology. Thus, Cabré puts it "terminology is at the service of science, technology and communications; as a results, it must work within the limits of providing a service to other disciplines." (p. 9) She states that as new concepts are created, terminology is subject to change too. Bononno (2000) considers different theories regarding terminology. According to Bononno "modern theories of terminology are based upon a clear distinction between the general lexicon, the words we use in every day speech to express a full range of feelings and ideas, and special languages, subsets of the global language stock that are generally used for communication among experts." (p. 649) From Bononno's point of view, terminology is a field of study which is restricted to special languages. Thus, concepts, terms, and definition comprise the main components of any terminology. In his words, terminology refers to "the terms in a specific field of knowledge", and also to the "systematic arrangement of concepts within a special language." (p. 651) L'Hommeet al. (2003) also proposes an exhaustive definition as for terminology. They state that terminology is a field "with a growing number of applications in all spheres where language and specialized knowledge have to be organized and managed together." (p. 160)According to Sager (Cited in Wright, et al., 2001) "good practice in terminology management requires that terminological information no longer be extracted from previous lists or by individual searches, but rather from a body of relevant textual material called a corpus." (p. 762) He mentions that such textual corpus covers texts containing all the information produced and required by a group of subject specialists.

In connection with computer terminology and jargon, Corbolante, et al. (Cited in Wright et al., 2001) reiterates "the continuous development of computer technology also results in the introduction of new concepts that require naming and consequent equivalents in the target languages, which means that terminologists and translators must coin new terms more frequently than ordinarily common in other, more stable domains." (p. 516) They also add that "computer jargon is used long with acronyms and neologisms, and general terms often acquire new meanings in the computer texts." (p. 517) Thus, based on Corbolante, et.al "when a software application is transferred from the SL into different target languages (TLs), it might also require considerable degree of localization." (p. 517) So, according to their views, there are many problems such as language- and culture-specific problems, and technical requirements that should be resolved in translating law terminology from SL to TL.

B. Lexicology and Terminology

According to Cabré (1999) "if lexicology deals with all the words of a language, terminology only focuses on the words belonging to either a specific field (such as physics, chemistry,…) or to a professional activity (such as business, industry, sports, etc.)" (p. 35) In relation to the basic units of lexicology and terminology, Cabré states that "lexicology deals with the study of words, whereas terminology deals with terms." (p. 35)

Hartmann, et al. (1998) also distinguishes between terminological lexicography and general lexicography. From their view, the domain of terminological lexicography is technical terminology, specialist texts, special- purpose expert users, whereas the general lexicography is related to general vocabulary, non-specialist texts, and multi-purpose general users.

C. Words and Terms

Jackson (2002) defines words from two perspectives: writing and speech. According to him, in writing words refer to "a sequence of letters bounded by spaces; in speech words are composed of sounds, syllables, and they follow one another in the flow of speech without spaces or pauses." (p. 1) He identifies two classes of words namely large class and small class. The items in large class are nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs; the small class also consists of pronouns, determiners, prepositions, and conjunctions. Jackson adds that the large class is dynamic but the small class is static and is used to link the members of the large class in making sentences. To identify an element of a word, Jackson uses the term morpheme and states that "words are composed of morphemes." (p. 8) Thus, in Jackson's standpoint, in cases which words consist of one morpheme, they are called 'simple' words and if they have more than one morpheme, they make compounds.

According to Hartmann and James (1998) a term is defined as "a word, phrase, or alphanumeric symbol used by the practitioners of a specialized technical subject to designate a concept." (p. 138)

Thus, Cabré(1999) differentiates between terms and words. She phrases that

"terms and words are similar and different at the same time; a word is a unit described by a set of systematic linguistic characteristics and has the property of referring to an element in reality, a term is a unit with similar characteristics used in a special domain, from this standpoint, a word of a special subject field would be a term." (p. 35)

Kageura (2002) also states that terms are concrete linguistic objects in a specialized discourse. From his standpoint a term is "a lexical unit consisting of one or more than one word which represents a concept inside a domain.' (p. 9) Kageura views terminology as vocabulary related to a specific domain.

According to Cabré (1999) from a linguistic point of view, a word is a unit characterized by having a phonetic (and graphic) form, a simple or complex morphological structure, grammatical features, and a meaning that describes the class to which a specific object belongs, a term also has the same features. She also states that "words are not just linguistic units that can be described solely from the standpoint of the system of the language; they are also communicative (pragmatic) units that identify speakers by the way they use words in specific expressive or communicative situations." (p. 35) Cabré reiterates that pragmatics is the major factor that differentiates terms from words. From her standpoint, "pragmatically, terms and words differ with respect to their users, the situations in which they are used, the topics they communicate, and the types of discourse in which they usually occur." (p. 36) As mentioned earlier, Cabré differentiates between users of words and users of terms. Based on her, users of words are all speakers of language, but those of terms are the professionals that deal with relevant subject field. Cabré says that "words are used in widely varying situations, whereas the use of terms of a special subject field is usually limited to the professional circles." (p. 36) Thus, based on Cabré's words, the purpose of terminology is to identify and name the concepts belonging to a specific subject.

D. Word Formation Processes

Jackson (2002) enumerates some methods of making new words: (a)compounds which are formed by joining two or more root morphemes into a single lexeme, (b) derivatives which are formed by addition of a prefix or suffix to a lexeme, (c) acronyms which are formed by using initial letters of a phrase, (d) loan words are borrowed from another language. Jackson also states that there are two basic ways that a language can increase its vocabulary, one of them "is to use the material (morphemes) available in the language already and to recombine it in new ways", the other is "to import a word from another language, a process called 'borrowing'." (p. 11) Yule (2006) also identifies a broad category of word formation processes: (a) coinage: by this he means the invention of new terms in the language, (b) borrowing: taking words from other languages. Yule states that this process is the most common process in English language. According to him, loan translation or calque are also types of borrowing, (c) compounding: two words combine with each other and produce a single word, (d) blending: the beginning of one word is joined to the end of the other word, (e) clipping: Yule expresses that clipping occurs when "a word of more than one syllable is reduced to a shorter form." (p. 55) (f) backformation: it means that a word of one type (part of speech) is changed into another type. Yule also introduces hypocorism as a particular type of backformation, in which larger words are reduced to a single syllable, then –y or –ie are added to their end, (g) conversion: a change in grammatical functions of a word, (h) acronyms: Yule puts it they are produced "from the initial letters of a set of other words." (p. 57) (i) derivational: are those words which are produced by the addition of affixes to the root morphemes. Jackson (2002) also has referred to borrowing, compounds, acronyms and derivational in his categorization of word formation processes the same as those which are referred to by Yule.

E. Technical Translation

Byrne (2006) defines technical translation as "a communicative service provided in response to a very definite demand for technical information which is easily accessible (in terms of comprehensibility, clarity and speed of delivery)." (p.11) According to Kingscott (Cited in Byrne, 2006) "technical translation accounts for 90% of the world's total translation output each year."(p. 2) Byrne enumerates some misconceptions as for technical translations which are as following:

(a)Technical translation includes economics, laws, business, etc.. In reality "technical" means precisely that, something to do with technology and technological texts; (b) Technical translation is all about terminology. This particular misconception is not unique to those uninvolved in technical translation but many of those people within technical translation hold this belief. Pinchuck (Cited in Byrne, 2006, p. 3) for example, "claims that vocabulary is the most significant feature of technical text. Byrne argues this is true in so far as terminology is, perhaps, the most immediately noticeable aspect of a technical text."

(c) Style does not matter in technical translation. This is another misconception for technical translation. Byrne (2006) puts it:

If we look at style from a literary point of view, then it does not have any place in technical translation. But if we regard style as the way we write things, the words we choose and the way we construct sentences, then style is equally, if not more, important in technical translation than in other areas because it is therefore a reason, not simply for artistic or entertainment reasons. (p. 4)

(d) Technical translation is not creative; it is simply a reproductive transfer process. Byrne (2006) states that for information to be conveyed appropriately and effectively, technical translators have to find creative linguistic solutions to ensure successful transfer of information.

(e) You need to be an expert in a highly specialized field. Byrne (2006) asserts the reality is that technical translators cannot be specialized in all subject areas. So, he summarizes the essential areas of expertise for technical translators: "subject knowledge, writing skills, research skills, knowledge of genres and text types, and pedagogical skills." (p. 6)

Finally (f) Technical translation is all about conveying specialized information. This is another misconception regarding technical translation which is not true. Byrne (2006) points out that "technical translation involves detailed knowledge of the source and target cultures, target language conventions, text type and genre conventions, register, style, detailed understanding of the audiences; whether translators realize it or not, an understanding of how people learn and use information." (pp. 6-7) Byrne also characterizes "technical translation at the basic level on the basis of: subject matter, type of language, and purpose." (p. 8) He distinguishes between scientific and technical translation and states that they both have specialized terminology. So, from Byrne's standpoint "the purpose of technical translation is, therefore, to present new technical information to a new audience, not to reproduce the source text, per se, or reflect its style or language." (p.11)

F. Models of Translation Evaluation

Translation evaluation is an issue that many translation scholars considered it and introduced different model for evaluating translated texts. This section is an attempt to present some of these models:

Melis and Albir (2001) argues that in translation assessment , objects, types, functions, aims and means of assessment should be defined clearly. They take into account three areas of evaluation in translations: (a) the evaluation of published translations, consisting of comparing a source text and a single translation of it or comparing a source text with its several translations; (b) evaluation of professional translators' work, either for the purpose of research, or teaching purposes; and (c) evaluation of translation teaching, with focus on correcting errors and translation problems. Thus, from their point of view, two concepts should be taken into account in translation evaluation: (a) translation problems such as linguistic problems, extralinguistic, transfer problems, psychophysiological and professional problems relating to translation brief; (b) translation errors namely related to the difference between product or process errors of translation, between the source text (intralingual errors) or target text(interlingual errors), between functional errors or absolute errors, and finally the difference between systematic and random errors. In assessing translation, Farahzad (1992) considers two approaches: holistic approach and objective scoring in which accuracy, appropriateness, cohesion, and style are of prime importance. Melis and Albir (2001) identify three ways for assessing translation: (a) intuitive assessment which is subjective and impressionistic and does not apply explicit criteria; (b) partial assessment assessing only some of the translation problems and is employed in teaching context and evaluating professional translators; (c) reasoned assessment which is objective and using scales for different types of errors in translation. They highlight that translation assessment should apply explicit and objective criteria, determine the seriousness of errors, find good solutions for the translation problems, and be flexible in assessment. Melis and Albir (2001) mention that "evaluation criteria may change, depending on the period, aesthetic taste, literary conventions, and the prevailing translation method." (p. 273) Waddington (2001) also introduces a model for translation quality assessment based on error analysis in which he distinguishes between major and minor errors in translation; the other method proposed by him is holistic method considering translation as a whole. According to his model of assessment, translated text is assessed by the researcher and two raters. Goff-Kfouri (2005) further proposes general impression, error count and analytical grid as methods which are used in translation assessment. Regarding translation evaluation, Sainz (1992) present a model which is student-centered and consists of five stages: (a) development stage which considers and anticipates student's need; (b) implementation stage in which the correction chart is given to the students; (c) monitoring, the teacher monitor student's translation to make adjustment; (d) integration, in this stage teacher notes down the types of mistakes of a particular translation; and (e) self-monitoring, at this stages students check their own progress. Some of these models are similar to each other's to some extent, for instance, the model of Melis and Albir (2001) is similar to Beeby's model (2000) of translation assessment which is based on points given for specific translation problems such as extralinguistic knowledge, cultural transfer, lexical errors, syntactic difference, etc..

G. Research Question

What is the most frequent strategy in translation of technical law terms in the process of translating from English into Persian?

H. Theoretical Framework

Baker (1992) proposes strategies in the cases of non-equivalence at word level; thus, the strategies based on Baker are as follows: (a) Translation by a more general word; (b) Translation by a more neutral /less expressive word; (c) Translation by cultural substitution; (d) Translation by a loan word or loan word plus explanation; (e) Translation by paraphrase using a related word; (f) Translation by paraphrase using unrelated words; (g) Translation by omission; (h)Translation by illustration.

II. METHODOLOGY

To obtain the aim, the intended books were studied from the beginning to the end, and instances of law technical terms were identified at random and compared with their Persian counterparts in translated texts and also their equivalence in law technical dictionary and the extracted instances were classified based on the Baker's translation strategies. Then, the percentage was calculated to see which one was used with the highest frequency. The three law texts and their Persian counterparts consist mainly the materials of the study: (a) *A level and as level law,* by Martin Hint (2000), (b)*General Course Studying of English Law (GCSE law)*, John William,9th edition(2005), and(c)*Law Texts*, G.Eftekhar (2001)

Findings of the Study

TABLE 1.
FREQUENCY OF TRANSLATION STRATEGIES IN THE CORPUS

Translation Strategies	Frequency
Equivalence	**150**
general word	**40**
Loan words+ paraphrase	**30**
specific word	**20**
paraphrase using a related word	**10**
paraphrase using unrelated word	**5**
Omission	**5**

As table 1indictaes equivalence strategy has the highest frequency (150) and paraphrase using related words and omission strategies (5) have the lowest in number.

Figure 1. Percentage of Translation Strategies in the Corpus

Based on figure 1 equivalence contains the highest percentage (57.69%) and paraphrase using unrelated words and omission strategies (1.92%) comprised of the lowest one in comparison with others strategies.

III. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

Based on the purpose of the study, and research findings, equivalence was the most frequent translation procedure used by the Persian translators. It contains the highest percentage (57.69%) and paraphrase and omission strategies (1.92%) carried the lowest percentage in the corpus. Then, the answer is provided to the research question of the study and equivalence strategy was used with most frequency in this case study.

IV. DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

Research findings indicated that equivalence was used with the highest percentage. Thus, it may be because of these reasons: (a) since these texts were written and translated for specific readers, i.e. those who are specialized in law field, Persian translators also preferred to apply equivalence strategy in most cases; (b) It seems that translators wanted to present communicative translation rather than semantic one. Therefore, they have applied equivalence. It is also worth mentioning that in those cases which law terms have not equivalent in Persian language, the Persian translators preferred to use more general words and use paraphrase in their translation with highest frequency rather than applying other strategies. The research attempted to identify and classify the most frequent strategy which the Persian translators have used in translating the technical law terms into Persian. Considering different translation procedures, it can be concluded that the translators apply different procedures in translating from one language into another one. Therefore, the results show that the strategies used by the translation in translating technical words of law are not due to the chance. Hence, the equivalence strategy has the highest percentage which shows that in translating technical words from English into Persian language this strategy is used with the highest frequency by the translators.

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A Study of Graduate Thesis Writing Course for English Undergraduates

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Abstract—**Graduate thesis is an important form to assess students' comprehensive ability. But the questionnaires carried among 36 supervisors and 167 students in the School of Foreign Languages of University of Jinan showed that a number of problems existed in the process and result of thesis writing. The discrepancies in teachers' and students' beliefs and the problems in the graduate thesis writing course are the key causes of the low quality of students' theses. The author of this paper reformed the graduate thesis writing course by doubling teaching hours and adding new contents, namely, the appreciation of academic papers published in journals of high prestige, the revision of former graduate theses, and the writing of academic papers. Results showed that students improved significantly in collecting and using materials as well as language and format.**

Index Terms—**graduate thesis, the teaching of thesis writing, English undergraduates**

I. INTRODUCTION

Graduate thesis is a necessary condition for Bachelor's degree. In China, *The English Teaching Syllabus for Chinese Higher Education* prescribes that "Graduate thesis is an important form to check students' comprehensive competence and to assess their study performance." The thesis subscribed for Bachelor's degree is an important ingredient in undergraduate education and a significant step in college students' final academic stage. The purpose and significance of writing a thesis lie in developing students' comprehensive ability and rigorous scientific approach, enabling them to master scientific research method and raising their awareness of originality. The *Syllabus* declares that "for English undergraduates, their thesis should have smooth wording, clear thought, substantial contents and innovative idea". However, due to students' lack of proper attitudes towards the thesis, their limited linguistic knowledge and academic competence, as well as supervisors' inadequate instruction, the improper teaching contents and methods of thesis writing course and school's lax management, etc., their theses haven't reach the demand set by the *Syllabus*.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Papers on English undergraduates' thesis writing can be classified into three kinds. The first kind is research report (Mu Fengying, 2001; Sun Wenkang, 2004; Yan Jinglan & Ni Wei, 2005; Lu Wenjun, 2008). The second kind is exploration into the administration, assessment and specific links in the instruction of thesis writing (Yu Manjun, 2001; Li Jiayun, 1999; Huang Xiaoping, 2002; Li Ping, 2003). The third kind is the introduction to the instructive strategies and writing skills (Song Fei, 2001; Wang Guihe, 2002; You Xiaonan, 2004; Cheng Xiaoqiang, 2010; Zhao Pingjing, 2012).

Though these papers probed into thesis writing from different angles of view, they agreed on a common point--- the cultivation of students' competence of originality and academy. While how to improve the quality of students' thesis through graduate thesis writing course has not been explored. Thus, this paper will discuss how to improve the quality of students' theses through reading, evaluating, revising and writing academic papers.

III. RESEARCH DESIGN

A. Research Questions

Three questions were to be answered in this research:

a. What are the problems in English majors' graduate theses?

b. What are the teachers' and students' beliefs in the writing and instruction of graduate theses?

c. Some practical activities such as reading, evaluating, revising and writing academic papers have been added into graduate thesis writing course. Can the new teaching contents and method effectively improve the quality of students' theses?

B. Research Procedures

1. Questionnaires

a. Before the teaching experiment, a questionnaire was carried among 36 supervisors in the School of Foreign Languages of University of Jinan who have ever instructed English undergraduates' thesis writing. The questions are

concerned with the problems in students' graduate theses and teachers' beliefs in thesis instruction, including the significance of thesis writing, requirements, instructing procedures and suggestions for instruction, etc.. There are multiple choices and open questions in the questionnaire.

b. Before the experiment, a questionnaire was carried out among 167 seniors who had finished their graduate theses. It aims to investigate students' beliefs in thesis writing, the difficulties they met in the process of thesis writing and the reward they got from thesis writing.

The analysis of teachers' questionnaires revealed the following 6 problems.

1) Before 2008, it was the students who decided the topics for themselves, which reflected that students are the subjects of the study. However, the topics they chose were usually improper—some topics were too broad to give sufficient direction to students' research and usually resulted in a superficial treatment of the subject, while some others were too narrow to yield adequate information, thus limiting students' ability to reach a valid conclusion. Some topics chosen by students were outmoded, that is, they had already been extensively and deeply explored in academic field. With their current ability, students could hardly make further exploration. Some topics chosen by students were similar to others, that is, many students chose the same topic, and had similar research angle, approach, literatures and finally drew similar conclusions, lacking originality. To tackle the above problem, the school decided to let the teachers choose topics for students from 2009. Teachers chose some topics and then the topics were assigned to students randomly. This way of choosing topics violated the principle that students should have the decision-making right in their study.

2) Students didn't have their own ideas and thoughts, there was no substantial content in their theses, only general argument. A large number of students didn't have the competence of analyzing and solving problems. As a result, they either piled up literatures in their theses, or simply loaded their theses with quotations of others' ideas.

3) Four problems existed in material collection. Firstly, the materials collected by students were outmoded, which could be seen from the years in bibliographies. Secondly, some materials were not relative to their theses and were not adequately authentic. Thirdly, students didn't make their choice in using materials. As a result, the materials either could not fully support their viewpoint or completely buried their own views. Fourthly, the research design was improper in that most theses were based on literature review, instead of being supported by first hand material, which made the theses less persuasive. Students did not know how to select information they need from reference materials. They lacked the ability to analyze and evaluate materials.

4) Many students did not know how to write those typical and compulsory parts of a thesis like abstract, introduction, literature review, conclusion and acknowledgement. Some students' abstracts merely introduced the structure of their theses; there was too much background statement in introduction, which led to the contraction of substantial contents; literature review was mainly composed of other researchers' views, without proper analysis, evaluation or summary; instead of briefly summarizing what has been stated in the main body of their theses, some students simply repeated the sentences in the main body without making any necessary change, nor did they point out the recommendation for further practice; in acknowledgement, some students mechanically applied others' pattern, without presenting definite object and reasons of acknowledgement.

5) Graduate thesis is a special form of argumentation, so the different chapters of it should be written in logical order centering on the theme. However, many students did not constitute their theses into an integral whole with proper devices of coherence. To be specific, different chapters were loosely connected, the structure was improper, the key point did not stand out, some chapters were hollow, the argumentation was verbose without focal point. There was no appropriate cohesive device between sentences.

6) The problems in the language of thesis are as follows: the mood was too subjective, the language was not formal enough, there was mechanical translation, Chinglish and inappropriate choice of words. The problems in the form of thesis lied in the following aspects: some students did not offer the origin of some quotations, some origins of quotations in the main body did not correspond with the references in bibliography, the form of bibliography was not standard in that there were many mistakes in the use of blank space, row spacing, style of calligraphy and punctuation marks. All this indicates that students needed instruction in the standardization of language and form.

In addition, students usually did not initiatively revise and polish their thesis after finishing the first draft. Instead, they passively waited for the teacher to revise their theses. As a result, the same mistake reappeared in their second even third draft even if the teacher had pointed them out in the first draft. Thus, the instruction of thesis which should have been a pleasant process of negotiation, discussion and benefiting, turned up to be a teachers' suffering process. Students also didn't get improvement to the utmost degree in writing thesis.

According to the analysis of teachers' and students' questionnaires, their respective beliefs in thesis writing and instruction were compared in the following aspects.

1) In the purpose and significance of writing thesis, teachers and students hold different views. Teachers unanimously agree on the necessity of writing graduation thesis. They think that writing thesis is a comprehensive form to assess students' study in undergraduate stage. Besides, it can help students to learn some knowledge and skills of doing academic research, which is helpful for their future work. However, students hold different views. Some of them believe that it is insignificant to write graduate thesis. A large percentage of students who think it significant believe that it is only useful for those who will be engaged in scientific research, or it is only used to assess students' English proficiency. Most of them didn't realize the true significance of writing graduate thesis.

2) As for whether originality should be the criterion of assessing thesis, teachers and students also do not have consistent opinion. Most teachers believe that a graduation thesis should have a proper topic and substantial content, but given the undergraduate students' limited knowledge and skills, originality should not be a compulsory requirement for them. Still some other teachers suggest that those excellent students who have the command of solid and extensive knowledge should make some breakthrough. Most of the students attach importance to originality, but they think it difficult for them to achieve it due to their limited competence. Although some students have the will of exploration and want to pursue original ideas, they usually fail due to their limited range and depth of knowledge as well as inadequate research method. Consequently, students either begin ambitiously but finish with poor end or are terrified at the thought of writing thesis and muddle through their work.

3) In the method and significance of collecting and selecting materials, teachers universally agreed that this can check students' comprehensive ability. Through collecting and selecting materials, students are able to study independently and master rigorous scientific approach. However, students did not know how to collect materials efficiently because they hadn't had the experience of writing academic papers, and teachers' relative instruction in class is too abstract and impractical.

4) In the importance of the outline, approximately one third of the students deemed it very necessary, which suggests that many students were not aware of its importance. Although teachers repeatedly emphasize that outline is an important link in thesis writing, and it is a macro design of the thesis based on extensive reading, proper summary and sorting out of materials, some students still hand in their first draft, without writing an outline, or just made an outline casually, which added difficulty to the teachers' work.

5) In thesis revision, only 20% students revise their scripts for more than three times, which indicates that most students didn't realize the significance of revising thesis. Many students would not make big change after finishing their first drafts. They shift the task of revising contents, polishing language and perfecting form onto the teachers. However, teachers thought that since they have great working pressure, their chief work is to help students to make their theses complete in structure, scientific in content and logic in argumentation, while whether the format is standard and the language is correct and smooth are to be judged by students themselves.

All these discrepancies in teachers' and students' beliefs explain to some extent the causes of the problems in thesis writing

Additionally, the following problems in the graduate thesis writing course are also key causes of the low quality of students' theses. In School of Foreign Languages of University of Jinan, the graduate thesis writing course is only set for 8 weeks among senior students. That is, they only receive 16 period (totally 12 hours) formal teaching of how to write graduate thesis. The course centered on teacher's instruction. Although it covered various contents of writing thesis (the general process of writing graduation thesis, how to choose a proper topic, how to collect materials, how to outline the thesis, how to write introduction, conclusion and literature review, the language of academic paper, etc.), students did not have the opportunity and time to practice. Consequently, teacher's instruction appeared to be hollow and abstract and students' interest was not raised and their initiative was not stimulated due to the lack of interaction between teacher and students. The effect of teaching is, of course, very poor.

2. Teaching practice

In 2013, the author of this paper set graduate thesis writing course among senior students. The time of the course was doubled into 16 weeks, 32 periods. In teaching practice, besides the original teaching contents, three new contents were added, namely, the appreciation of academic papers published in journals of high prestige, the revision of former graduate theses, and the writing of academic papers.

a. The appreciation of academic papers published in journals of high prestige: Four academic papers respectively probing into topics in literary studies, language and linguistics, applied linguistics, translation studies were chosen as the objects of appreciation. They are On Alice Munro's "Face" (Zhou Yi, 2011), A Contrastive Study of English and Chinese Hyponymy (Li Dejun, 2011), The Development of Chinese Undergraduates' Motivation for English Learning in their Junior and Senior Years: Findings from a Longitudinal Study in Five Universities (Zhou Yan and Gao Yihong, 2011), The Intralingual and Interlingual Translation of Film Subtitles (Zheng Baoxuan, 2011). These four papers have relatively popular topics, which are of interest to students. The title was given to the students before class, who were asked to find the paper and read it carefully. Then in class, the papers were explained, appreciated or even critically analyzed from the seven aspects of choosing topic, abstract, key words, introduction, main body, conclusion and bibliography. The purpose is to make students recognize the principle of choosing topic for academic papers, get them familiar with the discourse pattern, and inform them of the method and norms of writing academic papers.

b. The revision of the second draft of former graduate theses: Three second drafts of graduate theses written by former seniors were chosen to be revised. In class, students were divided into groups of four. Each group discussed and answered the following questions raised by the teacher.

1) Is the topic of originality? Are the questions significant?

2) Is the title proper or not? Does it cover the most important information about the study?

3) Is the abstract well-written or not? Does it include research questions, research methodology and the major findings? Are the keywords well-selected?

4) Please check the headings at different levels. Are these headings logically linked? Are they in the same type of

grammatical structure?

5) How about the introduction? Does it address the topic directly? Does it attract the reader?

6) Does the literature review clearly explain why this study is necessary? Does the literature review provide the reader with sufficient background information to understand this reported study?

7) Are there any implications in the concluding section? Are the implications directly related to the results?

8) Is the paper well-organized? Are the paragraphs naturally and closely connected?

9) Are there any informal and colloquial words, Chinglish, imbalanced sentences or other grammatical mistakes?

10) Does the thesis meet the criteria in format set by the school, for example, size of words, blank space, punctuation marks, especially the order of references in bibliography? Are the marks of references and the page numbers of journals correctly presented according to the standard?

Students were required to point out the problems in the choosing of topic, the writing of abstract, key words, introduction, main body, conclusion, bibliography and language, and then revise the thesis.

c. All the students wrote a paper under the course teacher's instruction in the procedures of choosing a topic, collecting materials and writing the final draft. Group members revised each other's papers and then handed them in as the final achievement of the term to be assessed by the teacher.

1) Choosing a topic: Teacher and students decided a topic in class through discussion. After voting by a show of hands, among literary studies, language and linguistics, applied linguistics and translation studies, students chose translation studies as their general research field. Then based on teacher's direction and students' discussion, students personally went through a process of narrowing the subject from the general field (translation studies) to specific subject (English-Chinese translation), to narrowed subject (techniques of English-Chinese translation), then to a specific topic (the C-E translation of university introduction website), and finally to a narrowed specific topic: On the C-E Translation of University Introduction Website from the Perspective of Skopos Theory. This is a proper topic for the practice of writing academic paper in that it is relative to students' major, it has a certain theoretical depth and research significance, it is within students reach and of interest to them and there are adequate relative materials to be referred to.

2) Collecting materials: The teacher spent one period introducing to students the functions of the school library and how to retrieve literature efficiently from internet. A multi-media classroom was used so that students' practical skill can be enhanced through on-the-spot guidance and demonstration.

Then the teacher presented different ways of collecting materials and their advantages and disadvantages. For example, theoretical materials should be searched from professional books, dictionaries and encyclopedia, etc. which can ensure the authenticity of the materials. But those materials are usually aged, so journals and internet resources are necessary if students want to find out the latest trend in the study of that subject. Therefore, students need to master how to efficiently make use of data base in the library and internet, i.e. how to skim through and quickly find out relative chapters, how to judge the authenticity and level of the material. After collecting materials, teacher should tell students how to select materials. Students need to analyze and evaluate the materials, use them with a critical view, so that they can make breakthrough and have creative thought. Otherwise, their views can only be buried among various materials. In addition, students were encouraged to collect first-hand materials and analyze them with scientific method, which can strengthen not only the originality but also persuasiveness of their theses.

Then based on the topic they had chosen, teacher and students discussed what materials to be collected. The following 6 kinds of materials are the result of discussion:

a) the general background knowledge related to the topic (the C-E translation of university introduction website and its problems);

b) the theoretical background related to the topic (materials concerning Skopos Theory);

c) materials reflecting the current development of the topic;

d) important argumentations and research methods which stimulated and influenced the question for study;

e) argumentations and facts which can support the author's point of view;

f) the most original and direct first-hand materials: the Chinese and English versions of university introduction

Students were required to collect not less than 15 pieces of materials after class and read them carefully.

3) Stating and outlining the thesis: After collecting and reading enough materials, students began to state and outline their theses. The teacher checked students' outlines to ensure that what they are going to write is relative to the subject and that the framework is proper, different parts are closely connected and ideas are arranged logically. Ten students' outlines were chosen by the teacher to be commented on in class from three aspects: whether the language was clear and concise; whether the outline can present the arrangement of the thesis; whether the outline can serve as a guidance to make the readers grasp the author's train of thought and main thesis.

4) Revising the outlining and write first draft: After revising their outline and thesis according to teacher's advice, students began to write the first draft. Then the teacher chose ten students' drafts and commented on them in class from the aspects of structure, application of materials, language and format.

5) Peer editing: Students revised their theses among their group members based on the following questions: Is the thesis scientific? Are there sufficient grounds of argument? Are the different parts logically linked and well-organized? Are the quotations presented in standard forms? Etc.

6) Writing and revising the second draft: While revising the second draft among group members, students should pay

attention to language style, sentence pattern, coherence, emphasizing devices, grammatical mistakes, word usage, note and bibliography.

7) The final draft:

The processes of collecting and reading materials as well as writing thesis were done outside class, while those activities which need group discussion and peer work were carried out in class, with the teacher offering necessary instruction and help.

All these done, students handed in all the written materials to the teacher, including outline, first draft, second draft and final draft, which were assessed by the teacher and given a score as the final result of this course.

IV. RESULT AND DISCUSSION

50 theses written by students who graduated in 2012 and 50 by those graduated in 2013 were randomly chosen to be compared and analyzed. Students who graduated in 2013 had attended the course of graduate thesis writing taught by the author of this paper, with the above mentioned reform being carried out in the course.

Two teachers who have instructed thesis writing for years were invited to assess and give scores to the theses, and the two teachers' average score was taken as the final score of the thesis. The teachers gave four scores for one thesis in choosing topic, collecting and using materials, arrangement, language and format. (Is the topic a student chose original or not? Are the materials sufficient and properly quoted? Is the thesis logically arranged, with adequate argument and evidence as well as deep analysis and substantial contents? Are the language and format correct and formal?) Table 1 makes a comparison in the four norms between the two years' graduates.

TABLE 1:
COMPARISON IN THE FOUR NORMS BETWEEN THE TWO YEARS' GRADUATES

students	Choosing topic	Collecting and using materials	arrangement	Language and format
2012	63.9	75.2	73.5	79.0
2013	71.8	85.4	76.2	88.4
2013 vs 2012 percentage raised	7.9%	13.6%	3.7%	11.9%

Table 1 suggests that students graduated in 2013 had better competence in all the four aspects compared with those graduated in 2012. They improved more significantly in collecting and using materials, language and format. Compared with students graduated in 2012, students graduated in 2013 improved by 7.9% in choosing topic, 13.6% in collecting and using materials, 3.7% in arrangement and 11.9% in language and format, which prove the effectiveness of the reformed thesis instruction.

However, some problems can still be found. Firstly, students did not make significant progress in arrangement, only improved by 3.7%. This may be explained from two aspects: 1) Due to the limited class hour of the thesis writing course, teacher's instruction could not cover every aspect in discourse. 2) The competence of discourse arrangement needs a long-term training, and a short term could not get satisfied effect. Secondly, although students made progress in choosing topic, their scores were still not high, which suggests that students' competence of originality can be improved through thesis writing course, but it was only improved to a limited degree, because it takes a long period for students' awareness and competence of originality to be raised.

V. THOUGHT AND SUGGESTION

From the above analysis, we can draw a conclusion that a thesis of high quality needs not only students' solid specialized knowledge and excellent writing skills, but also teacher's instruction and training in writing norms, originality awareness and research competence. Graduate thesis is an important form to assess students' comprehensive ability, the quality of which needs co-efforts of teachers, students and various departments of school. Reform can be carried out in the following aspects:

Firstly, strengthen the instruction of thesis writing, work out effective ways to solve the problems in students' theses, attach importance to scientific research method, encourage teachers to put into more energy. Besides, encourage students to do empirical research, which can not only add originality to the thesis but also foster students' research ability.

Secondly, university and department should take appropriate measures, clearly define the requirements for thesis quality and inform students of the proportions of different links of thesis writing in its final assessment. Moreover, strict rules should be formulated that students whose theses do not meet the demands, should postpone their thesis defense or even deprive them of the opportunity to defend their theses.

Thirdly, in some theoretical courses such as linguistics, lexicology, stylistics, etc., teachers should foster students' interest in scientific research, lead students to do some minor research, so that they can form scientific research awareness and make good preparation for graduate thesis.

Graduate thesis involves various factors, including administrative management, teachers' instruction and students' writing, in which scientific management is the prerequisite for the high quality of graduate thesis, effective instruction is

the guarantee to improve its quality and students are the subject to compose it.

Graduate thesis is a long-term work, which plays a significant role in cultivating students' creativity, practical ability, rigorous style of work and serious attitude to science. Only by consistent strengthening and perfecting the management system, renewing teaching concept, reforming teaching contents, methods and pattern, improving teachers' and students' comprehensive quality, can the quality of graduate thesis be improved.

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The Nature of Accessibility to Universal Grammar by EFL Learners

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Abstract—As it is mentioned by Chomsky, languages are ruled by a set of universal grammars which are accessible before the age of puberty. In this paper, an attempt is made to find out various theories regarding universal principles underlying the language used by L2 learners. In this case, there is not much information at hand about the universal constraints used by L2 learners. To this goal, a review of the literature regarding universal grammar (UG) application is utilized to investigate the accessibility to UG in L2 learners. There are four views toward L2 UG accessibility; 1. The Full Transfer Full Access Hypothesis; 2. The Minimal Trees Hypothesis; 3. The Valueless Features Hypothesis; and 4. Full Access (without Transfer). The flow writing backers that there are basic slips shared by numerous EFL learners which make scientists consider whether UG standards are pertinent to a dialect after the pubescence. In like manner, there are a few requirements discernible in the creation of grown-up EFL learners which may be taken as proof for the operation of Universal Grammar. Then again, it is not clear how EFL learners have admittance to general classifications which is the subject of thought in this paper.

Index Terms—accessibility, universal grammar, EFL, syntax

I. INTRODUCTION

As it is mentioned in the literature of second language, UG is built based on learnability theory. The definition is that the minor and abstract knowledge obtained by native speakers cannot be explained by the input they get from the environment. As it is related to L2 acquisition, learners are engaging in a similar issue like L1 speakers. Moreover, L2 learners are encountered with a logical problem of language acquisition, in that some abstract, complex and minor features of structure that are underdetermined by the L2 input (Schwartz & Sprouse 2000; White 1985). If it comes out that the L2 learner learns subtle properties that could not have been received from the input, this is strongly a harbinger of the principles of UG constrain L2 performance, just like the situation in L1 acquisition. This is true even in the case that the linguistic competence of L2 learners varies from the linguistic performance of native speakers. In other words, there is no need for L2 learners to achieve the same knowledge as L1 speakers in order to show a poverty-of-the-stimulus issue in L2 acquisition; it is enough to reveal that L2 learners obtain complex and subtle features of language that could not have been received from the L2 environment.

However, L2 learners previously have a tool of using language that is the grammar of the L1. Therefore, it is to say that there is no underdetermination issue: if L2 learners reveal the unconscious knowledge, it is the issue that they are using the L1 structure, rather than on UG principles, as it is mentioned by Bley-Vroman (1990) and Schachter (1990).

Therefore, the strongest issue for the consideration of principles of UG in interlanguage phenomenon can be aroused if learners show knowledge of linguistic elements which is neither learned from L2 environment nor received from the structure of the mother tongue. In other words, the underdetermination problem is not only seen with considering the L2 input but also with consideration to the L1 grammar. Moreover, a learner must also be capable of omitting the possibility of learning with focusing on explicit or deductive instruction or by means of overall learning principles. Considering such reasons, L2 researchers aim to investigate situations in which a poverty of the L2 stimulus happens, where the available L2 structure together with prior grammatical knowledge cannot justify for acquisition unless one hypothesize that interlanguage grammars are limited by UG constrains (Schwartz and Sprouse 2000; White 1989).

To put it in a nutshell, to show convincingly that interlanguage grammars are limited by principles of UG, the following issues should be considered:

i. The input or structure being studied must be underdetermined by the L2 input. That is, it should not be an element that could be learned by the context of the L2 input, involving statistical inference focusing on frequency of occurrence, considering analogy, or on the basis of instruction in the L2 situation.

ii. The input should work differently in the L1 structure and the L2 system. That is, it should be underdetermined by the L1 structure too. So, transfer of surface features can be wiped out as a description of any structure that L2 learners receive.

II. HYPOTHESIS OF ACCESSIBILITY TO UNIVERSAL GRAMMAR IN L2

A. The Full Transfer Full Access Hypothesis

First of all, an analysis of the Full Transfer Full Access Hypothesis related to Schwartz and Sprouse is done (1996), according to them the initial state in L2 learning is a specific grammar. Encountered with accounting for L2 input, students adopt the grammar that they previously acquired, the fixed-state grammar of the mother tongue. In contrary to other researchers who discuss about less than complete involvement of the L1, Schwartz and Sprouse introduce *full transfer* which is defined as the whole L1 grammar shape the initial level. Moreover, it is assumed that changes to the initial grammar can happen; put it in other words, the learner is not limited with representations according to the L1 fixed state. At the point when the L1 linguistic use is not ready to suit components of the L2 information, the learner has admittance to UG includes not existed in the L1, including new parameter settings, utilitarian classes or highlight values, with a specific end goal to lead an examination more legitimate to the L2 data, however this may turn out not to be similar to investigation as that is valid in the local speaker punctuation. The target interlanguage grammars are UG-limited, therefore, the term *full access*. Full transfer is Schwartz and Sprouse's argument about the initial level; full access is their argument about subsequent grammar rebuilding during the process of development.

Two types of evidence are to support the arguments of Full Transfer Full Access: (i) the first one is related to L1 features in the interlanguage grammar; (ii) and the second evidence of restructuring away from the L1 grammar. A research study by Haznedar (2001) corroborates Full Transfer Full Access, giving evidence of an L1-based initial level, as well as subsequent variation to the interlanguage grammar. Haznedar studies spontaneous production data accumulated from a Turkish-speaking child, named Erdem, and who was acquiring English. Erdem was initially studied at the age of 4, after living three months in England. As it is related to the first two months, he had lived almost completely in a Turkish-speaking context at home; hereafter, he passed a month in an English school. Moreover, the data that Haznedar reveals are connected to the initial level.

More recent studies of experimental research advocating Full Transfer Full Access are mentioned by Yuan (1998) and Slabakova (2000). Regarding both of these researches, learners of dissimilar L1s reveal distinctly various behaviour with regard to the linguistic features under study, suggesting various representations, by inference for the sake of various initial states.

To put it in a nutshell, the Full Transfer Full Access Hypothesis provides claims about the initial level, about grammars through development and about the fixed state:

a. The first state in L2 acquisition is the L1 fixed state grammar in its complete form. One needs to contemplate about this as in some way a copy of the L1 grammar, a copy which can be changed without influencing the original state. Although Full Transfer Full Access assumes that the L2 student recreates the interlanguage grammar, the L1 grammar does not get modified in reaction to L2 input (Sorace, 2000).

b. The L2 learner is not restricted to L1-based features. If the L1-based examination does not work for some reason, recreating of the grammar will happen; to put it in other words, L2 input will cause grammar alteration. L2 developmental processes are UG-restricted, with interlanguage grammars are placed within the range restricted by UG.

c. and the Final outcome is that – convergence on a grammar like to that of a native speaker is not supported, because features of the L1 grammar or following interlanguage grammars may cause to analyses of the input that alter from those of native speakers.

B. The Minimal Trees Hypothesis

In this part, we study another aspect on the interlanguage initial level, which is the Minimal Trees Hypothesis of Vainikka and Young-Scholten (1994), which also mentioned that the initial state is a grammar, with early features based on the L1. However, in contrary to Full Transfer Full Access, just part of the L1 grammar is regarded as making the initial state. Under this circumstances, the initial grammar is argued to suffer functional categories altogether, therefore, L1 functional categories will not be show, nor will functional levels from any other source.

One of the attributes of each instructive framework which can have an incredible impact on learners' formative procedure is instructing strategy. Showing system grasps environment and instructive environment. The interactional way of educating with random components takes represent the multifaceted nature of the idea of instructing. The nature of learning is identified with both showing technique and the destinations of the educational program. Through talking, a few inquiries were asked from the members. The reason for the study rotated around three viewpoints: pathology, perceiving criteria, and exhibiting first class example of educating in dialect classes. In pathology part, variables, for example, nature of instructing, instructive sources, instructors' skill, estimation, and overseeing learners were gone to and talked about. As per learners and educators' perspective, overseeing learners, nature of instructing, instructive yield, ability, identity, and instructive approaches were the principle perceiving criteria of first class educating separately. At last, the hidden components of world class example of educating are examined in which an accentuation is put on exploration based instruction, critical thinking capacity, supporting skilled learners and numerous comparable variables. The discoveries of this study can be valuable for educators and in addition the instructive developers to enhance the nature of dialect instructing in Iran.

Vainikka and Young-Scholten argued that grammars in the first stage of development are various from later grammars, lacking certain feature which subsequently happen. This argument is proposed in the context of the Weak

Continuity Hypothesis regarding L1 acquisition (Vainikka 1993). According to this hypothesis, when functional levels are available in the UG features, initial grammars suffer the full complement of functional categories, including lexical categories and their projections, and probably one non-specified functional projection (Clahsen, 1990).

This study planned to make sense of the interrelationship between power, force, and ethical quality with a top to bottom concentrate on the cooperation among these three components in molding the miniaturized scale level of classroom association. Educating is a technique which is indistinguishable from good activity. Buzzeli and Johnston (2001) advocated that "teachers are moral agents, and education as a whole, and thus classroom interaction in particular, is fundamentally and inevitably moral in nature" (p. 876). This article closes with supporting the thought that instructors utilize their power to direct power relations and moral issues. It ought to be stressed that there are constantly exactly pressure in the middle of ethical quality and force which considers the characteristics of EFL connection.

It is this issue of early grammars that Vainikka and Young-Scholten consider in the context of L2 acquisition. As it is mentioned by these researchers, the initial level in L2 acquisition includes a grammar partly dependent on the L1: the lexical categories of the mother tongue are placed in the initial interlanguage grammar, including with associated L1 features such as headedness. Functional levels, however, do not exist. Although functional levels are not determined in the initial grammar, the full UG features of functional categories are available.

L2 learners sometimes gather functional levels to the interlanguage grammar, on the assumption of L2 input, and are finally able to conduct the associated projections. The argument is that functional levels are added in the 'bottom up', in discrete levels, so that there is to be an IP stage before CP as it is mentioned. In other words, the introduction of CP in the grammar show IP: one can put IP without considering CP but not CP without IP. Therefore, although the emergence of functional levels is argued to be triggered by input, there must probably be some kind of built-in sequence that reveals this order. After all, it seems to be no reason in effect why a learner should not take into account features in the L2 input which would motivate a CP before features which would trigger IP.

As it is related to the Minimal Trees account, the initial states of learners of various L1s will differ, focusing on the headedness features of lexical categories in the L1s in every question. Vainikka and Young-Scholten (1996) mentioned that that headedness of all lexical categories will be reassigned to the value proper for the L2 before the development of any functional levels. Development of functional categories, in another view, in no matter depends on features of the L1 grammar; in other words, there is assumed to be no transfer in this part, no stage or grammar in which features of the mother-tongue functional levels are found, a prediction which differs from Full Transfer Full Access. Instead, the L2 learner learns L2 functional levels, with L2 properties. Therefore, L1 and L2 acquisition of any particular language are usually assumed to be similar with respect to functional categories and projections. Vainikka and Young-Scholten (1996) argue about one difference, relating to what features of the input develop the emergence of functional levels, such as bound morphology in L1 acquisition against free morphemes in L2 features.

C. The Valueless Features Hypothesis

We turn now to a third view about the interlanguage initial level, which is the Valueless Features Hypothesis of Eubank (1996). Similar to Full Transfer Full Access and Minimal Trees, the Valueless Features Hypothesis argues that the initial level is a grammar. Eubank mentions for 'weak' transfer, discussing that the L1 grammar largely – but not completely – predicts the interlanguage initial state. Similar to Full Transfer Full Access and dissimilar Minimal Trees, the Valueless Features Hypothesis mentioned that L1 lexical and functional levels are present in the earliest interlanguage grammar. However, it is to say that although L1 functional categories are accessible, their characteristic values are claimed not to be present. That is, there is no transfer. Instead of having either strong or weak transfer, features are valueless or predictable in the initial level.

It is to say that feature strength has influence for word order. In a language like English, finite verbs stay within the VP constraint. In such languages like French, there is strong transfer, there are no constraints. In the other words, finite lexical categories either must rise at some level or may not rise. As it is related to the Valueless Features Hypothesis, feature values such as mentioned are neither weak nor strong.

According to Eubank, this theory has the following features and consequences: when features are not included for strength, finite verbs can change between raising and not raising. In the other words, if the L2 learner is learning a language with strong features like some languages as French, both the word orders are predicted in early stages, the grammatical, in which the finite verb has raised out of the VP, and the ungrammatical, in which the verb is not raised. The results are identical for a L2 with weak characteristics, like that of English. That is to say, both of the word orders are revealed to happen because, in the absence of a categorization of feature strength, the verb can happen to raise or not, as the case may be similar in some points.

D. Full Access (without Transfer)

The last view to discuss is to be considered as the Full Access Hypothesis proposed by Flynn and Martohardjono (1996) and Epstein et al. (1996). As it is mentioned by Epstein et al. (1996, p 750), the Full Access Hypothesis is not, generally speaking a hypothesis about the first state. However, although not proposed like a concrete initial-state hypothesis, in fact it has explicit implications for the quality of the initial state. Moreover, this hypothesis implies, like the Initial Hypothesis of Syntax, that UG should constitute the initial state in L2 acquisition.

What is revealed by the Full Access Hypothesis? Epstein et al. discuss that the interlanguage grammar is UG-restricted at all stages; grammars support to the principles of UG and learners are restricted to the hypothesis space permitted by UG. In the other words, UG stays accessible in non-primary acquisition process. So far, the issues are identical to those proposes by advocates of Full Transfer Full Access; in the other words, the *full access* of Full Transfer Full Access is the *full access* mentioned by Epstein et al. Moreover, this assumption is revealed by Vainikka and Young-Scholten, who discuss that all of UG is accessible in L2 acquisition, although some features are appeared after others. The Valueless Features Hypothesis is also basically intended as a full access assumption, interlanguage grammars being restricted by UG, with inertness of features only a temporary feature.

What makes Epstein et al.'s Full Access Hypothesis dissimilar to the positions regarded so far? In contrary to the first three initial-state assumptions Epstein et al. (1996, p 751) basically reject the possibility that the L1 grammar shapes the initial state. For this reason, it is sometimes referred to their position as Full Access without any Transfer. Irrespective of this rejection, they do determine the presence of L1 impact on interlanguage grammars. But if these impacts are not for the sake of L1-based initial manifestation, then it is not easy to understand just what the learners have in mind.

If the initial level is not the L1 grammar, what is it then? The rationale of Epstein et al.'s discussion necessitates that it is not a grammar that matter but rather UG. In the other words, the initial level in L2 acquisition is the like as the initial level in L1. In effect, however, Epstein et al. (1996, p 751) rejected this possibility too, stating that the initial state in L2 is not like that, so basically not UG itself. It is hard to figure out what the initial state could possibly be, if it is neither at least basically the L1 grammar nor UG. I will continue to interpret their hypothesis as proposing that UG must be the initial state, though they fail to figure out that this is the logical outcome of their position.

To know how it is that Epstein et al.'s position points out UG as the initial state, attention that they generally argue in line with the Strong Continuity or Full Competence Hypothesis as the correct reason of functional categories in L2 grammars and in the opposite of the Minimal Trees Hypothesis of Vainikka and Young- Scholten. As it is mentioned by the Strong Continuity Hypothesis, all functional levels are developed in L1 grammars from the beginning. In contrary, as mentioned earlier, the Minimal Trees Hypothesis argues that initially no functional categories are in work and that they develop gradually. Since the Minimal Trees Hypothesis is an argument about the nature of the interlanguage primary state, Epstein et al.'s discussion necessarily consider an alternative initial-state assumption, in particular the idea that the primary interlanguage grammar will include a full complement of functional categories. And, because they reject the probability that the L1 grammar shapes the initial state, the origin of functional levels in the early interlanguage grammar can only be related to UG itself.

Therefore, whether they figure it out or not, the clear application of Epstein et al.'s Full Access Hypothesis is that UG is the primary level in L2 as well as in L1. The Full Access Hypothesis reveals the L1 grammar unlike the interlanguage grammars, in the other words, Full Access without Transfer.

The main outcome of this assumption is that interlanguage grammars of learners of various L1s will be alike, because of the impact of UG, with no influence originated from the L1, because the L1 does not shape the initial state. In fact, Epstein et al. do not reject the probability of L1-impact and differences between learners of various L1s, as earlier mentioned, it is not at all obvious how the L1 is defined into their scheme. As to the final state accessible in L2 acquisition, this should in fact be a manifestation, similar to that of native speakers of the L2 (Flynn 1996, p 150).

III. CONCLUSION

As it is placed by Chomsky, dialects are administered by a situated of widespread sentence structures which are available before the adolescence. In this paper, an endeavor was made to figure out diverse speculations in regards to widespread standards fundamental the dialect utilized by L2 learners. For this situation, there is very little data close by about the all-inclusive imperatives utilized by L2 learners. To this end, White's (2003) model of widespread syntax (UG) application is used to examine the availability to UG in L2 learners. There are three perspectives toward UG openness; No Access, Partial Access, and Full Access. The ebb and flow writing supported that there are basic mistakes shared by numerous EFL learners which make analysts consider whether UG standards are material to a dialect after the adolescence. In like manner, there are a few imperatives detectable in the creation of grown-up EFL learners which may be taken as proof for the operation of Universal Grammar. In any case, it was not clear how EFL learners have admittance to general classifications which is the theme of thought in this paper. The implication of this study is that this investigation helps teachers find out the organizational patterns of learners language by determining the universal features of L2 interlanguage. UG constraints mentioned that L2 system is governed by the same principles which govern the structure of L1.

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A Research on the Application of Cooperative Learning in Rural Middle School English Teaching

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Abstract—Cooperative learning is based on modern social psychology, cognitive psychology and modern educational technology and so on as the theoretical basis, making full use of the dynamic factors in class and group activities for the basic teaching form. Team members will communicate with each other to finish the tasks assigned by the teacher. The teacher will take assessments, which are a series of teaching activities or strategies to finish the teaching goal. Cooperative learning is one of the new learning styles that the present basic education curriculum advocates. Nowadays, many scholars of China have done research on cooperative learning, but most of their researches only stay in the form of cooperative learning, which haven't made a deep research in the carrying out of cooperative learning in rural middle school. This paper researches the new curriculum and the data at home and abroad. By using questionnaire, interview and observation, taking Xinling Middle School of Enshi as an example, the author did an investigation on the situation of the application of cooperative learning in Xinling Middle School English teaching. The author finds some problems existing in the application of cooperative learning: the teachers lack enough understanding about cooperative learning; the division of groups is not reasonable; the students lack consciousness and skills of cooperative learning, etc. The author also finds some solutions to solve these problems.

Index Terms—cooperative learning, classroom teaching, problems, strategies

I. Introduction

A. Background

Cooperative learning theory has the most important influence and outcome in the present education theory. At present, the reform of fundamental education course has come to the stage of experiment. The reform of classroom teaching has become the key stage for the whole education reform; the reform of the teaching and learning strategies have become the center that people pay attention to. Cooperative learning has become a very important form of teaching organization in Chinese classroom teaching.

National Standards of English Curriculum (Experimental Edition, 2001) explicitly indicates: the focus of reform of English course is to change the situation of putting much more emphasis on grammars and lexical explanations, and of the tendency of overlooking learners' language performance on actual occasions. The reform advocates experience, practice, participation, collaborative and communicative learning style and task-oriented approach based on learners' interests, life experience and cognitive level, aiming at developing learners' comprehensive abilities.

Cooperative learning, as a theoretic and strategic system, is applied by many countries in the world. Many researchers have shown that cooperative learning is a creative and effective teaching approach. There has been a growing consensus among researchers about the positive effects of cooperative learning on students' achievements as well as social affective aspects.

For a long time, the traditional teaching only stressed on teachers and textbooks. Especially it laid stress on the teacher's authority to the students but neglected the influence of the students. In class the teacher spoke from the beginning to the end, but the outcome was not optimistic. The students learned by themselves and they accepted knowledge from the teacher, they didn't have cooperative learning in class and lacked their own ideas. The traditional teaching has the advantages of large capacity and costs less time in imparting the knowledge, but its single teaching organization form restricts students' language practice activities and the improvement on students' ability in using language. Classroom teaching needs to bring in a teaching mode that faces to all students and is helpful for them to carry out comprehensive language practice teaching, the teaching mode is cooperative learning.

B. Research on Cooperative Learning Abroad and in China

In the early 19th century, some American scholars began to do relative researches on cooperative learning. And then they applied the result of the research to the practice of local education. Dewey adopted the method of group cooperation in the school that was founded by him. In Dewey's view, learners did not learn in isolation; the individual learns by being part of the surrounding community and the world as a whole. He proposed a triangular relationship for the social construction of ideas among the individual, the community and the world. Over the past 30 years, many

researchers have made great contribution to the development of cooperative learning so that now it is used not only as a supplement to the traditional instructional methods but also as a coherent alternative learning means of organizing the classroom instruction in fundamental curriculum areas from science to language learning in the foreign countries, such as USA, Canada, Israel, Germany and the UK.

We notice that the research of western countries has the property of developing on different stages. And the research itself has undergone the course from the theoretical to the practice strategy. Currently, cooperative learning is used popularly in many schools in western countries. And its achievement is obvious. In addition, the foreign practical research manifests that cooperative learning is not only an executive means of learning for the students, but it is good and practical for teaching.

In our country the systematic research on cooperative learning started at the end of the 1980s. Group activities began to enter class teaching at the beginning of the 1990s; therefore it led to the inquiry about cooperative learning. And much progress was made in the mid 1990s. At the beginning of the 21st century it is its mature period (Wang, 2001, p.116). In our country the earliest areas where the research on the subject was done tentatively were Shandong Province and Zhejiang Province. In Zhejiang the subject of their research was how to improve all-round development of the students' characteristics, in which group interactive cooperative learning into classroom teaching and obtained some experience.

Cooperative learning is such an efficient activity that it has been widely used all over the world. In our country, it is also widely used in teaching. But to the combination of cooperative learning and middle school English teaching, there is no concrete and detailed research about it. So the author is going to do some research on it in the thesis.

C.   Purpose of This Research

The purpose of this thesis is to combine the theoretical research with teaching practice. Taking Xinling Middle School of Enshi as an example, the author will do a research on the application of cooperative learning in rural middle schools of Enshi. The research methods of the thesis are: analysis of literature, questionnaire, interview and observation. The research object is two classes of Junior One in Xinling Middle School of Enshi. The author hopes to find out the problems and gives some strategies, helps the rural middle school teachers carry out cooperative learning activities more effective, to stimulate the students' enthusiasm in learning English and improve their academic performance, especially to improve their ability in applying English. Meanwhile, cultivate students' ability in cooperation and communication.

II.   LITERATURE REVIEW

A.   Definition of Cooperative Learning

Research into cooperative learning dated back to the 1970s. Though the research and studies have undergone for nearly 40 years, it is hard to give unanimous definition of cooperative learning. Researchers and experts gave their definitions from various perspectives.

Professor Slavin (1995, p.2) states that "Cooperative learning refers to a variety of teaching methods in which students work in small groups to help one another learn academic content." D.W. Johnson, R.T. Johnson (1993, p.9) defines cooperative learning as "the instructional use of small groups so that students work together to maximize their own and each other's learning". Another widely accepted definition is proposed by Jacobs (2002, p.9) and his colleagues: "Principles and techniques for helping students work together more effectively". Cooperative learning, according to Kagan (1991), was defined as "group learning activities organized so that learning is dependent on the socially structured exchange of information between learners in groups and in which each learner is held accountable for his or her own learning and is motivated to increase the learning of others." Vermette (1998, p.32) defines cooperative learning as follows: A cooperative classroom team is a relatively permanent, heterogeneously mixed, small group of students who have been assembled to compete an activity, produce a series of projects or products, and who have been asked to individually master a body of knowledge the spirit within the team has to be one of positive interdependence, that is, a feeling that success for any one is tied directly to the successes of others. Moreover, these groups have to be assigned by the teacher and they have to include regular direct face-to-face interaction in the classroom setting. Chinese scholar Wang Tan (2002, p.6) states cooperative learning as a pedagogical strategy system in which students are promoted to cooperative in heterogeneous teams, achieve common academic goals and reward in the basis of team performance.

Sometimes cooperative learning is also called group learning. In fact, they are quite different even though students work in groups in both cooperative learning and group learning. First, in cooperative learning, students cooperate with each other in the same group but compete with the other groups. They make efforts to accomplish the group goals. Second, in cooperative team, each member has his own duty. Take a four-member group as an example, which each act as a host, a recorder, a reporter or a checker in the group. The host takes charge of the group discussion; the recorder is to set down the results of the discussion; the reporter is to represent the results of the discussion to the class; the checker monitors the learning and makes sure every member accomplish the task. Third, students are supposed to master social skills in cooperative learning so that groups can function effectively. Finally, there is a special assessment system for cooperative learning. Only if every member achieves the goal will the group get recognized.

B.   Theoretical Basis

1. Group Dynamics Theory

The research of the group dynamics theory can be dated back to early 20th century. Kafka pointed out that group was a changeable dynamic group and members were interdependent with each other. Kafka's workmate Kurt Lewin analyzed the thought in detail. He said, "for one thing, the essential of the group lead to the result that it becomes interdependence between members of dynamic group. In the dynamic group, any change stating on members will cause the change on other member's state. On the other hand, members in nervous state can encourage group members to achieve the common expectation (qtd in Slavin, 1990, p.13-18)." Because of the explanation, people regard Kurt Lewin as the founder of group dynamics theory.

Cooperative learning just takes advantages of the complex dynamic relationship existing in all classrooms that teachers instruct students and increase with each other. Students learn more when they talk about a subject, explain an idea to another student, even argue about an idea, than when they hear a lecture or read a book. Rather than trying to suppress student-to-student interaction in the interest of "classroom order", teachers who use cooperative learning regard such interaction as an important learning resource, and they plan strategies to capture this energy to support and strengthen the learning process. The total amount of teacher talk is reduced and the amount of teacher-directed student-to-student interaction, and thus students' learning is increased.

2. Constructivist Learning Theory

The constructivist learning theory of cooperative learning believes that: learning is not only the process that from unknowing to knowing, but also is that the learners gain the new knowledge and experience based on the original cognitive structure and experience. Students' learning is not only accepted knowledge passively, but also is the process that builds the connection between the new and the old knowledge, recombination and actively construct learning. In the process, because learning activities are centered as learners and it is real, so it can stimulate learners' interest and motivation, also it reflects the individual learning style. Therefore, constructivist learning theory advocates that learning should be centered as students under the guidance of teachers. Its learning environment includes scene, collaboration, communication and significance. Under the teaching mode of constructivist, the teacher's role is the designer, organizer, promoter and evaluator. Using the learning environment factors fully exert students' initiative, enthusiasm and creative spirit (He, 1996, p.34-37).

Based on constructivist theory, English cooperative learning takes the students as the main body of teaching and the active constructors of knowledge. The students are not the passive receivers of outside stimulus or the objects of knowledge inculcation any longer.

3. Developmental Theory

The basic supposition of developmental theory is the children's interaction for the proper task can advocate their mastery of the important concepts. The children's cognitive and social development has grown through companions' interaction and association (Wang, 2001, p66).

Vygotsky (1978, p.86), a famous psychologist of former Russia, presented Zone of Proximal Development. He defines it as the distance between the actual development levels (solve the problems by themselves) and potential development levels (solve the problems by adult's guidance or cooperate with other excellent students). He points out that the most important feature of teaching is creating the proximal development area, also is the process that teaching cause and promote children's internal development. These internal development processes for children are possible in the scope of their relationship with friends and common activities, by the internal development process it later has became the internal wealth of children. Therefore, teaching creating the proximal development area not only embodies in the teacher's teaching, but also reflects in the partner's cooperation.

Enlightened by Vygotsky's Zone of Proximal Development, the later scholars discussed the cognitive function of the companions' association from two aspects. One is that the companions teach each other. That is, the students with better abilities work as teachers. The other is that the companions cooperate with each other? (Wang, 2001, p.67). That is, the students communicate with each other equally and cooperate with each other.

Many supporters of Piaget appeal in schools for the learning task can improve the students' achievements. The students can learn from each other through interactions. Because of the discussions, there must be cognitive struggles. And because of the cognitive struggles, the insufficient deduction must come into being. At last through cooperation a better understanding will be reached.

4. Social Interdependence Theory

Social interdependence assumes: the structure of social interdependence determines the way of individual's interaction and the structure of activity. Positive interdependence produces positive interaction, encouragement between individuals and encourages each other to make great efforts to learn. Negative interdependence usually produces reverse interactive competition; individuals will hinder each other in efforts to gain the score. Under the situation that on interdependence exist, it will appear the phenomenon that no interaction. That is, on influence between individuals and they do things by themselves. This is the essence of social interdependence theory put forward by Johnson brothers.

The social interdependence perspective of cooperative learning presupposes that the way social interdependence is structured determines the way people get on with each other. Moreover, outcomes are the consequences of persons' interaction. Therefore, one of the cooperative elements that have to be structured in class is positive interdependence or

cooperation. When this is done, cooperation results in interactions as group members encourage and ease each other's effort to learn (D.W. Johnson, R.T. Johnson, & E.J. Holubec, 1993).

From the perspective of social interdependence theory, the core of cooperative learning theory can be expressed in simple words: When all people get together to work for a common goal, it depends on the strength of united. Students depend on each other provides motive for personal and enables them: (1) to do anything to promote team to success; (2) to help each other to make group successful; (3) to love each other, because people all like others to help themselves to achieve their purpose and cooperation can mostly increase the contact between each member (Wang, 2005).

C. Significance of Cooperative Learning

Cooperative learning is generally defined as a teaching arrangement in which small, heterogeneous groups of students work together to achieve a common goal. Students encourage and support each other, assume responsibility for their own and each other's learning, employ group related social skills, and evaluate the group's progress. The basis elements are positive interdependence, equal opportunities and individual accountability. Human beings are social creatures by nature and cooperation has been used throughout history in all aspects of our lives. Therefore, it follows that cooperative learning groups in schools would be used as a logical teaching method.

Within the framework of cooperative learning groups, students learn how to interact with their peers and increase involvement with the school community. Positive interactions do not always occur naturally and social skills instruction must precede and concur with the cooperative learning strategies. Social skills encompass communicating, building and maintaining trust, providing leadership, and managing conflicts (Goodwin, 1999, p.29-34).

In a word, cooperative learning can promote language learning from the following aspects:

(1) It can remove the students' fear from failure in learning English; students will receive more confidence from cooperative learning. Cooperative learning can promote students' initiative participation in learning English; it is good for the development of students. The final aim of cooperative learning is everyone will have progress in learning and it stimulates the students' interest and motivation in participating learning.

(2) It can train the students' ability in communication, for example, they can learn how to repeat the text and how to correct the defect of their own expression, how to ask a partner to clarify or prove, etc.

(3) Cooperative learning is good for students to cultivate the ability of handling interpersonal relations. When students do the cooperative learning, in order to achieve the success, they will cooperate and help with each other; they can learn how to handle the impersonal relations in the process of the cooperative learning.

III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A. Research Purpose

By using questionnaires, interview and observation, the author researches students' cognition of cooperative learning, the situation of English teaching and teachers' lectures. The author researches on the application of cooperative learning in rural middle schools of Enshi to find the problems and give some strategies, so that can help teachers to carry out cooperative learning in English teaching more effective, improve the quality of teachers' teaching and increase the effect on students' learning.

B. Research Object

The author takes Xinling Middle School of Enshi as an example to do the research. According to the research on teachers and students, the author can know more about the situation of the application of the cooperative learning and find out the problems.

C. Research Methods

1. Questionnaire

The questionnaire was translated into Chinese, making students understand well. The students were asked to finish it by themselves, aiming to get the data to help to find out the problems existing in the application of cooperative learning in rural middle schools of Enshi. The questionnaire was distributed to 110 students in two classes, 100 questionnaires were effectively back.

2. Interview

The aim of interview was to discover some problems that exist in the application of cooperative learning in rural middle schools of Enshi. There were ten questions in the interview. The interviewees were twelve teachers enrolled to Xinling Middle School of Enshi. The interview was required about 4-5 minutes. The data of the interviews were collected by making a note of teachers in the interview.

3. Observation

In order to find out the problems that exist in rural middle schools of Enshi, the author observed the process of carrying out cooperative learning class for three times.

IV. THE ANALYSIS OF RESEARCH RESULTS

A. Students' Problems

1. Lacking Interest in Participating Cooperative Learning

Students are lacking enough understanding in cooperative learning, so they are lacking interest in participating cooperative learning. Only 31% of the students were very interested in cooperative learning. Cooperative learning really increases the opportunities for students to participate cooperative learning activities, but only 39% of the students liked to learn English with other students. In the practical operation, because some students were lacking interest in participating cooperative learning, the effect of cooperative learning was not optimistic. 68% of the students thought they learned English for the examination, 38% of them thought cooperative learning had a great help to them in learning English. It was usually the excellent students who spoke and discussed in cooperative learning activities, they played a leading role and helped other students in cooperative learning activities. Those students who were poor in learning had no interest in cooperative learning activities; they just listened to other students. When the teacher was around the cooperative learning group, they would pretend to join in the group's discussion. When the teacher walked away, they would chat something unrelated with the discussion with other students; they didn't attend the cooperative learning activities and had no motivation, either. Because some students couldn't see the advantage that cooperative learning brought to them, they were not interested in cooperative learning.

2. Lacking Consciousness and Skills of Cooperative Learning

When carrying out cooperative learning activities, many students lacked the consciousness and skills in cooperative learning activities. Only 41% of students usually took part in students' discussion. Most students had no strong consciousness in cooperation; also their ability in cooperation was not strong. Only 31% of students liked to discuss problems with other students. They neither cooperated with other students nor knew how to cooperate. In traditional teaching, teacher speaks from the beginning of the class to the end without a stop, students rarely have the opportunity to communicate and exchange their opinions. Only 26% of students thought their English knowledge was gained from learning with each other. Due to the influence of traditional teaching, many students rarely communicated with each other in class. It is related with the mental characteristics of students in countryside. Compared with the children in city, the children in countryside have fewer opportunities to communicate with the outside world; their characters are generally diffident and not good at expressing. Besides, most of the students are lack of skills in communicate with other students. Only 32% of the students usually gave out their opinions in discussing problems with other students. Only 38% of the students were good at discussing problems with other students. Some students usually interrupted the discussion in cooperative learning activities, for they didn't listen to other students' opinions, only 37% of the students listened to other students' discussion carefully. When carrying out cooperative learning activities, many students didn't take part in the discussion. For one thing, they didn't know how to express their opinion, so they kept silent most of the time. For another, many students thought it unnecessary to take part in the discussion because other group members would finish it. Influenced by the traditional idea, students pay more attention to the competition between them. They don't realize the benefits that cooperative learning brings to them, so they don't learn cooperative learning skills actively.

B. Teachers' Problems

1. Lacking Enough Understanding about Cooperative Learning

Some teachers were lacking understanding about cooperative learning; they knew the cooperative learning in form but didn't understand it in essence. Only 16.6% of the teachers had a deep understanding in cooperative learning. 41.6% knew about cooperative learning from television or newspaper, only 25% were trained by the higher educational administrative departments. They often regarded the group discussion as cooperative learning. Many teachers regarded cooperative learning as group discussions. 83.3% of the teachers thought it necessary to carry out cooperative learning in their English teaching, but only 25% of them had carried out cooperative learning in English teaching. Only 33.3% of them would communicate or learn from experts or scholars when they met the problems related with cooperative learning. They didn't know how to operate cooperative learning in the classroom teaching, they knew little about cooperative learning. 83.3% of the teachers said that the problems in group discussion were given at random by themselves. At the beginning of class, they would give out one or several topics, and then they ordered students to discuss these topics. A few minutes later, when students had discussed over, the cooperative learning is finished, but the outcome was not optimistic. Obviously it is not a real cooperative learning. 75% of the teachers' teaching modes were mainly as traditional teaching. In essence, the way of the teacher's teaching has not changed. In this way, students can't form the good habit of learning; it also may discourage the enthusiasm of student's study.

2. Unreasonable Group Division

The division of cooperative learning groups influence on students' participation in cooperative learning activities. 50% of the teachers usually divided cooperative learning groups according to students' seats. Only 16.6% of the teachers divided cooperative learning groups according to the students' learning score, ability, etc. 66.6% of the teachers thought that if they had carried out cooperative learning, the results and expectations were very different, the reason was that they didn't build the reasonable cooperative learning groups. If teacher only divide cooperative learning groups according to the order of students' seats, students can't form the complementary in learning. Some students who are good at learning are divided into one group, while students who are poor at learning in the other group. In this way, it is not good for carrying out cooperative learning activities, because the cooperative learning groups can't form the complementary. If the group members are all students who are not good at learning, it is hard for teacher to carry out

cooperative learning activities. When carrying out cooperative learning activities, teacher can't simply divide cooperative learning groups.

3. Not Identifying Role Correctly

In the opinion of traditional teaching, the teacher is the owner and initiator of knowledge, the teacher is also the master of teaching activities. However, when carrying out cooperative learning, affected by the opinion of traditional teaching, many teachers still keep their original roles in teaching. 75% of the teachers thought they were the masters in cooperative learning activities. Teachers didn't make full preparation for students' cooperative learning; also they didn't take part in students' cooperative learning activities. Only 8.3% of the teachers usually attended students' group discussion. Lacking teachers' participation, cooperative learning can't go on smoothly. While lacking teachers' guidance and supervise, the effect of cooperative learning activities isn't effective.

4. Lacking Effective Evaluation Mechanism

When carrying out cooperative learning activities, teachers are lacking effective evaluation system. 83.7% of the teachers only attached importance to the summative assessment in class discussion, but neglected the evaluation on the process. At the same time, teachers' evaluations are also not comprehensive. 75% of the teachers only evaluated on the final evaluation. When some teachers evaluated the group, they always attached importance to the evaluation of the whole group and ignored the individuals; in this way, students will lose confidence in learning. Because many students are concerned about teacher's opinion on their result of discussion, they hope the teacher can encourage them. If teacher isn't concerned about their views, they will lose interest and passion in taking part in the cooperative learning activities.

V. STRATEGIES FOR SOLVING THE PROBLEMS

A. Making Clear the Goals of Cooperative Learning

Many teachers know little about cooperative learning. When carrying out cooperative learning, without identify objects, cooperative learning is only a form. Therefore, in order to make cooperative learning clear, teachers should do as follows:

First, teacher should design the form of cooperative learning. Cooperative learning can be divided into two forms: communication within the same group and communication between two or more groups (Han, 2005, p.35). When teacher designs the form of cooperative learning, he should think about the subject carefully. If a subject that researched by every group is consistent and poor in content, the teacher should adopt the form of cooperative learning: communication within the same group. If a subject that contains rich content can be divided into several profiles, the teacher should adopt the form of cooperative learning: communication between two or more groups; two or more groups share the task on study, the related content of several groups communicate and form the common opinion, at last the whole class will join in the discussion. Besides, teacher should learn more about cooperative learning. When designing the cooperative learning activities, teacher should also regard of the characteristic of different subjects, the content of teaching, student's age, etc. Teacher should combine the forms of cooperative learning to cultivate students' skills in communication and the ability of cooperative learning.

Second, teacher should choose a theme that is meaningful for cooperation. Cooperative learning is usually carried out around the theme of cooperation, for example, some problems or tasks. If the theme of cooperative is meaningless, it can't be used in cooperative learning activities. The effective theme of cooperation has the value and significance in cooperation; it can ensure the effective of cooperative learning. In a word, the effective theme of cooperation can complete the objectives course and cultivate students' interest in learning; also it can promote the progress and development of students.

B. Constructing Cooperative Learning Groups Reasonably

In order to make cooperative learning activities go on smoothly, teacher should construct cooperative learning groups reasonable. Constructing the cooperative learning groups reasonable is the basis and premise for carrying out cooperative learning. There are a variety of forms in the construction of cooperative learning groups. To construct cooperative learning groups reasonable, teacher should do as follows:

First, teacher should investigate students' basic situation. Affected by the family and learning environment, every student's basic situation is different. For example, some students have extroversion characters, while some students have different characters. Some students are good at learning but some students are poor at learning (Yu, 2008, p.29). Therefore, when teacher constructs cooperative learning groups, he should mix students into a group to make each member form the complementary. Teacher should do a research on students' learning, interest, etc, also he should know more about students' characters. In this way, the cooperative learning groups can be constructed reasonable.

Second, teacher should ensure the size of cooperative learning groups. The size of cooperative learning groups has certain effect on students' participation in cooperative learning activities. If the size of cooperative learning groups is too large, it is not good for students to take part in cooperative learning activities. Of course, the size of cooperative learning groups can't be too small. In classroom teaching, fixed cooperative learning groups are usually four to six students (Han, 2005, p.28). Teacher should know students' practical situation and construct the cooperative learning groups reasonable. Practice has shown that: When group members are more than six, it is hard to ensure every member to express their opinion actively and face-to-face communication is less. If there are too many group members, the

chance of communication between group members will be more and the time in discussion is shorter. In English teaching, according to the needs of the course, teacher should use different sizes of groups in different stages of applying cooperative learning.

C. Cultivating Students' Consciousness and Skills of Cooperative Learning

The skills of cooperative learning are not inherent. Many students who are in rural middle school are poor at the consciousness of cooperation. In cooperative learning activities, students who are poor at learning usually leave the tasks to those students who are good at learning. Although it looks good when carrying out cooperative learning activities, but the outcome is not optimistic. Therefore, teacher should first introduce the advantages and the general operation methods of cooperative learning to students. By doing this, it can generate students' desire on cooperation, investigation and increase their consciousness of cooperation (Yu, 2008, p.27). Teacher should be as students' guider, help students to make clear their roles and teach them what to do in cooperative learning activities. Teacher should encourage students to try their best to finish their tasks, ask students to help their group members when they meet difficulties. Teacher should make a plan and arrange the cooperative learning activities, organize students to attend cooperative learning activities. Besides, teacher should provide chances as much as possible for students to attend cooperative learning activities, so that can help students to learn the skills in communicate with other students and they will enjoy the cooperation.

Moreover, teacher should teach students some skills of cooperation. First, teacher should ask students to listen to other students, teach students not to break other students' speech too often, listen carefully and finally give out their opinion after gain some useful information on the basis of other students' speech. Second, if students have doubt in something, teacher should help them to make it clear. Third, Teacher should teach students the skills to express their own ideas clearly and how to organize cooperative learning activities. Fourth, teacher should teach students how to be a group leader and draw a summary speech. At last, teacher should teach students how to evaluate (Yu, 2008, p.28). For example, the self-evaluation and evaluate on group members, learning achievement and the attitude in cooperation. Students will make progress in communication and their sense and skills of cooperation. With the improvement on the consciousness and skills of cooperation, students will form the good habit of cooperation in learning. Students no longer receive information passively but gain the knowledge actively. Therefore, teacher should reinforce the training on students' consciousness and skills in cooperative learning. Teacher should learn more about cooperative learning and provide more chances for students to practice cooperative learning. In this way, it will build a good basis for carrying out cooperative learning activities.

D. Stimulating Students' Interest in Participating Cooperative Learning

Interest is the best teacher. If students are interested in the content of learning, they will learn actively and have a desire to learn. If students have no interest in the content of learning, they will lose the motivation in learning and will not learn actively. Interest has the effect of promoting learning. When we have no interest in something, we will be very disgust and want to escape from it. The interaction in the process of cooperative learning is mainly as students; teacher will give some help and guidance to students in appropriate time. In classroom teaching, there are some content that requires students to prepare in advance and know about the related content. Students need to find some information by themselves; it needs students to finish the task actively. In order to gain the desired effect of cooperative learning, teacher should design the content and time of cooperative learning carefully. Teacher should select the appropriate theme of cooperation; cultivate students' interest in learning.

E. Making Clear the Roles of Cooperative Learning

In the traditional English teaching, teacher is the owner of knowledge, also is the master of teaching activities. In the new curriculum, teacher's role has changed. Teacher is no longer the master of teaching activities but the guider of teaching activities. Teacher is not the center of teaching activities; students have become the center of teaching activities. Therefore, teacher should make clear his role in cooperative learning activities, change his role from the traditional teaching and become the guider of students.

When carrying out cooperative learning activities, teacher should take part in every cooperative learning group; listen to every group member's speech. Teacher should know the problems that appear in the process of cooperative learning activities and guide students to solve the problems (Han, 2005, p.37). Besides, teacher should give guidance to the students' skills in cooperative learning activities. Some students know little about cooperative learning, they lack of skills in communication. When carrying out cooperative learning activities, it will emerge different kinds of problems. Teacher should help them to solve problems and teach some skills to students in discussing problems. Teacher is the guider in cooperative learning activities, but he shouldn't interfere with students' cooperative learning activities too often, for it is not good for improving students' ability and skills in cooperative learning.

F. Building Effective Evaluation System

The effect of cooperative learning is dependent on the application of evaluation mechanism. The evaluation of cooperative learning includes the evaluation that teacher gives to students, group evaluation, self-evaluation, etc. In cooperative learning activities, teacher should inspire students, guide students to discover and innovate. Teacher's

evaluation should be centered as students' learning process (Wang, 2006, p.280). Teacher should put emphasis on the improvement of students' ability in learning and the skills in cooperation. At the same time, teacher should pay attention to the cultivation of students' ability in learning and innovation, make efforts to build a harmonious and equal atmosphere in cooperative learning activities. Cooperative learning's final goal is everyone can make progress in learning. Cooperative learning changes the evaluation from the individual's score to the learning group's score. The group's score is as a standard reward. In group evaluation, teacher should give appropriate evaluation to individual's enthusiasm, creativity and participation in cooperative learning. By doing this, it can stimulate students' enthusiasm in participating cooperative learning activities. When teacher evaluates the cooperative learning groups, he should combine the evaluation in the process of learning and result of learning. The process of group learning is not only referring to the students' score, but also refers to the attitude, efficiency and skill of group members. In a word, teacher should build an efficiency evaluation mechanism. In this way, the cooperative learning activities can gain the prospective effect.

VI. Conclusion

This paper researches on the application of cooperative learning in rural middle schools of Enshi and finds some problems existing in rural middle schools of Enshi: the teachers are lacking enough understanding about cooperative learning; the division of groups is not reasonable; the students are lacking consciousness and skills of cooperative learning; the students are lacking interest in participating cooperative learning; the teachers can't identify their roles correctly; the teachers are lacking effective evaluation mechanism, etc. The author also finds some solutions to solve these problems.

Due to the limitation of condition, the author only does the investigation in Xinling, Enshi. The thesis finds out the problems existing in rural middle school English teaching. The thesis hasn't made the investigation in urban middle school English teaching. For the narrow range of the research, whether the research results are accurate still need to do a further research. For the time in the research is short, and the research subjects are confined to the rural middle school's individual class, it is still need to do a further research.

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The Relationship between English Learning Anxiety and the Students' Achievement on Examinations[*]

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Abstract—**Research in educational settings points out that some affective factors influence the students' performance positively or negatively. Anxiety, considered as one of the factors affecting the students' achievement, includes levels of communicative anxiety, fear of negative evaluation, test anxiety, and anxiety of English class or classroom. Hence, the purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between English language anxiety and the students' achievement in their examinations. To this end, 258 freshmen majoring in different fields of medicine at Gonabad University of Medical Sciences were recruited as the study participants. Two instruments were employed to collect data. The first one was the Persian version of Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale questionnaire (FLCAS) completed during the semester to determine the anxiety level on a five-point Likert scale, and the second was an achievement test administered at the end of the term. The obtained results were analyzed using correlation, t-test, and descriptive statistics through SPSS software V.19. The results showed that high anxiety affected the students' achievement ($r=0.348$, $p<0.001$). Moreover, the English classroom anxiety proved to be much more significant than other anxiety levels ($r=0.36$). Nonetheless, the mean value of fear of negative evaluation was higher than those of other FLCAS components. Finally, some implications and suggestions were set forth for teachers/students to take into account so that they might reduce English learning anxiety in classrooms.**

Index Terms—**English learning anxiety, examinations, FLCAS, students' achievement**

I. INTRODUCTION

Learning a foreign language can be regarded as a complicated process which is affected not only by linguistic factors but also by some other non-linguistic ones which may be considered as cognitive, metacognitive, and affective. One of the most important affective factors which influence the students' academic performance in second language learning is anxiety. To find out about the relationship between anxiety and achievement, many studies have been carried out (e.g., Bailey, 1983; Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope, 1986; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994; Young, 1991). Also, anxiety has been one of the most extensively researched areas in the last few decades.

Recent research indicates that the problems related to anxiety enjoy a high frequency, and the test anxiety is one of these problems (Fathi Ashteini & Emamgholivand, 2002). Test anxiety includes unpleasant emotional experiences, feelings, and worries in situations in which one's performance is being evaluated. The test anxiety refers to any condition which causes a person to fear about his capabilities the outcome of which is a decrease in one's ability to cope with stressful conditions such as test-taking situations. Some researchers believe that tests cause individuals to study better while others claim that decreasing the anxiety helps the person to perform better. Thus, a person suffering from test anxiety can be regarded as the one who knows the material well but his high anxiety and worry cause him not to perform satisfactorily while taking an exam (Cheraghian et al. 2008). Moreover, as a person assumes a test to be more threatening, the more anxious and less confident he will be before the examinations (Fathi Ashteini & Emamgholivand, 2002). Many factors may cause high test anxiety and accordingly lead to poor performance on the examinations some of which are as follows: low self-confidence, insufficient amount of study, negative attitudes toward school or college, fear of failure in future exams or the previous experience of failure (Cassady & Johnson, 2002).

Taking into account the above-mentioned points and the existing causes of anxiety, investigating the students' test anxiety can be a useful and positive measure toward identifying this trait and its related factors so that not only this problem and similar ones can be eliminated through better planning and special counseling but also learning can be accelerated and the expenses decreased.

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Therefore, this study aims at investigating the relationship between the students' anxiety and their final test performance while taking into consideration five levels of anxiety, namely, communicative anxiety, fear of negative evaluation, test anxiety, and anxiety of English class or classroom.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

There is a plethora of research in the areas related to anxiety; hence, to grasp a broad overview of anxiety, its definitions, types, causes, and foreign language anxiety will be addressed first. Next, in light of them, some of the studies conducted in the area will be reviewed.

A. Anxiety Definition

The Encyclopedia Britannica 2008 ultimate reference suite provides the following definition for anxiety: "a feeling of dread, fear, or apprehension, often with no clear justification". Moreover, it has been defined by different scholars in the field of language learning and educational psychology. Generally, the term "anxiety" is defined by Scovel (1978) as "apprehension, a vague fear that is only indirectly associated with an object" (p. 34). Specifically, Spielberger (1972) defines anxiety as "an unpleasant emotional state or condition that is characterized by subjective feeling of tension, apprehension, and worry, and by activation or arousal of the automatic nervous system" (p. 482). As for the classroom or learning environments, and according to Horvitz (1986), anxiety is regarded as "a distinctive complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process" (p. 128). Considering the various definitions offered, the one proposed by Horvitz (ibid) implies that anxiety is aroused by learning processes which are manifested in class. Regardless of different definitions for anxiety, it is of different types and degrees.

B. Types of Anxiety

From one perspective, anxiety has been classified into three different kinds: trait, state, and situation specific anxieties. Trait anxiety, according to Eysenck (1979), is a personality trait or as Scovel (1978) maintained indicates "a more permanent predisposition to be anxious". State anxiety is referred to the experience of apprehension at a specific occasion in time; and situational anxiety is the one experienced in a well-defined situation (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991). Brown (2001) believed that state or situation-specific anxiety is the result of experience in a certain condition or event. From another viewpoint, anxiety has been grouped as facilitative and debilitative (Scovel, 1978; Alpert and Haber, 1960). As the names show, the former causes improvement in the learners' learning and performance and makes the learners conscious whereas the latter impedes learning and performance in various ways.

C. Causes of Anxiety

In different studies, researchers have come with a variety of factors causing anxiety in language learning classrooms: based on Bailey (1983), anxiety in class can be aroused by competitiveness, tests, and learners' perceived relationship with their teachers. Besides, Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986) attributed the causes of anxiety to several factors such as communication apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation according to which they developed a Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) which includes thirty-three items. In addition, Price (1991) names the following as the causes of anxiety: "a) the difficulty level of foreign language classes, b) personal perception of language aptitude, c) certain personality variables (e.g., perfectionism and fear of public speaking), and d) stressful classroom experiences." Young (1991) refers to the following as the possible causes of anxiety: "a. personal and interpersonal, b. learner beliefs about language learning, c. instructor beliefs about language teaching, d. instructor-learner interactions, e. classroom procedures, and f. language tests."

D. Foreign Language Anxiety

Foreign language anxiety is defined by MacIntyre (1999) as "worry and negative emotional reaction aroused when learning or using a second language". Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope (1986) defined it as "a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of language learning process" (p. 128).

Awan et al. (2010) investigated the relationship between foreign language classroom anxiety and the students' achievement using a short form of FLCAS and an inventory of situations that causes anxiety. They reported a negative relationship between language anxiety and achievement. They also found that females are less anxious than males in learning English and the main cause of anxiety was speaking in front of other students in class.

Zhao (2007) in her study of anxiety among high school students in China found that the fear of negative evaluation was the most prevalent cause of anxiety, boys experienced more anxiety of English classes than girls did, and anxiety of English classes and tests was a debilitative factor in language learning. Consequently, she concluded that highly-anxious learners do not obtain much achievement; and their low achievement causes them to be more anxious in the process of language learning.

In an article entitled "English language learning anxiety among Iranian EFL freshmen university learners", Yamat and Shirani Bidabadi (2012) claimed that while the freshmen experienced more anxiety on being negatively evaluated they found no significant difference in foreign language learning anxiety regarding gender; nonetheless, the participants

were anxious and nervous in terms of language skills. However, they stated that males were more anxious in case of communication and tests whereas females showed more anxiety in English classes and fear of being negatively evaluated.

Comparing the anxiety in ESL classrooms and mainstream situations, a significant relationship was found between achievement and English language anxiety (Pappamihiel, 2002). She believed that as achievement increased anxiety decreased, and academic sources such as English classes increased anxiety, too. Arnaiz and Guillén's (2012) study investigating the foreign language anxiety regarding individual differences indicated that participants showed an average level of anxiety in which females were more anxious than males; and that lower level students proved to be more anxious.

Cheragian et al. (2008) conducted a research investigating the relationship between test anxiety and educational performance among university students. Their findings pointed out that most of the students had low and moderate levels of anxiety. Also, they found no significant relationship between test anxiety and the students' total average score; however, high anxiety led to an increase in the students' poor performance. The researchers suggested that in addition to special attention to this problem, more studies should be conducted to identify the related causes and provide strategies for decreasing anxiety among students (ibid).

Another study carried out in the psychiatry clinic of Mashhad University of Medical Sciences investigated the group therapy based on the overall consciousness through study skills in decreasing the students' test anxiety. The results showed that the group based on overall consciousness in experimental group had less anxiety in the examinations compared with the group based on study skills in control group (Ataei Nakhaei et al., 2010).

This study is an attempt to investigate the present state of art regarding anxiety among the students at Gonabad University of Medical Sciences and its relation with their achievement in examinations. Accordingly, the following research questions and null hypotheses were put forward:

E. Research Questions

Q1: Is there any relationship between the students' anxiety and their achievement in examinations?

Q2: Is there any relationship between the students' anxiety and their achievement in examinations regarding gender?

Q3: Is there any relationship between the students' anxiety and their achievement in examinations regarding the components of anxiety?

F. Null-hypotheses

H_o1: There is no relationship between the students' anxiety and their achievement in examinations.

H_o2: There is no relationship between the students' anxiety and their achievement in examinations regarding gender.

H_o3: There is no relationship between the students' anxiety and their achievement in examinations regarding the components of anxiety.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The participants were a convenient sample of 258 freshmen of both genders (193 females and 79 males). They majored in nursing (N=27), operating room (N=26), general health (N=27), environmental health (N=25), professional health (N=24), midwifery (N=26), laboratory sciences (N=25), anesthesia (N=28), emergency (N= 35), and medicine (N=27) courses at Gonabad university of medical sciences, Gonabad, Iran. They were aged from 18 to 22 years old.

B. Instrumentation

The data were collected using two instruments. First, we employed the Persian version of Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale questionnaire (FLCAS) which was completed during the term to determine the level of anxiety based on a five-point Likert scale (ranging from completely agree to completely disagree). This scale was a 33-item questionnaire whose items were categorized into five subsections, namely, communicative anxiety, fear of negative evaluation, test anxiety, and anxiety of English class or classroom. Specifically speaking, the questionnaire included 33 statements which fell into the following categories: 8 items (1, 9, 14, 18, 24, 27, 29, 32) were related to communication anxiety, 9 items (3, 7, 13, 15, 20, 23, 25, 31, 33) to fear of negative evaluation, and 5 items (2, 8, 10, 19, 21) to test anxiety. With regard to 11 items remained, they were classified as a group named anxiety of English classes (Zhao, 2007). The reliability of this scale was determined in a pilot study prior to data collection (r=.89).

The second instrument was an achievement test (hereafter, AT) which was administered for general English and pre-requisite English courses at the end of the term. The general English test consisted of some subsections including vocabulary (in forms of matching and fill-in-the-blanks items), grammar (in form of open-ended questions), translation (in forms of word meaning and sentence translation), and reading comprehension (in forms of multiple-choice, true/false, and essay-type questions). The pre-requisite English test encompassed three subsections, namely, multiple-choice questions (N=40), unscrambling the sentences (N=4), and open-ended ones (N=4).

C. Procedure

Several steps were taken in this study. First, the English version of the FLCAS had to be translated into Persian. In so doing, the questionnaire was given to three university teachers holding MA degrees in TEFL for translation into Persian. Then, the researcher himself compared the translations and decided on better translations for items and made some modifications where necessary. Later, the final version was administered to a group of 114 freshmen who were similar to the target population in a pilot study at Gonabad University of Medical Sciences and a reliability index of .89 was obtained. Later, this newly-translated and reliable questionnaire was administered to 258 freshmen majoring in different fields of medical sciences at the same university during the term. And finally, the participants sat for the achievement test which nearly took 65 minutes to be answered at the end of the term.

D. Data Analysis

To investigate whether there was any relationship between the students' level of anxiety and their performance on the achievement test, some statistical analyses, such as correlation, t-test, and some descriptive statistics (means and rank ordering) were performed using SPSS software V.19.

IV. RESULTS

The above-mentioned analyses are presented below under inferential and descriptive statistics titles.

A. Inferential Statistics

As for the first research question, a correlation was carried out between the participants' scores on the AT and the FLCAS questionnaire. The obtained results revealed a significantly negative correlation coefficient (r=-0.348). So, the first null hypothesis was safely rejected (See Table 1).

TABLE I.
THE CORRELATION BETWEEN THE AT AND THE FLCAS QUESTIONNAIRE

		AT	FLCAS
AT	Pearson Correlation	1	-.348**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	258	258
FLCAS	Pearson Correlation	-.348**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	258	258

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Regarding the second research questions, a t-test was run between the participants' scores in the AT and FLCAS regarding gender. The results (Table 2) point out that the males and females' performance was different while no significant difference was found between the two genders in FLCAS questionnaire. Hence, the second null hypothesis was rejected.

TABLE II.
THE T-TEST RESULT BETWEEN THE AT AND FLCAS REGARDING GENDER

Instrument	Gender	N	Mean	SD	t-value
AT	Male	90	14.5833	2.3035	.042**
	Female	168	15.1830	2.2158	.045**
FLCAS	Male	90	92.1556	20.3187	.085
	Female	168	96.9524	21.7604	.080

** $p<0.05$

With respect to the third research question, that is, to investigate which component of the FLCAS influenced the participants' test achievement more, some correlational analyses were performed, the results of which indicated that all the components significantly and negatively affected the students' score on the AT. Table 3 delineates the results based on which the third null hypothesis was rejected.

TABLE III.
THE CORRELATION RESULT BETWEEN THE FLCAS COMPONENTS AND THE AT

FLCAS Component	Correlation Coefficient
Communication Anxiety	-0.26**
Fear of Negative Evaluation	-0.35**
Test Anxiety	-0.34**
Anxiety of English Classes	-0.32**
English Classroom Anxiety	-0.36**

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

B. Descriptive Statistics

At first, the subjects' performance in FLCAS components is presented with regard to gender through mean, and SD. The results indicate that the females' mean and SD exceed those of males except for English Classroom Anxiety; and "Fear of Negative Evaluation" obtained the highest mean, while "English Classroom Anxiety" enjoyed the lowest mean. Table 4 displays the results.

TABLE IV.
THE PARTICIPANTS' PERFORMANCE IN FLCAS COMPONENTS REGARDING GENDER

FLCAS Component	Gender	N	Mean	SD
Communication Anxiety	Male	90	2.83	.68
	Female	168	3.03*	.69**
Fear of Negative Evaluation	Male	90	2.84	.76
	Female	168	3.10*	.80**
Test Anxiety	Male	90	2.70	.81
	Female	168	2.80*	.84**
Anxiety of English Classes	Male	90	2.85	.55
	Female	168	2.92*	.59**
English Classroom Anxiety	Male	90	2.61	.84
	Female	168	2.55	.84

*. Higher mean
**. Higher SD

Next, the mean and the SD of the components of FLCAS were calculated to explore which component enjoyed the highest mean and SD. So, the components were rank ordered based on the means differences. Table 5 exhibits the results.

TABLE V.
THE RANK ORDER OF THE FLCAS COMPONENTS

FLCAS Component	N	Mean	SD	Rank Order
Communication Anxiety	258	2.96	.69	2
Fear of Negative Evaluation	258	3.01	.80	1
Test Anxiety	258	2.76	.83	4
Anxiety of English Classes	258	2.89	.58	3
English Classroom Anxiety	258	2.57	.84	5

Then, based on the above ranks, the components were presented to examine which items in each component obtained the highest mean and SD. The results are presented in Tables 6-10.

TABLE VI.
THE MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION OF FEAR OF NEGATIVE EVALUATION IN FLCAS

Item	Fear of Negative Evaluation (9 items)	Mean	SD
3	I tremble when I know that I'm going to be called on in language class.	2.28**	1.18
7	I keep thinking that the other students are better at languages than I am.	3.07	1.17
13	It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my language class.	2.78	1.31
15	I get upset when I don't understand what the teacher is correcting.	3.10	1.05
20	I can feel my heart pounding when I'm going to be called on in language class.	3.14	1.30
23	I always feel that the other students speak the language better than I do.	2.84	1.12
25	Language class moves so quickly I worry about getting left behind.	3.12	1.11
31	I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak the foreign language.	2.65	1.16
33	I get nervous when the language teacher asks questions which I haven't prepared in advance.	3.60*	1.05

*The item with the highest mean
**The item with the lowest mean

TABLE VII.
THE MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION OF COMMUNICATIVE ANXIETY IN FLCAS

Item	Communicative Anxiety (8 items)	Mean	SD
1	I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in my foreign language class.	3.11	1.18
9	I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in language class.	3.63*	0.99
14	It would not be nervous speaking in the foreign language with native speakers.	3.06	1.09
18	I feel confident when I speak in foreign language class.	2.58	0.97
24	I feel very self-conscious about speaking the foreign language in front of other students.	2.37**	1.07
27	I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my language class.	2.61	1.11
29	I get nervous when I don't understand every word the language teacher says.	3.33	1.13
32	I would probably feel comfortable around native speakers of the foreign language.	3.01	1.02

*The item with the highest mean
**The item with the lowest mean

TABLE VIII.
THE MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION OF ANXIETY OF ENGLISH CLASS IN FLCAS

Item	Anxiety of English Class (7 items)	Mean	SD
4	It frightens me when I don't understand what the teacher is saying in the foreign language.	2.92	1.17
5	It wouldn't bother me at all to take more foreign language classes.	2.07**	1.02
11	I don't understand why some people get so upset over foreign language classes.	3.44*	0.98
12	In language class, I can get so nervous when I forget things I know.	3.22	1.12
16	Even if I am well prepared for language class, I feel anxious about it.	2.53	1.26
22	I don't feel pressure to prepare very well for language class.	2.98	1.15
30	I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules you have to learn to speak a foreign language.	3.05	1.11

*The item with the highest mean
**The item with the lowest mean

TABLE IX.
THE MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION OF TEST ANXIETY IN FLCAS

Item	Test Anxiety (5 items)	Mean	SD
2	I don't worry about making mistakes in language class.	2.77	1.16
8	I am usually at ease during tests in my language class.	2.16**	1.11
10	I worry about the consequences of failing my foreign language class.	2.99*	1.41
19	I am afraid that my language teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make.	2.66	1.11
21	The more I study for a language test, the more confused I get.	2.24	1.30

*The item with the highest mean
**The item with the lowest mean

TABLE X.
THE MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION OF ENGLISH CLASSROOM ANXIETY IN FLCAS

Item	English Classroom Anxiety (4 items)	Mean	SD
6	During language class, I find myself thinking about things that have nothing to do with the course.	2.62	1.14
17	I often feel like not going to my language class.	2.32**	1.11
26	I feel more tense and nervous in my language class than in my other classes.	2.50	1.13
28	When I'm on my way to language class, I feel very sure and relaxed.	2.86*	1.01

*The item with the highest mean
**The item with the lowest mean

Finally, all the FLCAS items were arranged from the highest to the lowest means. The results showed that item number 9 (I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in language class) obtained the first rank out of 33 with a mean of 3.63 out of 33 items; and item number 5 (I often feel like not going to my language class) possessed the lowest mean (2.07) which ranked 33rd.

V. DISCUSSION

As stated earlier, the study first tried to discover any potential relationship between the students' anxiety and their achievement in examinations. A second aim was to address the role of gender, and the last one was exploring the relation between achievement in examinations and the FLCAS components. Thus, in what follows these objectives will be touched upon.

In terms of the first research question, the obtained results showed a significant and negative correlation coefficient between the students' score in anxiety scale and their performance in their final examination. The finding is consistent with those of Horwitz (1986), Horwitz (2001), MacIntyre and Gardner (1994), MacIntyre, Noels, and Clément (1997), MacIntyre (1999), Zhao (2007), Pappamihiel (2002), Awan et al. (2010), Spielberger (1983), Shahnaz and Bhatti (2014), Aida (1994), Chen and Chang (2009), (Clément, Gardner, & Smythe, 1977 &1980: cited on Onwuegbuzie et al. 1999 and 2000), Horwitz (2001), and Trylong (1987), to name just a few. Accordingly, the negative effect of foreign language anxiety on achievement and language learning is also confirmed through the findings. Furthermore, we observed a negative relationship between anxiety and achievement, a finding which is in line with those of some other studies (Aida, 1994; Chen & Lin, 2009; Isselbaecher, 2004; Yan & Horwitz, 2008; Nisi and Yamini, 2009; Cheragian et al., 2008; and Yazdani & Soleimani, 2011). However, few studies reported a positive relationship between language anxiety and language achievement (Liu, 2006; Oxford, 1999).

As for the gender role, the results delineated that there was a significant difference between males and females in their achievement through which females showed more anxiety than males, a finding which is in line with those of Arnaiz and Guillén (2012), Wilson (2006), Shahnaz and Bhatti (2014), and Cheng (2002) and inconsistent with those of Campbell & Shaw (1994), Zhao (2007), and Awan et al. (2010), which showed that males experienced more anxiety than females. Still some studies like that of Yamat and Shirani Bidabadi (2012), and Aida (1994) reported no significant difference between males and females in their mean score of foreign language anxiety. The "Fear of Negative Evaluation" obtained the highest mean and rank order which corresponds with the findings of Zhao (2007) and Yamat and Shirani Bidabadi (2012).

Considering the third aim of the study, all the components of FLCAS (communicative anxiety, fear of negative evaluation, test anxiety, and anxiety of English class or classroom) significantly and negatively impacted the students' achievement in examinations. In other words, as the students' anxiety related to any of FLCAS components increased,

their scores in the examinations decreased. This finding is in accordance with those of Zhao (2007) in terms of test anxiety and anxiety of English classes, with those of MacIntyre and Gardner (1989) regarding class anxiety, and with those of Chastain (1975) in terms of test anxiety.

With regard to the descriptive statistics of the FLCAS items, the findings will be presented considering the components of FLCAS with the highest means:

In the "Communicative Anxiety" component, item 9 (out of 8 items) enjoyed the highest mean: "I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in language class" (M=3.63) and item 24 ("I feel very self-conscious about speaking the foreign language in front of other students") had the lowest mean (2.37). Both of the items indicate that speaking English especially in front of class is the most embarrassing and potential cause of anxiety something which is quite consistent with the findings of Yamat and Shirani Bidabadi (2012), Young (1990), MacIntyre and Gardener (1991 and 1994), Cubukcu (2007), Robles (2005), Jones (2004), and Awan et al. (2010).

Out of 9 items in the "Fear of Negative Evaluation" component, item 33 ("I get nervous when the language teacher asks questions which I haven't prepared in advance", M=3.60) obtained the highest mean; and item 3 ("I tremble when I know that I'm going to be called on in language class") had the lowest mean (M=2.28).

Of the 5 items in "Test Anxiety" component, the items with the highest and the lowest means were: items number 10 and 8: "I worry about the consequences of failing my foreign language class" (M=2.99) and "I am usually at ease during tests in my language class" (M=2.16), respectively. The item 8 with the lowest mean was also confirmed by Yamat and Shirani Bidabadi (2012) and Cheng (2008), Liu (2006).

Among the seven items of "Anxiety of English Class", item 11 possessed the highest mean: "I don't understand why some people get so upset over foreign language classes" (M=3.44) and item 5: "It wouldn't bother me at all to take more foreign language classes" had the lowest mean (M=2.07).

As for the "English Classroom Anxiety", the items of highest and lowest means were 28 and 17: "When I'm on my way to language class, I feel very sure and relaxed" (M=2.86) and "I often feel like not going to my language class" (M=2.32), respectively. The lowest mean found is in line with that of Yamat and Shirani Bidabadi (2012), Cheng (2008), Liu (2006) and Tsui (1996, cited in Ohata, 2005).

Considering the item means and rank orders in general, item number 9 (I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in language class.) ranked first in mean value which is in line with what Koch and Terrell (1991), Price (1991), and Young (1990) reported. On the contrary, item number 5 (It wouldn't bother me at all to take more foreign language classes) placed last which shows that students would rather not take part in any more English classes, something which may be due to their high-anxiousness in English language classes.

VI. CONCLUSION

Drawing on the above-mentioned results and discussion, we inferred the following to reduce the foreign language anxiety. Firstly, as Zhao (2007), Young (1994), and Yamat and Shirani Bidabadi (2012) contented, teachers should be supportive of students' learning processing and create a safe, relaxed, and friendly classroom atmosphere for them so that the students feel secured to express themselves orally. Secondly, as for the speaking in class, the students should not be forced to speak English or give oral presentation individually; conversely, they should be encouraged to work cooperatively in groups and participate in class discussions and not fear making mistakes (Jones, 2004), and more emphasis should be directed to listening and speaking. Hence, teachers should tolerate the mistakes made by the students and inform them that making mistakes is inevitable in learning a foreign language. Thirdly, since "Fear of Negative Evaluation" ranked first among the components of FLCAS, teachers should avoid evaluating negatively the students' manners in class as reported by Daly (1991). Fourthly, teachers should inform students that anxiety, though inevitable, is to some extent positive and facilitative; and if it exceeds a certain limit it could be negative and debilitative, both of which are almost inevitable in language learning so the students should be provided with some strategies to cope with anxiety-provoking situations appropriately so that they would not to resort to avoidance behavior, as noted by Scovel (1991). Fifthly, the students should be provided with comprehensible input geared to their level of language proficiency and capacity as Anwar et al. (2010) claimed. Last but not least, the students' culture and its disparities and commonalities with those of the target language should be taken into consideration by teachers as some individual and gender characteristics may be different from one culture to another (Ohata, 2005; Jones, 2004; Young, 1991; and Truitt, 1995). However, the readers should be reminded of the fact that the findings of this study were based on a population of Iranian EFL freshmen learners majoring in different fields of medical sciences.

APPENDIX A. THE ORIGINAL VERSION OF THE FOREIGN LANGUAGE CLASSROOM ANXIETY SCALE (FLCAS) DEVELOPED BY HORWITZ IN 1986

1. I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in my foreign language class.
2. I don't worry about making mistakes in language class.
3. I tremble when I know that I'm going to be called on in language class.
4. It frightens me when I don't understand what the teacher is saying in the foreign language.
5. It wouldn't bother me at all to take more foreign language classes.

6. During language class, I find myself thinking about things that have nothing to do with the course.

7. I keep thinking that the other students are better at languages than I am.

8. I am usually at ease during tests in my language class.

9. I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in language class.

10. I worry about the consequences of failing my foreign language class.

11. I don't understand why some people get so upset over foreign language classes.

12. In language class, I can get so nervous when I forget things I know.

13. It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my language class.

14. It would not be nervous speaking in the foreign language with native speakers.

15. I get upset when I don't understand what the teacher is correcting.

16. Even if I am well prepared for language class, I feel anxious about it.

17. I often feel like not going to my language class.

18. I feel confident when I speak in foreign language class.

19. I am afraid that my language teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make.

20. I can feel my heart pounding when I'm going to be called on in language class.

21. The more I study for a language test, the more confused I get.

22. I don't feel pressure to prepare very well for language class.

23. I always feel that the other students speak the language better than I do.

24. I feel very self-conscious about speaking the foreign language in front of other students.

25. Language class move so quickly I worry about getting left behind.

26. I feel more tense and nervous in my language class than in my other classes.

27. I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my language class.

28. When I'm on my way to language class, I feel very sure and relaxed.

29. I get nervous when I don't understand every word the language teacher says.

30. I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules you have to learn to speak a foreign language.

31. I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak the foreign language.

32. I would probably feel comfortable around native speakers of the foreign language.

33. I get nervous when the language teacher asks questions which I haven't prepared in advance.

APPENDIX B. THE PERSIAN VERSION OF THE FOREIGN LANGUAGE CLASSROOM ANXIETY SCALE (FLCAS) TRANSLATED AND ADAPTED FOR THE STUDY

<div dir="rtl">

پرسشنامه سنجش میزان اضطراب یادگیری در درس زبان انگلیسی

این پرسشنامه جنبه تحقیقاتی داشته و اطلاعات مربوط به شما بطور محرمانه باقی خواهد ماند. لطفا در نهایت دقت و صحت با گذاشتن ضربدر در بع جلوی هر گزینه به سئوالات آن پاسخ دهید.

نام و نام خانوادگی: رشته: سن:

۱. وقتی در کلاس زبان خارجی صحبت می کنم، هیچ وقت به خود اطمینان کامل ندارم.
کاملا مخالف هستم□   مخالف هستم□   نظری ندارم□   موافق هستم□   کاملا موافق هستم□

۲. از اشتباه کردن در کلاس زبان نگران نیستم.
کاملا مخالف هستم□   مخالف هستم□   نظری ندارم□   موافق هستم□   کاملا موافق هستم□

۳. وقتی می دانم قرار است در کلاس زبان اسم مرا صدا بزنند، لرزه بر اندامم می افتد.
کاملا مخالف هستم □   مخالف هستم□   نظری ندارم□   موافق هستم□   کاملا موافق هستم□

۴. وقتی آنچه معلم به انگلیسی می گوید نمی فهمم دچار ترس می شوم .
کاملا مخالف هستم □   مخالف هستم□   نظری ندارم□   موافق هستم□   کاملا موافق هستم□

۵. ازاینکه در کلاسهای زبان بیشتری شرکت کنم، احساس بدی ندارم.
کاملا مخالف هستم□   مخالف هستم□   نظری ندارم□   موافق هستم□   کاملا موافق هستم□

۶. در طول کلاس زبان متوجه می شوم راجع به چیزهایی فکر می کنم که هیچ ربطی به کلاس زبان ندارد.
کاملا مخالف هستم□   مخالف هستم□   نظری ندارم□   موافق هستم□   کاملا موافق هستم□

۷. فکر می کنم که همکلاسی هایم از نظر زبان از من بهتر هستند.
کاملا مخالف هستم□   مخالف هستم□   نظری ندارم□   موافق هستم□   کاملا موافق هستم□

۸. غالبا در حین آزمون زبان احساس راحتی می کنم.
کاملا مخالف هستم□   مخالف هستم□   نظری ندارم□   موافق هستم□   کاملا موافق هستم□

۹. وقتی آمادگی ندارم ولی مجبورم در کلاس زبان صحبت کنم دچار ترس و بیم می شوم.
کاملا مخالف هستم□   مخالف هستم□   نظری ندارم□   موافق هستم□   کاملا موافق هستم□

۱۰. نگران عواقب مردودی در امتحان زبان هستم.
کاملا مخالف هستم□   مخالف هستم□   نظری ندارم□   موافق هستم□   کاملا موافق هستم□

۱۱. نمی فهمم چرا بعضی ها راجع به کلاس زبان اینقدر ناامید هستند.
کاملا مخالف هستم□   مخالف هستم□   نظری ندارم□   موافق هستم□   کاملا موافق هستم□

۱۲. اگر چیزی را که می دانم در کلاس زبان فراموش کنم خیلی آشفته می شوم.
کاملا مخالف هستم□   مخالف هستم□   نظری ندارم□   موافق هستم□   کاملا موافق هستم□

۱۳. برای داوطلب شدن برای پاسخ به سئوالات در کلاس زبان انگلیسی خجالت می کشم.

</div>

کاملا موافق هستم□ موافق هستم□ نظری ندارم□ مخالف هستم□ کاملا مخالف هستم□

۱۴. صحبت کردن به زبان انگلیسی با انگلیسی زبانان باعث اضطراب و نگرانی من نمی شود.

کاملا موافق هستم□ موافق هستم□ نظری ندارم□ مخالف هستم□ کاملا مخالف هستم□

۱۵. وقتی نمی فهمم معلم دارد چه چیزی را تصحیح می کند آشفته می شوم.

کاملا موافق هستم□ موافق هستم□ نظری ندارم□ مخالف هستم□ کاملا مخالف هستم□

۱۶. حتی اگر برای کلاس زبان کاملا آماده باشم باز هم دچار اضطراب هستم.

کاملا موافق هستم□ موافق هستم□ نظری ندارم□ مخالف هستم□ کاملا مخالف هستم□

۱۷. اغلب احساس می کنم دوست ندارم در کلاس زبانم حاضر شوم.

کاملا موافق هستم□ موافق هستم□ نظری ندارم□ مخالف هستم□ کاملا مخالف هستم□

۱۸. وقتی در کلاس زبان انگلیسی صحبت می کنم نسبت به خود احساس اطمینان می کنم.

کاملا موافق هستم□ موافق هستم□ نظری ندارم□ مخالف هستم□ کاملا مخالف هستم□

۱۹. از اینکه معلم زبان تمام اشتباهات مرا تصحیح کند هراس دارم.

کاملا موافق هستم□ موافق هستم□ نظری ندارم□ مخالف هستم□ کاملا مخالف هستم□

۲۰. وقتی نزدیک است که اسم مرا در کلاس زبان صدا بزنند قلبم به تپش می افتد.

کاملا موافق هستم□ موافق هستم□ نظری ندارم□ مخالف هستم□ کاملا مخالف هستم□

۲۱. هرچقدر بیشتر برای آزمون زبان مطالعه می کنم، گیج تر می شوم.

کاملا موافق هستم□ موافق هستم□ نظری ندارم□ مخالف هستم□ کاملا مخالف هستم□

۲۲. برای اینکه خیلی خوب در کلاس زبان آماده شوم هیچگونه فشاری برمن وارد نیست.

کاملا موافق هستم□ موافق هستم□ نظری ندارم□ مخالف هستم□ کاملا مخالف هستم□

۲۳. همیشه احساس می کنم همکلاسی هایم بهتر از من انگلیسی صحبت می کنند.

کاملا موافق هستم□ موافق هستم□ نظری ندارم□ مخالف هستم□ کاملا مخالف هستم□

۲۴. از اینکه جلوی همکلاسی هایم به انگلیسی صحبت کنم خیلی خجالت می کشم.

کاملا موافق هستم□ موافق هستم□ نظری ندارم□ مخالف هستم□ کاملا مخالف هستم□

۲۵. درس زبان آنقدر سریع به پیش می رود که گاهی می ترسم ازدرس عقب بمانم.

کاملا موافق هستم□ موافق هستم□ نظری ندارم□ مخالف هستم□ کاملا مخالف هستم□

۲۶. نسبت به سایر کلاسهایم در کلاس زبان خیلی بیشتر نگران و مضطرب هستم.

کاملا موافق هستم□ موافق هستم□ نظری ندارم□ مخالف هستم□ کاملا مخالف هستم□

۲۷. وقتی سر کلاس زبان صحبت می کنم مضطرب و مشوش می شوم.

کاملا موافق هستم□ موافق هستم□ نظری ندارم□ مخالف هستم□ کاملا مخالف هستم□

۲۸. هنگام رفتن به کلاس زبان، احساس اطمینان و آرامش خیال می کنم.

کاملا موافق هستم□ موافق هستم□ نظری ندارم□ مخالف هستم□ کاملا مخالف هستم□

۲۹. وقتی تمام کلماتی را که معلم می گوید نفهمم آشفته می شوم.

کاملا موافق هستم□ موافق هستم□ نظری ندارم□ مخالف هستم□ کاملا مخالف هستم□

۳۰. از تعداد زیاد قواعدی که برای یادگیری یک زبان خارجی لازم است احساس ناتوانی به من دست می دهد.

کاملا موافق هستم□ موافق هستم□ نظری ندارم□ مخالف هستم□ کاملا مخالف هستم□

۳۱. وقتی به زبان خارجی صحبت می کنم می ترسم دیگر دانش آموزان به من بخندند.

کاملا موافق هستم□ موافق هستم□ نظری ندارم□ مخالف هستم□ کاملا مخالف هستم□

۳۲. احتمالا از بودن و صحبت کردن با انگلیسی زبانان احساس راحتی می کنم.

کاملا موافق هستم□ موافق هستم□ نظری ندارم□ مخالف هستم□ کاملا مخالف هستم□

۳۳. وقتی معلم سوالی بپرسد که خود را برایش آماده نکرده ام دچار اضطراب می شوم.

کاملا موافق هستم□ موافق هستم□ نظری ندارم□ مخالف هستم□ کاملا مخالف هستم□

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Validation of an Oral English Test Based on Many-faceted Rasch Model[*]

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Abstract—**This Study investigates the validity of an English Oral English Test from three aspects: raters, examinees, and task difficulty based on the theory of Many-faceted Rasch Model by using FACETS. The results show that there exist significant differences in the examinees' oral ability and that raters' rating has good internal self-consistency, but there is significant difference in their severity and that tasks are significantly different in difficulty and that the differentiation is good enough to distinguish the examinees' ability. In general, the good validity of the Oral English Test is provided, but the process of the examinees' performance needs further study.**

Index Terms—**oral English test, validity, Many-faceted Rasch Model**

I. INTRODUCTION

Validity is used to interpret the appropriateness of giving tests and argue the rationality and sufficiency of the test scores (Messick, 1989; APA, 1999; Zou, 2005).The research of validity is the process of verifying the various inferences and behavioral decision-makings for the test scores, based on the theoretical and empirical evidence. According to the "*Standards for Educational and Psychological Testing*" (APA, 1999), the main sources of evidence for the validity are from five aspects: test content; reaction process; the internal structure of the test; the relationship between the test scores and other external variables; consequences of the tests (Zou, 2005). The reaction process constitutes two aspects which are the candidates' psychological reaction process when their taking the tests and the raters' psychological reaction when their scoring subjective items (Jiang & Wen, 2010). Rating validity is a primary evidence to examine the efficiency of a performance assessment (Weir, 2005; Bachman, 2004). Hoyt & Kerns (1999) argue that more than one third of the test score differences are caused by the rater effects and interaction between the examinees and raters. Therefore the study on the rater effects is an important prerequisite for the interpretation for the validity of performance assessment. Most of researches on the validity of oral tests are focused on test content design, rating criteria, and organizational forms. However, few are related to the reaction process of the examinees and raters in China (Jiang & Wen, 2010).

In recent years, many researches on the language testing have been carried out based on the Many-facet rasch measurement model (Eckes, 2005; Elder et al., 2007; Jiang & Wen, 2010). Many-facet rasch measurement model is one of the measurement models of Item Response Theory and it can be realized by FACETS statistical analysis software. Many-facet rasch measurement model is prior to other measurements because it can provide test-free, scale-free and sample-free calibration of items, and the judgment for the accuracy of rating criteria and determination whether there are significant differences between the internal components of the facets and whether there is interaction between different facets. However, compared with logical analysis, correlation analysis, questionnaire and interview, this model is seldom used in the study on the validity of language testing by researchers in China (Jin & Guo, 2002; Huang, 2006; Wang, 2007). Until now, only few researchers have used many-facet rasch measurement model to make a study on the validity of some item types, such as discourse cloze test and translation test (Liu, 2005; Jiang & Wen, 2010).

II. RESEARCH DESIGN

This study aims to use many-facet rasch measurement model to explore the validity of an oral test by exploring the psychological reactions of the examinees and raters. If the data values of misfit validity are within the acceptable limit, it indicates that the test has a high fit validity (Linacre, 2008; Jiang & Wen, 2010).

A. Research Questions

The purpose of the study is to examine the validity of an oral test. The specific research questions are as follows:
(1) Are the examinees' response behaviors self-consistent in the oral test?

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(2) Are task difficulties reasonable enough to distinguish the examinees' oral performances in the oral test?

(3) Are the raters' internal rating behaviors consistent in the oral test?

B. The Participants

The English oral test is part of the university entrance examination which intends to provide references for the universities to select the talents by examining whether the examinees' oral performances have met the requirements of *The New English Curriculum Standards for Senior High School* (2007) and whether they can fulfill the tasks by applying their acquired knowledge and skills. Three item types were designed in the oral test which was "Reading aloud", "Answering questions" and "Free conversation". The face-to-face oral test was used. The trained raters were required to rate the examinees' oral performances according to the rating criteria for the tasks which consist of five scales (content, intonation and pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, and communicative strategies). The analytical approach was used. Each examinee was rated by two raters, and the two scores were averaged. In cases of extreme score differences, a third rater was required and the two scores were close to each other used as the final score. Three hundred examinees from different senior high schools and twelve raters from the universities in Shandong province were chosen as subjects. The raters had more than three-year teaching and rating experience, with 5 males and 7 females.

C. Data Collection

All the examinees took the oral test in June, 2014 and were required to complete the three tasks within 15 minutes. The two raters for each group independently rated the performance of each examinee according to the rating criteria. The maximum mark is 100.

III. Results and Discussion

The oral abilities of the examinees, raters' scores and tasks were defined as three facets in the study and many-facet rasch measurement model analysis for the oral test was achieved by using the software package FACETS (Linacre, 2008) in this study.

A. The True Measurement Value of Each Facet

Table 1 is a descriptive summary that shows the true measured values of each facet without the effect of other facets. The scale along the left side of Table 1 represents the logit scale, ranging from +4 to -3. The "Measure" in the first column of the table represents the individual scale values based on the same measurement unit "logit", which facilities the comparison and analysis of each facet. The second column of the table represents the examinees' oral performance values with the highest oral quality performer at the top and the lowest oral quality performer at the bottom, and each asterisk represents four examinees and each dot represents less than four examinees. As can be seen from the table, the values of examinees' oral abilities are ranging from -2 to +3. The third volume of the table refers to raters' severity, which is ordered in accordance with the level of severity, with the most severe raters at the top and the lenient raters at the bottom. According to Table 1, the severity value range of the raters is between -1 and +1, and the distribution is relatively concentrated, indicating that the test scores given by the raters are more consistent. The fourth column is task difficulty, according to a top-down arrangement of task difficulty. Table 1 shows the values of task difficulties are in the range of -1 and +1, with moderate difficulty, and Task 3 "Free conversation" is more difficult than Task 1 "Reading aloud" and Task 2 "Answering questions". The fifth column is the examinees' estimated score values, and the examinees with the logit zero should get roughly 84.5 points, and the highest score that the examinees obtain is 98 and the lowest score 62.

TABLE 1.
EXAMINEES, RATERS, AND TASKS SUMMARY REPORTS

Measr	examinees	-raters	-difficulty	Scale
4		+		(98)
		|		
	.	|		---
		|		96
	.	|		
		|		---
	.	|		95
3	*	+		
	***.	|		---
	.	|		94
	*.	|		93
	*	|		---
	.	|		92
	.	|		91
2	.	+		90
	*.	|		---
	*.	|		
	*.	|		89
	***	|		---
	.	|		
		|		88
1	*.	+		
	.	|		---
	.	|		87
	.	|	Task 3	---
	****.	|		
	******.	|		86
	********.	R1 R11 R12 R2 R5 R6		85
* 0	* ********.	* R10 R9	*	* --- *
	******.	R3 R4 R8		84
	*****.	R7	Task 1 Task 2	83
	**.	|		---
	*.	|		82
	.	|		81
	**.	|		---
-1	.	+		80
	.	|		79
	.	|		78
	.	|		77
		|		75
		|		74
	.	|		71
-2	*.	+		70
		|		69
	.	|		68
		|		66
		|		---
		|		
		|		65
-3	+	+		(62)
Measr	* = 4	-raters	-difficulty	Scale

B. Examinees' Oral Performance Analysis

Table 2 shows the overall measure of the examinees' oral performances. In other words, it presents the examinees' oral ability. The average of the actual examinees' score given is 85.45, and the average of the estimated score calculated by Rasch model is 85.54, with a difference of 0.09, which indicates the average score actually given by the raters is roughly the same as estimated. Separation represents the differences of examinees' abilities, and larger values indicate greater differences between the examinees' abilities. If the value of separation is more than 2, it means that there exists a significant difference between the individual examinees. The value of separation in Table 2 is 5.60, showing that there are significant differences between the examinees' abilities in this text. "Reliability" here refers to the reliability of separation index, instead of inter-rater reliability. Cronbach ranges from 0 to 1, and the larger value means that the greater difference between the candidates' abilities. The reliability of separation index in Table 2 is 0.97, indicating that there is a great difference between the examinees' abilities. The Chi-square test can be used to examine the significant degree of the differences so that the judgment can be made statistically on the differences between the examinees'

abilities. In table 2, the Chi-square value is significant at p=.00, showing there are significant differences between the examinees' abilities, which is the requirement for large-scale examinations.

TABLE 2.
EXAMINEES' MEASUREMENT REPORT

Mean	Observed average	85.45
	Fair（Mean）average	85.54
Separation	Separation	5.60
	Reliability	.97
Chi-square	significance(probability)	.00

TABLE 3.
THE CASES OF THE EXAMINEES' PERFORMANCE REPORT

Examinee	Observed average	Fair (M) average	Measure	Infit MnSq	ZStd	Outfit MnSq	ZStd
21	96.00	96.30	3.68	.47	-.7	.44	-1.0
151	96.00	95.68	3.37	.43	-.8	.41	-1.0
270	84.50	85.10	.14	.38	-1.2	.38	-1.2
1	83.17	83.66	-.17	.19	-2.0	.19	-2.0
245	71.50	70.75	-1.94	.23	-1.7	.32	-1.3
79	69.83	67.49	-2.25	.40	-1.0	.41	-.8

Table 3 shows the data for the cases of the examinees' performances. The columns of the table from the first to the eighth are as follows: the numbers of the examinees, the average scores given by the raters, the true values calculated by the rasch model, the true values of the examinees' abilities, the weighted mean square fit statistics, standard fit data with the normal distribution, conventional (unweight) mean square fit statistics, standard fit data with the normal distribution (unweight). The two fit statistics--infit and outfit in the fifth column and seventh column show the consistency of the examinees' individual behavior (Linacre, 2008). High infit statistics are a little more problematic compared with high outfit statistics which are more sensitive to extreme scores. Linacre recommends that its critical range should be between 0.5 and 1.5. The statistics in the sixth column and the eighth column are supplement to the fit statistics in the fifth column and seventh column, whose absolute value is less than 2 or 3, indicating the examinee individual behaviors are fit for the Rasch model (Linacre, 2008). In Table 3, the fit statistics show that the examinees' performances fit the model and infit and outfit values are within the acceptable range (0.5-1.5) and that the separation index of the measure (5.60, in Table 2) exceeds the minimum limit of the acceptable score 2.0 to separate the examinees' oral abilities.

TABLE 4.
EXAMINEES ABILITY FIT STATISTICS

Fit range	No. of examinees	Infit MnSq	No. of examinees	Outfit MnSq
Fit<0.5	19	6.33%	19	6.33%
	11	3.67%	9	3.00%
0.5≤Fit≤1.5	232	77.33%	234	78.00%
Fit>1.5	23	7.67%	23	7.67%
	15	5.00%	15	5.00%

The examinees' abilities fit statistics are shown in Table 4, with an average score 84.5 of the examinees as a critical line. The examinees whose scores were higher than 84.5 points were regarded as high ability examinees and lower than that score were considered as low ability examinees. Based on Table 4, 7.67% higher ability examinees' weighted mean square fit values were greater than 1.5. The possible reason might be that they were too nervous or showed contempt for the test, resulting in an unexpected loss of points. 5.00% of the lower ability examinees' weighted mean square fit values were greater than 1.5. They might be in good mental state in the test or the topics in the test were quite fit for them, leading to their better performances and gained unexpected scores. Another 10% of the examinees' weighted mean square fit values were less than 0.5. It was probable that they took indifferent attitudes towards the test and slipped off during the test. In general, 22.67% of the examinees' actual performances were not consistent with the estimated ability of the examinees that was beyond the acceptance limit 2.00%, which indicates that the occurrence of the self-inconsistencies in the examinees' behaviors.

The misfit statistics about the examinees, as well as the corresponding task and raters are shown in Table 5. Data indicates that the internal inconsistencies in the examinees' response behaviors were closely related to Task 1 "Reading aloud" and Task 3 "Free Conversation". What happened to the examinees when they were doing the tasks and what psychological factors caused their different behaviors, which need deeply qualitative analysis to find out the reasons for their better performances and worse performances through interviews, observations, questionnaires, thinking aloud and other qualitative data. If necessary, the deviation analysis was to be done that was beyond the scope of the validity study, which was not touched in the paper.

TABLE 5.
MISFIT STATISTICS OF THE EXAMINEES

Cat	Score	Exp.	Resd	StRes	Num	exam	Nu	rat	N	criter
70	67	77.3	-10.3	-5.0	237	S237	10	R10	1	Task 1
70	67	77.2	-10.2	-4.9	7	S7	2	R2	1	Task 1
70	67	77.2	-10.2	-4.9	107	S107	6	R6	1	Task 1
70	67	77.2	-10.2	-4.9	257	S257	12	R12	1	Task 1
94	90	84.1	5.9	4.4	82	S82	4	R4	3	Task 3
94	90	84.1	5.9	4.4	177	S177	8	R8	3	Task 3
94	90	84.1	5.9	4.3	47	S47	2	R2	3	Task 3
94	90	84.1	5.9	4.3	147	S147	6	R6	3	Task 3
94	90	84.1	5.9	4.3	212	S212	10	R10	3	Task 3
94	90	84.1	5.9	4.3	297	S297	12	R12	3	Task 3
81	77	83.2	-6.2	-4.1	206	S206	10	R10	1	Task 1
81	77	83.2	-6.2	-4.0	41	S41	2	R2	1	Task 1
81	77	83.2	-6.2	-4.0	76	S76	4	R4	1	Task 1
81	77	83.2	-6.2	-4.0	141	S141	6	R6	1	Task 1
81	77	83.2	-6.2	-4.0	291	S291	12	R12	1	Task 1
81	77	83.1	-6.1	-3.9	171	S171	8	R8	1	Task 1
83	79	84.1	-5.1	-3.8	47	S47	1	R1	3	Task 3
83	79	84.2	-5.2	-3.8	82	S82	3	R3	3	Task 3
83	79	84.1	-5.1	-3.8	147	S147	5	R5	3	Task 3
83	79	84.2	-5.2	-3.8	177	S177	7	R7	3	Task 3
83	79	84.1	-5.1	-3.8	212	S212	9	R9	3	Task 3
83	79	84.1	-5.1	-3.8	297	S297	11	R11	3	Task 3
86	82	71.6	10.4	3.2	7	S7	1	R1	3	Task 3
86	82	71.6	10.4	3.2	107	S107	5	R5	3	Task 3
86	82	71.5	10.5	3.2	237	S237	9	R9	3	Task 3
86	82	71.6	10.4	3.2	257	S257	11	R11	3	Task 3
88	84	77.7	6.3	3.0	6	S6	2	R2	3	Task 3
88	84	77.7	6.3	3.0	106	S106	6	R6	3	Task 3
88	84	77.7	6.3	3.0	236	S236	10	R10	3	Task 3
88	84	77.7	6.3	3.0	256	S256	12	R12	3	Task 3

C. The Raters' Severity and Their Internal Consistency

The performances of the raters were analyzed mainly from two aspects: the raters' severity and the raters' internal consistency in this study.

TABLE 6.
RATERS' MEASUREMENT REPORT

Obsvd Average	Fair(M) Average	Model Measure	S.E.	Infit MnSq	ZStd	Outfit MnSq	ZStd	Estim. Discrm	Nu raters
84.66	85.89	.13	.04	1.29	2.2	1.36	2.7	.25	2 R2
84.66	85.89	.13	.04	1.29	2.2	1.36	2.7	.25	6 R6
84.66	85.89	.13	.04	1.29	2.2	1.36	2.7	.25	12 R12
84.73	85.96	.11	.04	.95	-.3	.89	-.9	.40	1 R1
84.73	85.96	.11	.04	.95	-.3	.89	-.9	.40	5 R5
84.73	85.96	.11	.04	.95	-.3	.89	-.9	.40	11 R11
85.19	86.31	.01	.04	.95	-.3	.89	-.9	.76	9 R9
85.21	86.32	.01	.04	1.28	2.0	1.36	2.6	.55	10 R10
86.87	86.81	-.15	.04	.89	-.9	1.01	.1	.71	4 R4
86.33	86.83	-.16	.04	.91	-.7	1.01	.1	.43	8 R8
87.03	86.93	-.20	.04	.54	-4.4	.60	-3.7	.76	3 R3
86.57	87.00	-.22	.04	.54	-4.4	.60	-3.7	.41	7 R7
85.45	86.31	.00	.04	.99	-.3	1.02	.0	.90	Mean (Count: 12)
.92	.44	.14	.00	.26	2.2	.27	2.3	.01	S.D. (Population)
.96	.45	.14	.00	.27	2.3	.29	2.4	.01	S.D. (Sample)

Model, Populn: RMSE .04   Adj (True) S.D. .13   Separation 3.21   Strata 4.61   Reliability .91
Model, Sample: RMSE .04   Adj (True) S.D. .14   Separation 3.36   Strata 4.82   Reliability .92
Model, Fixed (all same) chi-square: 131.7   d.f.: 11   significance (probability): .00
Model,   Random (normal) chi-square: 10.2   d.f.: 10   significance (probability): .43

At the raters' facet, "Measure" and "Infit" are used to interpret raters' individually internal reliability. That is to say, the severer the raters are and the higher the corresponding "Measure" values are. The more lenient the raters are and the lower the corresponding "Measure" values are (Shi & Han, 2009). As is shown in Table 6, Rater 2, Rater 6 and Rater 12 were the severest and Rater 7 was the most lenient of all the raters. The separation between the raters in Table 6 was 3.21 and reliability of separation index was 0.91 and the chi-square value was significant at p=.00, indicating that there was a significant difference in raters' severity.

According to the values of Infit MnSq in the table, the infit values of Rater 2, Rater 6, Rater 12, and Rater 10 were greater than 1, indicating the rating variations by the four raters were larger than estimated by the Rasch model, which was not fit enough for the model while the other eight raters were quite different whose fit values were less than 1,

which indicated their rating behaviors were overfit for the model, whose rating variations were less than estimated by the Rasch model. However, "Infit" values were within the acceptable ranges (0.5-1.5), and central tendency or polarization phenomenon did not occur in the 12 raters' ratings, which showed that raters did distinguish the examinees' abilities reasonably. Therefore it was safe to say that there was great internal consistency in their ratings.

D. Task Difficulty

In order to learn about the differentiation of the test, the difficulties of the tasks and the rating difficulties were analyzed. (See Table 7)

TABLE 7.
TASK DIFFICULTY MEASUREMENT REPORT

Obsvd Average	Fair(M) Average	Model Measure	S.E.	Infit MnSq	ZStd	Outfit MnSq	ZStd	Estim. Discrm	N tasks
82.93	83.94	.56	.02	1.21	3.2	1.26	3.8	.82	3 Task 3
86.69	87.14	-.28	.02	.63	-6.8	.64	-6.7	.45	2 Task 2
86.72	87.16	-.29	.02	1.10	1.5	1.15	2.3	.10	1 Task 1
85.45	86.08	.00	.02	.98	-.7	1.02	-.2	.89	Mean (Count: 3)
1.78	1.52	.40	.00	.25	4.4	.27	4.7	.02	S.D. (Population)
2.18	1.86	.49	.00	.31	5.4	.33	5.7	.02	S.D. (Sample)

Model, Populn: RMSE .02   Adj (True) S.D. .40   Separation 19.70   Strata 26.60   Reliability 1.00
Model, Sample: RMSE .02   Adj (True) S.D. .49   Separation 24.14   Strata 32.52   Reliability 1.00
Model, Fixed (all same) chi-square: 1234.8   d.f.: 2   significance (probability): .00
Model,   Random (normal) chi-square: 2.0   d.f.: 1   significance (probability): .16

Based on Table 7, separation of the tasks was 19.70 and the reliability was 1.00 and the chi-square value are significant at p=.00, indicating that there were significant differences in the task difficulty, which was the basic features of tests. The values of the tasks (logit) in the column "Measure" showed the rating difficulties of the tasks. Task 3 "Free conversation" was the most difficult and the raters rated more severely in this task and it was difficult for the examinees to get more scores than estimated. And the second one was Task 2 "Answering questions" in the aspect of rating difficulty. And it was easier for the examinees to get marks in Task 1 "Reading aloud" and the raters were lenient in their ratings. However, the values of "Infit MnSq" were within the acceptable range (0.5 to 1.5), indicating there was good discrimination between the three tasks.

IV. CONCLUSION

This study analyzed the validity of an oral test from the three facets which were examinees, raters and task difficulty through many-facet Rasch Measurement Model. The results showed that there existed significant differences in the examinees' oral ability and that raters' rating had good internal self-consistency, but there was significant difference in their severity and that tasks were significantly different in difficulty and that the differentiation was good enough to distinguish the examinees' ability. In general, the good validity of the Oral English Test was provided, but the process of the examinees' performance needs further study.

The study has a positive role in the research on oral English tests, which can make up for the lack of the study on the validity of oral tests through many-facet measurement model, which can be used to examine the effects of various factors on the tests and can be widely applied in language testing. It is hoped that more scholars devote to the related research.

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Cosmology of Epics in Translation of Rig Veda

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Abstract—With comparative mythology and epics of ancient cultural ties can be realized and even this type of translation can be useful in understanding other mythologies so that, if the Mythic theme is unclear if the password by comparing other tribal myths, which is formed in the course of human life, they can be implemented and Decoding. Today, the first book of mythology studies Rig Vedic mythology that represents the Aryans, Persians and the Aryans of India shows that before the separation of the gods, myths are common in the books of The Rig Veda precedes it works. And Perhaps this is common in the literature, epics and heroic stories of the nations to achieve common cultural affinity with empathy and integrity of many may be that the points of human life and root dark many misunderstandings and even to understand the cultural differences and finding a way to achieve a sense of mythology, literature, and customs of people living today Even if the purpose of creation. Some pundits root and mythological beliefs held down while the latter are not so heavenly, celestial and human cognition dutifulness religions and gods are always relative to the distant days of mythology, Religion and gods in the path of history, thorough and deep is more.

Index Terms—cosmology, epics, Rig Veda, mythology

I. INTRODUCTION

According to the joint venture, said to be the world's civilizations Philosophical anthropology and indigenous Indian religion and mythology comprises the ancient Persians in Mesopotamia and Greece is not an exception, but this is not necessarily surprising, because all of tied of fatherland Human primate.

Several sources mentioned that the most important myths in the Zoroastrian scriptures, is the only part of the ritual remains the Sassanian era and the present day, this book is written in the general construction of the myth of the older Zoroaster is reflected. The most important part of the Gash, Zoroaster composed seventeen mentioned and that is the profound teachings are not accepted. The other part of the Holmes is written translation that the various deities of the pre-Zoroastrian belongs.

Ancient Indian scriptures, the Vedas, especially the Rig Veda collection of hymns written in a much more recent and b content and a half millennia BC. CE. Indigenous beliefs and the beliefs of the ancient Indo-Iranians back and it's preserved. Buddhism is also a set of translation of Rig Veda texts, the target is about creativity and quality.

Rig Veda also another book called the Holmes, the sum is greater than the content, principles and tenets of the Zoroastrian mythology Zoroastrian Iran before the show.

There is a significant impact on mythology, Ferdowsi is Iran's history from the creation of prose and poetry, Islam has emerged as myths and historical events, has stated, so that a lot of the gods, such as myths or Champions Historical kings or heroes appear. In the spirit of Zoroastrian texts is reflected beautifully in the ground battle between good kings and tyrants, cosmic battle between good and evil, there is a myth.

But there are other sources, that the inscriptions of the kings of Persia, and the East expert reports by foreign authors, works of art, coins, reliefs and other antiquities to be seen or even mention or hint of the mythical allusions.

Spring believes in all document links between culture and the native culture of Iran. And There are Mesopotamia. Median Mesopotamian culture in the third millennium. Through the plateau of Iran and the Persian Gulf and Oman Sea The context is the document. Course, some religious traditions and hero of the Aryans to Iran and India, which dates back to the era, that of their Iranian plateau, East especially Iran and the document context The relationship between old and have deep., For example, the relationship between mythic narrative epic "Ramah and Siavash" That there are plenty of similarities so that there is no choice but to accept a single source.

Siavash Ramah with both black and color of life The basement can be a barrier to having Namadrany throne and banished them to plant and grow the pace of Ramah and Siavash blood and martyrdom, both characters go into the basement, The sign can be the root of these stories.

Of course this is not the Vedic traditions and beliefs of their ancient traditions and mythology is full of brahmacharya and the rise in Iranian mythology, Native mythology associated markers in the context of the document and the Iranian Aryans existed. Yet another example of the relationship Aryan culture in the context of document With a huge and ancient indigenous cultures and the culture of Mesopotamia, Iran Change is the same in the two regions mythology is Bvjvdamdh.

The Indo-Iranian mythology (Aryans) There are two classes of gods in India "The chapter"And "Rig Veda "In Iran" The Rig Veda or Dave "They are called, Rig Veda News Most of the problems are spiritual and Rig Veda / demons, had to deal with the mundane world But after the arrival of the Aryans in the Indus and five Iranian Change the common

religions and the Aryan Hindus, the Aryans entered Iran. So that, in both groups the gods of good land Into two groups of good and evil gods were.

In India, "The Quran" Thanks Dave and "Rig Veda" All the gods are good, and in the picture "In the course" The gods are good, And "Demon" All gods are evil. Of course Rig Vedic aboriginal beliefs, the god of good and evil have existed before and after partial integration of indigenous culture with the Aryans, The gods are classified. This Nvyt new record in India and Iran. Civilizations of Mesopotamia and western Asia are also, So that Mesopotamian mythology. From the Sumerian era (Mid-fourth millennium BC) To the Mesopotamia period (Sixth century BC. The.) And even then, The whole of Western thought and culture Asia, Iran and the five documents at the point of impact Like two giant dragon myth that the other spouse had One of the freshwater brackish water and the other was ruled, Called the Rig Veda (female ruler saltwater) and the peso (male ruler freshwater) Lord of the parents who sacrifice the good and evil by God, the gods, the world of Is. It Myth In addition to the lands of West Asia Even in Greece, there.

In Greece, there are two giants of the Dragon "Uranus = Uranus Sky "and" Gaia Gaia = Ground "They called the other Titans, including" the translation of *wife* in a Rhea the children were born to them, Zeus "The king of clay, and the father of the deposed ruler.

II. DISCUSSION

Mythological context of our culture and the whole point was sighted in the history of human thought is, An idea that nature. Construction and property Of its own, and we can ignore the controversial speakers, Slowly building and how special it is actually closer and closer to understanding the context of visual thinking, Explore and explain many phenomena in social life. Seek profit.

In ancient creation myths "Thoughtful man" The Human Age "Palyvlytyk Paleo-litik" Sky of Stone knew the unwritten stories in popular culture, Which dates back to the period in relation to the evolution of the human brain and the livelihood of the organisms collected during the egg is floating on the ocean, and that speaks of the eggs exploding, you find that some of the myths At least not.

The Mesopotamian traditions, The beginning of a different world than the "cosmological Cosmology" Introduction to In general, it is assumed that the gods for a long time but not forever There are human and are later placed into the realm (Holmes, 2001).

Excerpts from the speech and thought and precision in its creation myth, We can obtain a more comprehensive analysis. All this story its a fact clearly shows its myth as a reality that exists independently of the idea of self-mythology in the passage of and we can make cultural heritage ignore Definition difference And Many found announcers phenomena of life seek profits. now without any claim of bringing together iconic examples have Just from what we are trying to express a truth, it is a myth.

The myth Hindi, Creation of expression is thus: Golden eggs in this world, and the fire After thousands of years, floating on the ocean and into the early explodes, The server spirit indeed is the spirit world and "Porsche" name comes from. Porsche has their own sense of two halves To, Half male and half female and half the board itself and blends of different organisms over time everything comes and goes from being a resident.

At Rig Veda Human and animal forms builder and maker is God and God of software longevity and power generation in the embryo and fetus is a grower and gain her whole life, and even heaven and earth is locked.

Origin of the universe Rig Veda Instead of the myth's point To be discussed, is based on a philosophical basis, the ' Bra Rig Veda hymn "And the commentators' Rig Veda »Or« Brahma "Personal Name Who is the Creator of all things. Rig Veda "I created and is point and hope that the Sand He is remembered as the first seeds of the Vedas, but the quality of the emergence of a contradiction there, So that the gods of the Rig Veda, sometimes one and sometimes the universe came into existence.

In this translation, in the period from Rig Veda of this material is also a victim of a fire is indeed the world Earth in its fuel and fire smoke and flames overnight Flares and moon and stars of the coal.

Believe in the myth, the man and the universe are one and the two are not separate nature and human nature in ancient beliefs and symbols can be varied phenomena of nature and the origin of creation, So that every member of His Body is a natural match very. Besides narrating the book (which is an invaluable treasure) Introduction creation mythology aspect of the Satan provide visibility yellow Will grow to the extent that such Hormozd creatures, earth and sky, plants ... the limbs The Hormozd, Shows that the point is that symbols and elements of nature. The nature of the light beam Hormozd and Foroughi infinite He is.

Another story of an Indian myth is investigated through the translation of Rig Veda.

Narayana is the world's oceans, initialization and finds the shape of his mouth words he wanted The language of life, water , From his nose Ferris , The pupils of his eyes and the ears of the sun and sky Rig Veda its shrines and clouds and rain and ... The phenomenon is . It combines the Stone Age to the Iron Age myths narrative has its place.

Iranian mythology can be divided into three periods: ancient (Including basic mythology, Rig Veda, Zoroastrianis, The Middle Period (including Rig Veda mythology, Zoroastrian, Manichaean) and new (The defeat of the Persian Sassanids and Muslim). But in the new era of Persian mythology accept new forms in the Iranian culture. (40/6)

The evolution of the Aryan mythology, Which is a joint Indo-Aryan mythology. Migration of the Iranian plateau are most important. In this period, the native land of the Aryans as the Qa his neighbor and the belief in two gods: Good

(Rig Veda News) And evil gods (Rig Veda News), Evolve, they migrate before the Aryans India and Iran, "Dyvh to" worship as their Lord and proximity to civilization. Mesopotamia was ineffective in this transformation, but a detailed discussion of the topics listed Gods.

Based on the life of the Zoroastrian faith As mentioned in the Pahlavi books, twelve thousand years is divided into four periods of three thousand years old during the first three thousand years, all the creatures of Rig Veda "Menu" There were so interpreted that to mean that Buddhism "Without thought and without moving and impalpable" There were. At the beginning of the second millennium Rig Veda my three border of the darkness came the light. Ormazd who are at risk of seeing their world with which Rig Veda covenanted to fight for nine thousand years delay. Ormazd himself knew full knowledge that at the end of the term, the devil will stand up. Ormazd then read the prayer, "The Huns and the", Rig Veda in my unconscious for three thousand years, and he remained in a state of unconsciousness. The creation of Ormazd as three thousand years of the world's Menu (Material or imagined) out, but all were still in place with no movement. Because I came to the AHAR The first three of the third millennium, Invaded the skies of the time of incorporation was. At this time everything was moved to the present form of the Srevealed.

In the ancient myth of the divine wisdom quotes (To 44) Reads as follows: "Sky Land and water, and the bird is like the curve is. Eggs on the ground so that the sky and the land surrounding it, such as egg yolk is the point. "The myth begins with the spread of Neolithic farming and transformed human livelihoods, Creation Candy Man is also part of the human form and the Board's policy and called Rig Veda have two branches The age of the plant Rig Veda and The nodes.

Rig Veda research in the book of myths, Rig Veda first part, I wrote:

"Proudly presents because the fire ember [Rig Veda World On] Make it clear that the bank created and all the creatures that built and since [It [Rig Veda was, Then it [Three thousand years into the tone of the [state] tson picked and [It [Rig Veda was added and better .... So a [Creatures that [T Hemi made its first created the heavens and his head is white and wide and high-gain Bgyn gem against , The equivalent width of the depths of her Rig Veda with creatures [her] in [it] sits He created the earth with their feet It is located in the mountains. [As [Essence, Ember] In the [Frvnhad and mountains The essence of the reed Rig Veda Created water .... the tears, the [Part of the [It is land and Rig Veda [Part of the [It] Ground [And that] Part of the [Drvay (= space) and move Baystand The hair stood up .... He created the plants, and the first one stems, As long as there is a b d (= span) and two fingers, and the point of The plant was Unless a, and It To the Rig Veda the lab Created over.

And created the cow and the right hand side of a translation over, he The Five of the high and wide ... And type of sheep (animals) then drop built Hormozd . He created the idea of fire and brilliance Rig Veda it clear that the goal of his people (House, 2001).

Islamic texts such as the promoters are given in Rig Veda " The first thing that God created before animals, water and the Throne was upon the water, and because God wanted to create the steam and the steam came out, and it sought heaven called on the water, the water then it Rig Veda earth did, Then got off the ground and seven Rig Veda.

Ancient Iranians thought the world round and smooth like a dish. In their view, the sky was endless space, But the essence of the world as hard as a rock of diamond coat was on and everything was quiet and harmonious. But peace with the arrival of evil (evil) in the world was broken and caused the mountain Came out of the ground, Central Alborz Mountains, which took eight years to come up from the ground.

This book is also listed elsewhere: Hrmzda Father of heaven and earth is named, and Assyrians believe that God first created the heavens and the earth. (Same / 46)

The same It is mentioned in the Babylonian creation poem. "When the It was neither heaven nor earth, Not

Depth Not have the When Espoo was the only Rig Veda... There was no time to pray, ... He had been opened, Rig Veda, In the heart "Freshwater and sacred"... Was born, when he appeared in front of them and the ghost Rig Veda the first-born son Rig Veda said "Your word is the lord of the gods arbitration , Destroys and creates: Then speak and the ghost will disappear, The words yes enter, re-appears.

Marduk the storm, Carousel ride itself was horrible, Back-end Four cast the yoke of the dreaded Four tonnes with teeth Were sharp and Marduk God went ..., Rising above the clamor, The steps Rig Veda, The lord of the Yamt to be cast into the trap And Marduk of the face and hit the Marduk. When I opened up the Yamt gaping Keshani she swallows down He drove to the mouth of the Marduk not close, C. S. to go through it into the stomach So swollen his body explodes S itself, the Yamt yawned and Thierry Marduk cast his tummy Rig Veda, Ahshaysh Rig Veda. God rest poured out of payments, Stared into his body. She thought of how gigantic bodies of the dead body and use it to create First, it is like a bivalve clam Rig Veda half of his upper point of the sky ... Among the gear Yamt The gates of the east and west Opened ... The moon was shining jewelry, Not all night. Gave birth to ... Marduk then looked to the Yamt The bitter sea floor swept, with the Spread through the thick clouds of steam Mygh, Pressed down on top of the water ... He is our God Let him name There his say ... Prime Marduk, his son Sun, And the first solar eruption ... He created man. Organisms, For his work, And gods walk free Build and break and love and should be abandoned.

"... The human body Not all the world, she is an example of a brief That everything in the universe He has been involved have created Rig Veda Bones the mountains, the water and sweat, hair, and nose, such as trees, the sky and the stars of the senses.

Creation of the world according to Egyptians: The Creation of the lotus of the heart, thus Bhast "The sea buckthorn" emerged and opened petals By Lily, The Corolla, "Ra" The delegation was shown that the tears of a child found her man (man as the son of Ra).

In some traditions, the lotus Rig Veda Ra is eye opening and closing of the day and night is visible and the same sun Ra - God of the Universe is the lotus petals, human beings and the god into the his own raises.

In the Gilgamesh myth Researchers believe that the historical king Gilgamesh Sumerian city probably Rig Veda, early period of the First Dynasty. However, it certainly can be said, in the name of God in the Sumerian Gilgamesh already in some places, are worshiped (Kamali, 2008). The legend of King Gilgamesh of Rig Veda also mentioned.

The Old Babylonian period, stories about Gilgamesh, and his adventures in a few carefully Rig Veda poem is described. However, a complete version of the famous twelve disc Rig Veda pieces are obtained, with an introduction to lose a loved Gill, a great warrior, a third Rig Veda and God begins. An allusion to the king of cruelty, there is usually either forced or compulsory labor as citizens Rig Veda sexual cruelty, the mass of the people, are interpreted. 'Cause Anu "(God of heaven) to curb the excesses, Rig Veda creates a wild man bestial savagery that began to spread among the animals. However, Ankydv to Uruk and Gilgamesh is faced with after a ship that is mentioned in the second plaque, and finally triumphed with another friend and ally Gilgamesh are Gilgamesh and the liking to its mouth (Alhh City) will be rejected and his horrifying cow heaven for vengeance sends a Angydv Gilgamesh kills it. Ankydv the gods to avenge the death of dreams death of one of them decided to have a holy cow finally dies Ankydv selected. Gilgamesh's death and Merck Ankydv is depressed and feels his journey towards August Npyshty napi š ti Ut -, Wants to learn the secret of immortality, and he also ran the story of the great flood and tells him to gain eternal life.

III. CONCLUSION

Rig Veda translation refers to a legend in his book prospects, the supreme creator of the universe; the gods, the other gods disappear from the earth, and were ancestors. Legends and myths, are killed and the gods of gods. Heavenly gods were called the myth of young girls, one of the myths of Islands, New Guinea, so that a man named Ameta Back in time to hunt wild boar and it was sunk in the lake, But the sting of his teeth in his sleep the night of coconut is coconut recipe is that it employs, and the next night the same thing, and the next three days, three days later grew that. A meta-blossom tree goes up the batch process to make him drink it Ray takes blood from the mud, and after nine days on the flower girl to be his Takes the wraps of palm leaves. These are the fashion and take him to the dance and the dancers are men But after nine days in the middle of the pit men during her dancing and threw it in the pit were plastered and stomp on it. The Meta When visibility is not returned home guess he killed. Later found his body in pieces, and got it from her arm, The rest buried in different places (Holmes, 1988).

The pieces that were buried, Crops grown food to people who were unknown, and later formed the Derby and dancers to punish the murderer, Forced them out below and those that crossed the man stopped in passing, but the rest of the animal (Pig Bird Fish) or became ghost of these myths Which are important in demonstrating the viability of the said land shall be as gods, and the campaigns of murder "God temperature" The ancestors of human beings and animals is that humans can survive temperatures of God and His creatures survive the death of God and the temperature , Their existence, and how different types of The talk: Underground realm of the dead Plants and animals hidden in this way makes life and death These partners are.

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Metaphors of Learning Chinese Students Live by

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Abstract—In Postman's classic book *The End of Education. Redefining the value of the school*, he stated that "... definitions, questions, metaphors — ... are three of the most potent elements with which human language constructs a world view" (Postman, 1996, p.175). The application of metaphor into education language provides us with a better understanding of the learning activity. This metaphorical language has significant values because of its rich and unique implications, which can better reflect the epistemological assumptions on learning. In this paper, embedded epistemological assumptions on the nature, the practice and the aims of learning are conveyed via metaphorical models. To present historical continuity, the paper mainly analyzes some conventionalized metaphorical structures of learning in Chinese culture from a diachronic perspective. Conceptualization of learning relates deeply to the conceptualization of understanding and knowing the cultural factors. Based on metaphorical expressions and proverbs, the cultural factors causing the changes are also discussed. Through the transition of student's role in different periods, various metaphors of learning reveal the corresponding changes of learning approach, which provide a good reference for future education reform.

Index Terms—metaphor, learning, conceptualization, student's role, cultural factors

I. INTRODUCTION

Besides the popularity arising in the researches of metaphor, more philosophers have rebuked metaphor as dangerous and unreasonable, expecting to reduce it to an unconsidered position. However, we still cannot deny its essential functions and value in structuring and reflecting our ordinary conceptual system. The application of metaphor into education language provides us with a better understanding of the educational activity. This paper tries to focus on the learning aspect of the whole activity. With the change of Chinese student's role in different periods, learning approach is in different forms, which are presented by various metaphors of learning. China has a large education system and a long history of learning, thus researches on Chinese beliefs and practices of learning are interesting and meaningful. In the education system, teacher and student are two indispensable participants, which the latter is focused in the paper. Metaphor is a useful means to offer valuable sources of insight for this research.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

China has a long history of early education since primitive society. A brief review of the evolution of culture and students' role in education system can enable us to understand the Chinese theories and ideas of education on one hand, on the other hand, through the overall comparison, we hope to sum up experience which can better serve the education theories and practice in the future. Chinese culture exerts significant influence on the shaping of students' role, and thus is among the elements which construct educational identities. In the research, metaphors of students' role serve a good means to represent Chinese conceptions of the participant in the education activity, which in turn represent Chinese conception of practice of learning.

A. Definition of Metaphor

To well understand the data based on metaphorical expressions and proverbs, what the metaphor is should be discussed at first. According to classical language theorists tracing back to Aristotle, a metaphor is a poetic expression mainly fulfilling the rhetoric function and having little to do with everyday language or systematic thought. However, contemporary theorists like George Lakoff (1993) are challenging this traditional view by defining metaphors as "mapping across conceptual domain" (p. 208). Lakoff (1993) further puts forward that metaphors are fundamentally conceptual rather than linguistic, and that they are originally embedded in our everyday language and experiences. There are two main roles for the conceptual domains posited in conceptual metaphors: source domain and target domain. And based on similarities, the mapping is a systematic set of correspondences that exist between constituent elements of the source and the target domain. As Petrie and Oshlag (1993) state "metaphor is one of the central ways of leaping the epistemological chasm, between old knowledge and radically new knowledge" (p.58). Even though many doubts and rebukes have been cast to metaphor by claiming that it is dangerous and irrational, we still believe in the important functions and value of metaphor. The contemporary view of metaphors we adopted here is more powerful and expansive than the traditional one, for it helps discover why we are likely to use metaphorical thinking. Different from other forms of thinking, metaphorical thinking sheds new light on the mechanism of understanding the world. The use of metaphor is by no means limited to poets or linguists, every one of us may prefer to say something about the world

with metaphorical languages on certain occasions. Through metaphor we attempt to understand some unfamiliar things or state of affairs in terms of another more familiar things or state of affairs.

B.   Association between Learning and Metaphor

There is a widespread recognition of the fact that metaphors play a significant aesthetic, ornamental and pedagogical role not only in literature but also in education. Perhaps the most basic definition of metaphor with respect to education is that seeing, describing or interpreting some unfamiliar or abstract educational phenomena, events or actions in terms of familiar or specific things, events or actions, such as "teachers are guides", "learning is an uphill battle". It is exactly the creative, innovative and interactive role of metaphor which creates the similarities between background information of the world and the understanding of some complex education phenomena. They act as powerful cognitive models through which we can better understand educational phenomena and participants by relating them to something previously experienced. In addition, a number of other metaphorical assumptions are basic to education in the comprehensive sense of the term, including the nature of humankind, of knowledge, of the school, of teaching and learning. There is a clear relationship between the metaphorical images chosen to portray the nature of education system and education phenomena. If we regard the school as a "factory", then it is easy to make a small step to think about the curriculum as guideline for "production", the teachers as factor workers, the students as "raw material" and further visualize teaching and learning as processes that are aimed at some forms of production. From the root metaphor of education as production, multiple branches of metaphors spring up, enriching the conceptual meaning and structure.

III.   THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND METHODOLOGY

Since the publication of *metaphors we live by*, we have been first aware of how pervasive metaphor is in our ordinary everyday way of thinking, speaking and acting. The author George Lakoff (1993) points out that metaphors are in nature conceptual but not linguistic, and that they are embedded in our everyday language and experiences. Conceptual Metaphor Theory puts more emphasis on the metaphorical thinking pattern, in which the set of mappings are applied to a source-target pairing linked by the analogical reasoning and inferences. This thinking pattern decides the close relation between cultural background and the application of metaphor.

Following the proper sequence of dealing with data, the author firstly collects a large amount of data, and then selects from them the most typical ones, and finally analyzes those data in detail. Data for analysis are mainly taken from conventionalized metaphorical expressions and proverbs. In the paper, some typical metaphors of learning in China are analyzed from the perspective of three different times: ancient time, modern time and contemporary time. With the variation of culture in different periods, the use of metaphor differs, which further leads to the various understanding of students' role. Therefore, it is urgent to employ the metaphorical thinking pattern to better understand the diverse change of the roles. In addition, the transformation of student's role will ultimately cause the change of forms and qualities of learning presented by different metaphors. In the end, metaphor's importance as an aid to provide better understanding of conceptions and creating novel meaning and cognitive effects by connecting the known to the unknown, the physical to the ineffable are concluded through some metaphors of learning.

IV.   RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

A.   Changes on the Metaphor of Learning in China from the Perspective of Students' Role

Researches on the history of education metaphor have shown that the metaphorical images of students are concerned mainly from three aspects: nature instincts; learning attitudes and status. Those metaphorical reflections of student in education system are obviously influenced by social cultural background on one hand, and on the other hand, they lead to diverse metaphorical reflections of learning in terms of its nature, aims and processes.

1. Metaphors of learning in ancient China

Early education in China starts in primitive society. In ancient China, the nature instincts and the status of students are two important factors giving rise to the reflections of learning. The ancient sages hold different view on whether the nature of human is good or evil, based on which the learning aim, process and approach vary. Learning and teaching are two indispensable aspects in education system. Therefore, teaching also sheds a light on learning. The use of metaphor, images and analogies has a long history in Chinese learning and teaching. Most early researches have analyzed ancient thoughts of human nature from the perspective of teaching. Two basic metaphors embodied in teaching are lexicalized in Chinese: jiao-shu "teaching the book" and yu-ren "teaching the person". The former emphasizes content knowledge and the later emphasizes teaching learners how to live, through which we clarify that teachers are not just conduits of book knowledge but need to provide moral insights and guidelines necessary for proper functioning of society. Confucius, a famous educator in ancient China, put forward "teach students in accordance of their aptitude" which manifests his education principles. In the expression, students are compared to different kinds of "cai" (material) and thus the aim of education is to provide proper ways of teaching to students.

1.1 Learning is the eye of the mind

During the Spring and Autumn and the Warring States Periods, many scholars prefer to discuss the nature of students from the perspective of human nature. According to Mencius who are in favor of the theory of original goodness of

human nature, "人无有不善，水无有不下。今夫水，搏而跃之，可使过颡；激而行之，可使在山。是岂水之性哉?" (Tian & Xiao, 2005, p.21) He compares the nature of student to water, through which we can better understand his view that human nature is born to be good as water is doomed to flow down. Mencius believes that the bad humanity of some people is caused by external environment and the purpose of education is to preserve and rediscover the original goodness of mind.

Based on this cultural background, learning is the eye of the mind is much easier to illustrate. Eyes can be said one of the most important organs for our human beings, which enable us to know the world and people around us, while the eyes of the mind mainly refer to a way used for self-recognition and self-realization. In this expression, mapping learning onto eye of the mind is a Goal-oriented metaphor for learning, through which the fundamental aim of learning is emphasized. This metaphor is constructed on the similar function between learning and eyes, while the former is considered as a way to appreciate kindness with our heart and regain the original goodness of our own.

1.2 Learning is a baptism

Different from the view above, Xuncius believes in the theory of original badness of human nature by claiming"故枸木必将待巢栝、熏矫然后直，钝金必将待砻、厉然后利。"(Tian & Xiao, 2005, p. 52) He connects the conception of human nature to the metaphorical conceptions of "rotten wood" and "dull gold" in order to describe how bad the nature of human is. In his famous article "Exhortation to Learning", Xuncius further illustrates the significant functions of education from the following saying:"木受绳则直，金就砺则利"。The evil side or shortcomings of humanity and can be amended by education. In this metaphor, the target domain of learning is mapped onto a religious rite of baptizing. With the related knowledge on baptism, it's easier to figure out the interconnection between learning and baptism. Christians believe in the original sin of human and consider baptism as a symbol of cleaning this sin. Like the process, with the accumulation of knowledge and experience, learning help us overcome the original badness and weakness, making nice and wise humans.

1.3 Learning is imitating and digesting

This metaphor indicates two stages of learning with the first emphasizing the imitation from masters and the second underlining reviews on what has been learned. In ancient China, seniority means wisdom due to the influence of Confucian, and thus teachers (xian-sheng) who were born before and read more have higher status. Students are, therefore, followers of these foregoers. At that time, students imitate what their teacher offers as a model; no matter it is a book, a skill, knowledge or wisdom and then they will practice the model repeatedly and diligently. The stage of learning shares some similarities with the flying practice of little birds who imitating to flap their wings repeatedly so that they can fly like their parents. Many proverbs can also support this conceptualization. For example, "Reading the same book one hundred times would make you understand its meaning by itself." "Tempering for a hundred times makes steel." It becomes clear that the basic features of this stage are imitation and repetition and diligence.

In the metaphor Learning is digesting, the reflection process of learning is stressed and mapped onto the process of digesting food, both of which emphasize the extra efforts used to make what have gained more effective. Our ancestors have pointed out that reflection is also an essential stage to learn. If the learning only refers to imitating and memorizing without reflecting, it is deprecated as stuffing ducks, as is shown in some proverbs and expressions: "learning without reflecting gains nothing; thought without learning is dangerous." "Learning is inappropriate swallowing: swallow a date whole, without thinking."

2. Metaphors of learning in modern China

In modern China, many scholars turn to stress the important status of students in the education system by denying the previous low status of students and criticizing the receptive attitude to learning. At this period, they advocate to give more humanistic care to students, paying attention to their physical and psychological development as well as the self-enhancement through education. Considering the receptive and duck-stuffing learning style of traditional education, many scholars firstly point out its disadvantages and then put forward brave innovation on education. One famous educator Tao Xingzhi describes the traditional education with a metaphor "By offering a book to the students and asking them to recite it, the teacher becomes a producer of book shelves and those students originally different turn into similar book shelves. He appeals to bring into full play their autonomy, self-motivation and creativity." (Fang, 2005, p.175)

2.1 Learning is an unending growth

We have many common metaphors for students, such as little plants, little birds and little rivers, all of which are concerned with a process of getting bigger or growing up. Even though external stimulus can promote this process, the self-motivation is more important. Here, learning is an unending growth is elaborated by the image schema of Process. The source domain of growth reminds us of the normal growing process in nature, which share something in common with learning process. The fact that growth starts from the moment of birth and lasts the whole life manifests that learning should not be abounded in the whole life. Learning is not confined into certain time and certain knowledge; on the contrary, it involves learning from teachers, books, experience and so on. Many old proverbs have proved this modest attitude of learning: Live to old age, learn to old age. There is no stopping place for learning. Greater learning brings greater modesty: knowing that there is always more to learn drives the learner towards more learning. From another perspective, everyone will experience happiness and sadness sometimes in the growing process. Likewise, learning will bring us joy and satisfaction but also demand sweat and perseverance. Therefore, learning is portrayed as a long-term activity full of various kinds of experience and feelings.

2.2 Learning is sailing against current

Chinese always say that "Learning is like sailing a boat against the current, not to advance is to drop back". This metaphor mainly emphasizes two aspects. First of all, the process of learning is mapped on to a sport domain, which suddenly presents in front of us a thrilling confrontation of currents. As for learning, difficulties as currents are inevitable on one hand, on the other hand, the whole society is like a river, in the fast-developing period, everyone in society are trying to catch up with others through learning, so those who stop learning will fall behind from others, and gradually be excluded by the society. It is decided by the competitive nature of human and society. Secondly, sailing cannot be totally controlled by others because no one would like to leave his life to others, he should make his own decision where to go and whether to stop or not. Likewise, with the guidance of teachers and books, the aim, the means and the success are mostly determined by the learner's autonomy and self-motivation.

3. Metaphors of learning in contemporary China

Further developing the view of modern China, students' status and functions in education system as well as their diverse personalities are put in a prominent place. Correspondingly, the authoritative teachers in traditional education just turn into a guide for the students who are traveling on the road of learning. In addition, students with different personalities are compared to various kinds of trees. Under the care and influence of education, they should adopt an active attitude to select the most suitable ways and aims of learning for themselves. We may be aware of the evolution of learning from ancient to present time. Firstly, the previous low status of students is elevated to the protagonist in education system. Students' passive and receptive attitude towards learning transfers to an active one, leading them to become travelers in the learning path or players in the game. The final self-realization is based on their constructions of their knowledge, thought and personalities.

3.1 Learning is an endless journey

This is one of the dominant traditional metaphorical concepts of learning. From a traditional point of view, it underlines the path of following and imitating the teacher diligently. However, we will illustrate it from a new perspective corresponding to the innovation of education. Learning is an endless journey implies learning from two aspects: the relation between the student and the teacher and ways of learning. In the new era, the previous authoritative teacher is more like a friend or a helper who provides his experience and suggestions to the student leading them to think for themselves and make their own decisions on the way. A good teacher, as quoted in the Li Ji (the Book of Rites): in his teaching, the superior man guides his students bur not pull them along; he urges them to go forward and does not suppress them; he opens the way, but not take them to the place. Guiding without pulling makes the process of learning gentle, urging without suppressing makes the process of learning easy; and opening the way without leading the students to the place makes them think for themselves. (Jin, L. & Cortazzi 2006) In addition, the metaphorical concept of learning is elaborated by the image- schema of path on which students may meet many teachers to learn from and share their own experience and views to those teachers, too. Meanwhile, according to the different personalities and merits, students can choose different means to learn or travel. Taking a train journey, mountain climbing or even traveling on foot can be selected by every traveler himself. Therefore, in the new illustration of learning, the interpersonal aspect and the individual aspect are both highlighted.

3.2 Learning is architecture

Modernization of society has given rise to the new metaphorical concept of learning. Architecture is a useful metaphor for thinking about learning: its nature, process and aims. Architecture is a rich source of metaphors in education because the act of building is often compared to the acts of thinking and learning. The structure of architecture and the structure of learning are closely related. The knowledge, wisdom and experience need to be accumulated step by step which is similar to constructing a building. A building with a poor foundation is not well constructed and may fall apart at any time. Meanwhile, the lack of patience, proper methods and hard-working in the process of constructing or learning can result in failure. In another aspect, though the ultimate aim of constructing is the building, different materials should be put into different use in order to form various kinds of architecture. Likewise, the final aim of learning is to cultivate people and make better men. As a saying goes like a piece of jade cannot become an object of art without chiseling and a man cannot come to know the moral law without education. (Jin, L. & Cortazzi 2006) However, different people have their own ways to go and their own aims to realize in the process of learning. Learning is the only way to help people fulfill their potential and perform their functions in this society.

B.   Functions and Values of Metaphor of Learning on Chinese Education

It is important to note that there is no single metaphor that can best capture all of the complexities of the educational phenomena under research and that any phenomenon can effectively be portrayed by a multiplicity of metaphors. Learning as one process of education is also a comprehensive term, which covers the nature, attitudes, means, aims and effects. Metaphors are found in all these diverse areas of learning and they are conductive to presenting an impressive understanding of learning.

1. Providing better conceptual understanding of complex educational theories

Bullough and Gitlin (2001) claim that human beings are born into metaphorical meaning systems. It is the changed point of view in metaphors that have led to new interpretations of learning in educational system. Metaphors of learning arouse a familiar feeling from people, which is the key to better express and understand various aspects concerning learning. As part of the complex education, learning can be clarified by series of theoretical disciplines and approaches,

which is only easy for educational experts and teachers to understand. However, employing metaphor as a means to portray it can stimulate the resonance between learning and other common experiences. Therefore, metaphor enables us to pay less cognitive effort to understand complex and abstract conceptions. Chinese culture exerts significant influence on the shaping of student's role, and thus is among the elements which construct educational identities, especially learning identities. Several typical metaphors of learning accompanied some metaphorical images of students serve as a good way to conceptualize and practice learning. The choice to portray "learning" by means of these metaphors is a choice for a specific understanding of the complex concept "learning" from different perspectives.

2. Creating more meaning and cognitive effects

Metaphor combining different conceptual domains to educational domain brings about changes in the understanding of the nature of education. It not only plays a significant role on understanding of the meaning of the complex concept portrayed, but also creates more meaning on the target conception which causing more cognitive effects. For example, according to the analysis above, learning is visualized as an endless journey, on which students are the travelers, teachers are the guidance and different patterns of learning are mapped onto different ways of travel. We may notice the root metaphor "learning is an endless journey" implies a series of relevant conceptions presented by other metaphors. Here, metaphorical use is not only indicative of the long period time of learning, but that it harbors far more meaning. Compared to the direct expression "learning is an endless process", metaphorical image "journey" creates more meanings on the explanatory meaning by means of interaction in which the meaning of both the literal and metaphorical elements of the two semantic fields are mapped and related conceptions are generated. The creation of novel meaning demands extra cognitive effort to realize the optimal relevance between source domain and target domain, while the paid effort will produce unexpected cognitive effects such as a more comprehensive and impressive understanding of a concept.

V.   DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

The Chinese associations with learning stressed the social, moral and interpersonal dimensions. Conceptualization of learning relates deeply to the conceptualization of understanding and knowing the cultural factors. Metaphor is one of the powerful means to portray learning aspects implicitly assumed or explicitly acknowledged, which embodies and reflects certain underlying meanings and values. From above comparisons, we find that in Chinese educational system, traditional learning has rather negative connotations, lacking in original and creative inspiration, positive involvement, or active interaction. Students are kept passive and managed by or controlled by teachers. Even if such learning also focuses on diligence, devotion, hard-work, and commitment, we can detect in the metaphorical conceptualization of learning a tendency to cast the students into a uniform frame. The changes of the metaphor structures manifest a tendency to expect students to seek, to find and to invent what they do not yet know and finally lead them to fulfill their potential with the help of guidance and self-realization. The metaphors in later periods foreground an equal relationship between teacher and student, interdependence, autonomy and various forms of evolution on learning.

Metaphor's importance as an aid to thought and expression in a culture can hardly be overemphasized. In fact, we cannot imagine that humans could make sense of their world, especially the world of ideas, without these tools for creating meaning by connecting the known to the unknown, the physical to the ineffable, the everyday to the sublime. (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980; Lakoff & Turner, 1989; Ortony, 1979). It needs little argument that these developments in the understanding of metaphor would impact the views of students and learning. All these dimensions of learning harbor embedded epistemological assumptions and values which are conveyed to the nature, the practice and the aims of learning via metaphorical models.

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English Language Identity: Schema and Factor Based Approach

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Abstract—This study aimed to revalidate the Foreign Language Identity Scale developed by Khodadady and Navari (2012) and explore the factors underlying the construct from theoretical as well as empirical perspectives. To this end, the scale was first analyzed linguistically and cognitively by employing the microstructural approach of schema theory. The analysis showed that the scale deals basically not with *foreign* but *English* language and was, therefore, renamed as English Language Identity Scale (ELIS). It was then administered to 381 students learning English at advanced levels in nine private and semi private institutes in Mashhad, Iran. The subjection of the data to Principal Axis Factoring and rotating the extracted factors via Varimax with Kaiser Normalization showed that the 30 statements comprising the ELIS loaded acceptably on six latent variables treated as cognitive genera in the microstructural approach, i.e., Idealized Society, Idealized Opportunities, Idealized Conditions, Idealized Connections, Idealized Character and Idealized Personality. The findings are discussed and suggestions are made for future research.

Index Terms—learning, English, identity, schema

I. INTRODUCTION

The concept represented by the schema "identity" is similar to other schemata such as "language" whose meaning is, according to Brown (2007), too complex to be captured by single or one-statement definitions. Gee (2000), for example, defined identity as "particular kind of person" (p. 109) leaving it to his readers to create the kind themselves. Similarly, Piironen and Timonen (2007) approached "identity" as self-image or self-concept without specifying its features. These scholars seem to be following the macrostructural approach of schema theory and approach "identity" as a schema defined as "a conventional knowledge structure that exists in memory" (Yule 2006, p. 132) or "increasingly intricate and differentiated mental structures" (Oxford, 2002, p. 125), respectively.

Realizing the complexity involved in defining and determining the nature of "identity" as a construct, Sade (2009) followed Kramsch (2002), Larsen-Freeman (2002) and Van Lier (2004) and adopted a Chaos / Complexity view to address its nature. Surprisingly, however, instead of defining "identity" from the adopted perspective assuming "*no* [italic added] permanence in human relations, more than in the stock market, in the weather, in national 'security' and so on" (Giddens, 2002, p. 73), she resorted to the macro-structural definition of "word" offered by Bakhtin (1981) to theoretically support her chaotic position, i.e.,

all words have the "taste" of a profession, a genre, a tendency, a party, a particular work, a particular person, a generation, an age group, the day and hour. Each word tastes of the context and contexts in which it has lived its socially charged life; all words and forms are populated by intentions. Contextual overtones (generic, tendentious, individualistic) are inevitable in the word. (p. 293)

Bakhtin's (1981) predominantly socialistic view towards "words" as reflected in the concepts represented by the schemata "party", "generation", "age group" and "socially charged life" led Sade (2009) to equate "identity" with "interaction" (p. 519) which necessitates the inclusion of others in the formation of identity. She did in fact tie the existence and development of "identity" to society whose maintenance requires *permanence in human relations* and asserted that "*social* identity is marked by the interaction among the individual, the social context and the other individuals, and it is due to this interaction that new identities emerge [italics is added]" (p. 519).

The present researchers, however, disagree with a macrostructrual view towards defining and exploring "identity" and believe that the micro structural approach explains its formation and development nut intuitively but theoretically and empirically. While acknowledging the contribution of society to identity, the microstructural approach considers it as an individualistic concept first and foremost. For this very reason, microstructural studies recruit as many individuals as possible to explore "identity" (e.g., Khodadady & Navari, 2012) whereas macro structural ones confine themselves to few individuals and pass intuitive and authoritative judgments based on these non-reprehensive individuals. As an advocate of a macrostructural approach, Sade (2009), for example, employed the *narratives* of a Japanese and a Brazilian student to support her sweeping conclusions.

According to Khodadady (2013), concepts represented by schemata are acquired, classified, stored and produced together as *language* making it a "defining attribute of the individual," that "represents and mediates the crucial element of identity" (Aronin & Laoire, 2004, p. 11). The indispensible role of language in identity formation led Edwards (1985) to define sociolinguistics as a field of study which "*is essentially about identity*, its formation, presentation and maintenance" (p. 3, emphasis in original).

Microstructurally, words used in the formation of identity, i.e., schemata, not only represent specific concepts by themselves but also are combined with each other within a hierarchical relationship to establish broader and more comprehensive concepts identified as linguistic statements or cognitive species, linguistic paragraphs or cognitive genera, linguistic texts or cognitive domains (see Khodadady & Bagheri, 2014, Khodadady & Dastgahian, 2015). The schemata constituting species, genera and domains evolve through *internal* and *external* experience as individuals encounter or produce them in texts. Much of the literature focuses on the external experiences as reflected in Menard-Warwick's (2005) conceptualization of identity as "multiple, fluid, dynamic, and constituted in discourse", Gee's (2000) D-identity and Davies and Harré's (1990) notion of interactive positioning without providing any theoretical explanation to determine and explain its levels of complexity.

The *internal* experiences reflected in the schemata as they are understood or expressed by individuals in a given society are, however, as important as, if not more important than, *external* experiences reflecting power relations or authorities' interpretation of identity. Along with, if not instead of, employing the schemata employed by a few elite members of the society such as researchers and politicians describing or wielding the power structure of the society in which "identity" is said to be established, the individual members of specific domains or communities of practice such as Wenger's (2000) family and school must be asked to talk about their own identity themselves.

Moafian and Pishghadam (2008), for example, developed a 47-item scale to measure the effectiveness of English language teachers. When Feizbakhsh (2010) administered the scale to over 1000 learners of English, her results did not reveal any relationship between their teachers' effectiveness and language achievement. Khodadady, Fakhrabadi and Azar (2012) expanded their scale into the 102-item English Language Teachers' Attributes Scale (ELTAS) by including the characteristics found in evaluation forms as well as those expressed by learners themselves and reported a significant relationship between teacher effectiveness and grade three senior high school (G3SHS) students' English achievement ($r = .111$, $p<.01$). Their results also showed that out of eight factors underlying the ELTAS, six related significantly to English achievement, i.e., Qualified, Organized, Social, Lenient, Stimulating and Humanistic genera.

Similarly, no researcher, to the best knowledge of present researchers, has developed a scale such as ELTAS to measure the construct of "identity" due to following a macrostructural approach. Khodadady and Navari (2012), however, scratched the surface by limiting it to a very specific domain, i.e., foreign language identity. They asked their advanced English language (AEL) learners who they thought they were while they were learning the language, they developed and validated the 30-statement Foreign Language Identity Scale (FLIS) by pooling their answers and subjecting them to factor analysis. By replicating their study, the present project aims to find out whether the statements constituting the FLIS will generate the same factors established by Khodadady and Navari a short while ago.

II. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

Three hundred and ten female (69.8%) and 134 male (30.2%) EFL learners totaling four hundred forty four took part in the present study. They were studying English at upper intermediate (n=63, 14.2%) and advanced (n=381, 85.8%) levels at Azaran, Hafez, ILI, Jahad, Khorasan, Kish, Momtaz, Safir, and Shokouh language institutes in Mashhad, Iran in 2013. In order to control the proficiency level of participants, the responses of 265 (69.6%) female and 116 (30.4%) male learners totaling 381 were, however, analyzed in the present study. They were studying English at Azaran (n = 54, 14.2%), Hafez (n = 16, 4.2%), ILI (n = 48, 12.6%), Jahad (n = 49, 12.9%), Khorasan (n = 65, 17.1%), Kish (n = 21, 5.5%), Momtaz (n = 34, 8.9%), Safir (n = 56, 14.7%), and Shokouh (n = 38, 10.0%) language institutes in 2013. The participants were 14 to 51 years old (mean = 22.43, SD = 6.45). Among those who had specified their educational level 162 (42.5%), 22 (5.8%) and six (1.6%) were holding bachelor, master and PhD degrees in fields ranging from agriculture to sciences. Three hundred and seventeen (83.2%) were single and the rest had married (n=64, 16.8%). Out of 381, 126 (33.1) had visited Afghanistan, America, Austria, Azerbaijan, Canada, China, Dobie, England, France, Germany, India, Iraq, Italy, Lebanon, Malaysia, Qatar, Russia, Saudi Arabia, Singapore, Slovakia, Sweden, Syria, Thailand, Turkey, Turkmenistan and Uzbekistan with a duration of one to 15 days (n=86, 22.6%), one to three months (n=29, 7.6%), four months to one year (n=2, .5%) and more than one year (n=9, 2.4%). Their mother language was Persian (n=377, 99.0%), Turkish (n=3, .8%) and Arabic (n=1, .3%).

B. Instruments

Three instruments were employed in the study: a Demographic Scale, Foreign Language Identity Scale and the Cultural Intelligence Scale (CQS). This study is limited to foreign language identity because the results and findings related to the CQS are already reported by Khodadady and Hasanzadeh (2014).

1. Demographic Scale

The Persian Demographic Scale (DS) developed by Khodadady and Hasanzadeh (2014) was used in this study. It consisted of twelve short answer and multiple choice items dealing with the name of participants' language institutes, their field of study at university, year of study, age, gender, marital status, degree of education, language spoken at home, foreign languages known, travelling abroad, the countries visited and duration of visit.

2. Foreign Language Identity Scale

Khodadady and Navari's (2012) [henceforth K&N] Persian Foreign Language Identity Scale (FLIS) was used and renamed the English Language Identity Scale (ELIS) in this study. (The reason for changing the name of the scale is presented in the Discussion Section.) Upon reviewing the literature on identity, they brought up the topic in their general English classes and collected their learners' views to develop the 30-statement scale. One learner, for example, stated "speaking English makes me have a better feeling of my personality inside and outside of the class". They presented the statements with seven alternatives to 470 female AEL learners to 1) strongly disagree, 2) disagree, 3) almost disagree, 4) express no idea, 5) almost agree, 6) agree and 7) strongly agree with them. K&N's results showed that the FLIS is a highly reliable measure (alpha = .90) which consists of six factors. The sixth factor, Global Self-Expression, lacked reliability because of consisting of one statement. The fifth factor, Global Connection comprised two items and had an alpha of .38. The reliability coefficient of other four factors were .90 (Idealized Society), .85 (Idealized Communication), .81 (Idealized Means) and .70 (Idealized Opportunities).

C. Procedure

The authorities of nine private and semi-private language institutes in Mashhad, i.e., Azaran, Hafez, ILI, Jahad, Khorasan, Kish, Momtaz, Safir, and Shokouh, were contacted and their approval to administer the instruments of the study under their EFL teachers' supervision was obtained. On specified dates, the second author of the present paper attended the classes in person and distributed the instruments explaining what the participants were required to do. As they were answering the questions, she walked along the aisles drawing their attention to various sections of the scales and emphasizing the importance of their responses. She encouraged the participants to ask whatever questions they had. Other than a few questions related to the demographic section, no particular questions were raised regarding the statements of the FLIS.

D. Data Analysis

The descriptive statistical analyses of the indicators comprising the FLIS were run to determine how well they had functioned. For the ease of presentation and discussion, the seven points on the scale were reduced to three by collapsing strongly agree, agree, and almost agree to one, i.e., agree, as were almost disagree, disagree and completely disagree to another, i.e., disagree. For estimating the reliability level of the FLIS, Cronbach's alpha was employed. Principal Axis Factoring (PAF) method was utilized to determine the structure of latent variables (LVs) underlying the scale. The initial eigenvalues of one and higher were adopted as the main criterion to determine the number of LVs. The extracted LVs were then rotated via Varimax with Kaiser Normalization (VKN) to have a clear understanding of what underlies the foreign language identity of the AEL learners sampled in the study. Following Tabachnick and Fidell (2001), .32 was adopted as the minimum loading of an item and the loadings less than the minimum were removed. So were the second or third acceptable loading of an item on more than one LV. All analyses were conducted via the IBM SPSS Statistics 20 to test the hypotheses below.

H1. The 30 statements comprising the Persian FLIS will load on the same factors extracted by K&N.

H2. The factors underlying the FLIS will correlate with each other almost in the same magnitude as they did in K&N's study.

III. Results

The descriptive statistics of items comprising FLIS is presented in Table 1. As can be seen, most mean values have generally clustered above the expected value of 4. These values show that AEL learners have agreed with the majority of foreign language identity statements, i.e., 1, 3, 4, 5, 6, 8, 9, 10, 11, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 24, 28. Statement thirteen, for example, reads, "By learning English, I'd get better job opportunities and prosper". As can be seen, 91 percent of the learners have agreed with this statement (Mean = 5.92) while three and six percent have disagreed and had no idea, respectively. Similarly, 85 percent of AEL learners have agreed with statement nine, "I believe by learning English I can make more foreigner friends" (Mean = 5.67).

TABLE 1
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF ITEMS COMPRISING THE PERSIAN FLIS

Item	N	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis	Disagree %	No Idea %	Agree%
1	381	4.57	1.65	-0.048	-1.075	36	12	51
2	381	3.90	1.56	0.205	-0.652	43	24	33
3	381	4.04	1.77	0.117	-1.083	46	11	43
4	381	5.30	1.27	-0.669	0.884	7	14	79
5	381	4.66	1.48	-0.055	-0.676	22	27	51
6	381	5.40	1.59	-0.871	0.059	13	15	72
7	381	3.77	1.6	0.383	-0.51	48	26	27
8	381	4.29	1.69	0.005	-0.674	32	28	40
9	381	5.67	1.15	-0.969	1.053	5	10	85
10	381	5.13	1.54	-0.517	-0.73	20	14	66
11	381	5.30	1.69	-0.846	-0.111	16	15	69
12	381	3.77	1.92	0.152	-0.975	47	20	33
13	381	5.92	1.08	-1.373	2.87	3	6	91
14	381	5.43	1.26	-0.727	0.717	6	15	78
15	381	5.00	1.46	-0.379	-0.531	19	16	65
16	381	4.41	2.08	-0.25	-1.24	33	17	50
17	381	5.70	1.42	-1.175	1.049	7	13	80
18	381	4.66	1.5	-0.627	0.324	17	25	58
19	381	4.95	1.39	-0.492	0.333	12	23	65
20	381	4.91	1.44	-0.521	-0.034	14	25	61
21	381	4.57	1.72	-0.629	-0.551	28	13	58
22	381	4.81	1.53	-0.631	0.029	19	15	66
23	381	2.58	1.7	0.942	0.02	75	11	14
24	381	4.24	1.95	-0.079	-1.226	38	14	48
25	381	3.67	1.76	0.35	-0.765	51	20	29
26	381	3.86	1.89	0.184	-1.085	47	16	37
27	381	3.53	1.77	0.361	-0.846	53	19	28
28	381	4.10	1.79	0.065	-1.027	40	19	41
29	381	3.74	1.94	0.179	-1.167	49	13	38
30	381	2.49	1.81	1.083	0.206	77	9	14

Table 2 presents the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of Sampling Adequacy and Bartlett's Test. As can be seen, the KMO statistic obtained in this study is .91. Similar to the statistic obtained by Khodadady, Sarraf, and Mokhtari (2013) [henceforth KS&M], i.e., .92, and K&N, i.e., .94, it is in .90s. According to Kaiser and Rice (1974), KMO statistic in the .90s is marvelous and the factor analysis employed would probably provide the best common LVs. The significant Bartlett's Test of Sphericity, i.e. $p < .001$, indicated that the correlation matrix was not an identity matrix.

TABLE 2
KMO AND BARTLETT'S TEST

		This study	KS&M	K&N
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		.911	.921	.936
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	5359.786	5913.494	4569.221
	df	435	435	435
	Sig.	0.000	.000	0.000

Table 3 presents the initial (I) and extraction communalities (EC) obtained via PAF in this and K&N's study. As can be seen, the ECs of this study range between .25 (item 13 and 22) and .56 (item 29) whereas those of K&N range from .18 (item 12) to .59 (item 2). As it will be presented shortly, the relatively higher low ECs of the FLIS items in this study heralded their acceptable loadings on the extracted factors. Items having very low ECs in K&N's study, i.e., items 12 (.18) and 18 (.22), did not, however, load acceptably on any factor, indicating that the indicators comprising the FLIS attract different responses either from samples to samples or from years to years.

TABLE 3
INITIAL (I) AND EXTRACTION COMMUNALITIES (EC) OF ITEMS COMPRISING THE FLIS

Item	This study		K&N		Item	This study		K&N		Item	This study		K&N	
	IC	EC	IC	EC		IC	EC	IC	EC		IC	EC	IC	EC
1	.45	.40	.44	.45	11	.47	.52	.42	.44	21	.36	.56	.25	.24
2	.52	.47	.52	.59	12	.5	.50	.20	.18	22	.24	.21	.15	.50
3	.53	.56	.30	.36	13	.32	.30	.25	.29	23	.49	.53	.40	.47
4	.44	.39	.34	.29	14	.45	.50	.42	.47	24	.67	.64	.32	.35
5	.52	.70	.18	.22	15	.51	.51	.42	.47	25	.56	.49	.44	.55
6	.47	.60	.43	.48	16	.52	.52	.26	.23	26	.56	.58	.53	.54
7	.49	.51	.43	.47	17	.32	.36	.38	.41	27	.53	.50	.52	.53
8	.49	.53	.44	.46	18	.42	.43	.26	.26	28	.54	.53	.55	.56
9	.37	.38	.27	.37	19	.37	.41	.36	.46	29	.69	.68	.50	.48
10	.42	.50	.15	.22	20	.3	.33	.36	.35	30	.52	.52	.33	.36

Table 4 presents the rotated factor matrix of FLIS. As can be seen, all 30 items have loaded acceptably on at least one of the six factors extracted in this study. In K&N's study, however, item 12, "By learning English, I'm getting more interested in taking part in ceremonies like Christmas, Valentine, ..." and item 18, "In my dreams for reaching freedom, I believe I need knowing English" did not load acceptably on any factors. These results show that cognitive species expressed by linguistic statements contribute to different cognitive genera when they are presented to different respondents whose levels of English proficiency is almost the same, i.e., advanced, indicating that the dynamic nature of identity domain is reflected not only in species but also in genus. Furthermore, as can be seen, the number of species forming the genera of this study differs from those established by K&N. They will be discussed very shortly.

TABLE 4
ROTATED FACTOR MATRIXA OF FLIS ADMINISTERED IN THIS STUDY AND K&N'S

Item	Factors of this study						K&N's factors					
	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	2	4	5	6
1	.52	*	*	*	*	*	.46	*	.36	*	*	*
2	.59	*	*	*	*	*	.37	*	.57	*	*	*
3	.57	*	*	.44	*	*	*	*	.51	*	*	*
4	*	.36	*	.42	*	*	.39	*	*	*	*	*
5	.43	*	*	.69	*	*	*	*	.44	*	*	*
6	*	*	.76	*	*	*	.63	*	*	*	*	*
7	.59	*	*	.34	*	*	*	*	.55	*	*	*
8	.46	*	.51	*	*	*	.56	*	*	*	*	*
9	*	.52	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	.47	*
10	*	.58	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	.45	*
11	*	*	.67	*	*	*	.59	*	*	*	*	*
12	.64	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
13	*	.47	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	.43	*	*
14	*	.60	*	*	*	*	.41	*	*	.5	*	*
15	.44	.51	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	.57	*	*
16	.61	*	*	*	*	*	.35	*	*	*	*	*
17	*	*	.37	*	*	.42	.46	*	*	*	*	*
18	.34	*	.35	*	*	.35	*	*	*	*	*	*
19	.35	*	*	*	*	.46	*	*	*	.59	*	*
20	*	*	*	*	.48	*	.36	*	.31	*	*	*
21	*	*	*	*	.69	*	*	*	*	.31	*	*
22	*	*	*	*	.43	*	*	*	*	*	*	.7
23	.64	*	*	*	*	*	*	.58	*	*	*	*
24	.67	*	*	*	*	**.33**	*	.5	*	*	*	*
25	.63	*	*	*	*	*	*	.67	*	*	*	*
26	.71	*	*	*	*	*	.48	.46	*	*	*	*
27	.67	*	*	*	*	*	.45	.47	*	*	*	*
28	.67	*	*	*	*	*	.52	.37	.32	*	*	*
29	.80	*	*	*	*	*	.43	.43	*	*	*	*
30	.67	*	*	*	*	*	*	.43	.31	*	*	*

a. Rotation converged in 8 iterations * Loadings less than .32

As can be seen in Table 4 above, while nine items loaded acceptably on two factors, i.e., 3, 4, 5, 7, 8, 15, 17, 19, and 24, item 18 loaded on three, i.e., factors 1, 3 and 6. Following Khodadady and Dastgahian (2015), the highest loading of these items on a factor was considered as the best index of its relevance to that specific factor and its lower acceptable loadings on other factors were removed to render their meaning genus-specific as well. Thus out of 30 item 14 loaded acceptably on factor one, i.e., 1, 2, 3, 7, 12, 16, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, and 30. Fourteen items loaded acceptably on the first factor in K&A's study as well, i.e., 1, 2, 4, 6, 8, 11, 14, 16, 17, 20, 26, 27, 28, and 29. A comparison of the items loading on factor one in the two studies, however, showed that seven items constituting the K&N's, did not contribute to the same factor in this study, i.e., species 4, 6, 8, 11, 14, 17, and 20. These results *reject* the first hypothesis that *the 30 statements comprising the Persian FLIS will load on the same factors extracted by K&N*.

Table 5 presents the rotation sums of squared loadings in the present study and those of K&N. As can be seen, the percentage of variance explained by each factor in the two studies differs quite noticeably. While the first factor, for example, explains 22.72% of variance in this study, it drops to 12.44 in K&N's study. Compared to the 28 items loading acceptably on six factors in K&N's study, all 30 items have loaded on the same number of factors differently and thus increased the total percentage of variance explained by these factors from 40.1% to 48.8%, indicating that psychological measures such as the FLIS need to be validated with similar samples at different periods of time to find out what differences they produce in the cognitive structure of learners as it deals with a specific domain such as identity.

TABLE 5
ROTATION SUMS OF SQUARED LOADINGS IN TWO STUDIES

Factor	This Study			K&N's Study		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	6.815	22.716	22.716	3.730	12.435	12.435
2	2.25	7.501	30.217	2.640	8.800	21.234
3	2.008	6.692	36.909	2.151	7.171	28.405
4	1.305	4.35	41.259	1.971	6.571	34.976
5	1.293	4.311	45.57	.827	2.757	37.734
6	0.962	3.206	48.776	.708	2.358	40.092

Table 6 presents the descriptive statistics and reliability estimates of the FLIS and its underlying factors. As can be seen, the alpha reliability coefficient (RC) of the scale in this study (.91) is almost the same as the RC (.90) reported by K&N, indicating that it provides a reliable measure of learners' foreign language identity. (It must, however, be emphasized that K&N did not exclude the items having acceptable but lower loadings on other factors from their reliability analysis. Neither did they remove cross loading items from the structure of those factors, rendering comparing the factors extracted in the two studies untenable.) The RCs of six factors in this study, nonetheless, range from .50 (factor 6) to .92 (factor 1). The lowest RC belongs to factor six, which is considered acceptable because it consists of only two items.

TABLE 6
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE FLIS AND ITS FACTORS

Factors	This study				K&N's study			
	No of items	Mean	SD	Alpha	No of items	Mean	SD	Alpha
1	14			.92	14	72.89	16.095	.90
2	5			.71	8	34.70	11.013	.85
3	4			.71	8	36.93	9.525	.81
4	2			.64	5	26.24	5.456	.70
5	3			.54	2	10.61	2.518	.38
6	2			.50	1	4.72	2.186	-
FLIS	30			.91	30	148.11	29.355	.90

Table 7 presents the correlations between the six factors extracted in two studies. As can be seen, the magnitude of correlation coefficients (CCs) differs in both studies, indicating that they are dependent on the items comprising the factors. While the magnitude of CC obtained between factors one and two is .46 (p<.01) it reaches .85 (p<.01) for that of K&N, rejecting the *second* hypothesis that *the factors underlying the FLIS will correlate with each other almost in the same magnitude as they did in K&N's study*. Furthermore, factor six extracted in this study correlates significantly with the other five factors whereas it reveals no significant relationships with those factors in K&N's study, providing further evidence to question the inclusion of cross loading items in the structure of more than one factor as K&N did.

TABLE 7
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN THE SIX FACTOR EXTRACT IN THIS STUDY AND K&N'S

Factors	This study					K&N's study				
	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
1	1	.460**	.331**	**.532**	.142**	1	.850**	.840**	.654**	.252**
2	.460**	1	.372**	.437**	**.277**	.850**	1	.768**	.524**	.172**
3	.331**	.372**	1	.303**	.271**	.840**	.768**	1	.542**	.205**
4	.532**	.437**	.303**	1	.136**	.654**	.524**	.542**	1	.260**
5	.142**	.277**	.271**	.136**	1	.252**	.172**	.205**	.260**	1
6	.347**	.345**	.427**	.287**	.254**	.055	.083	.103*	.070	.052

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

IV. DISCUSSIONS

Similar to other domains, foreign language identity (FLI) is defined and discussed either macrostructuraly or microstructurally. The former approach demarcates the FLI domain as an all-encompassing domain consisting of certain logically established genera whose validity is documented by factor analysis as Ang el al (2007) and Costa and McCrae (1992) did with the domains of cultural intelligence and personality, respectively. The microstructural approach, however, starts with each and all concepts dealing with the domain under investigation and elicits them as schemata and species, i.e., words and statements, respectively, and then relates them to each other by restoring to factor analysis. This procedure is followed both linguistically and cognitively to explain the domain under investigation quantitatively and qualitatively. K&N followed the microstructural approach and asked their AEL learners to tell them who they thought they were when they spoke English and pooled their responses to develop their 30-species FLIS. Parsing the species into their constituting schemata in this study showed that 170 schema types determine the AEL learners' FLI domain.

The linguistic identification and categorization of schemata used in the FLIS showed that it consisted of 115 semantic (67.6%), 44 syntactic (25.9%) and 11 parasyntactic (6.5%) domains describing its language quantitatively. As Khodadady (2008, 2013) indicated the genera forming the linguistic semantic domain of all authentic texts, including the FLIS, were many in type but few in tokens because they represented the main concepts expressed in the texts in general and those explored in the FLIS in particular, i.e., 12 adjectives (7.1%), four adverbs (2.4%), 60 nouns (35.3%) and 39 verbs (22.9%). The 12 linguistic adjectives, for example, represent the cognitive schema types of "better", "early", "favorite", "foreign", "illiterate", "interested", "interesting", "Iranian", "living", "mental", "new" and "second" in the FLIS. Among these concepts "better" and "living" had tokens of three and two, respectively,

In contrast to linguistic semantic genera which were many in type, only two abbreviations (1.2%), two names (1.2%) and seven para-adverbs (4.1%) formed the linguistic genus of parasyntactic domain in the FLIS. Similar to syntactic schemata, parasyntactic ones might be many in tokens. (They can also be many in type as semantic schemata are. However, they must attach themselves to semantic schemata in order to be specified, hence parasyntactic.) One of the two names, for example, represent the concept of "English" which has a token of 33 whereas the adjective "foreign" has been used just once in the entire scale, indicating that the identity measured by the scale must be "English" rather than "foreign". For this very reason, its name was changed from FLIS to ELIS in the present study. The microstructural analysis is, therefore, suggested to be employed in naming not only the scale but also its factors as it is done for the ELIS as shown in Figure 1.
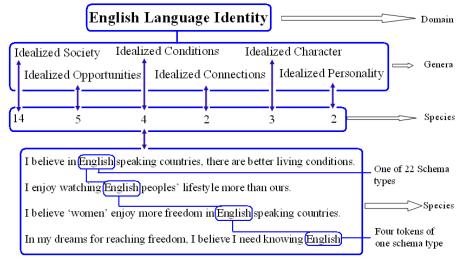

Figure 1. Schema types and tokens comprising the cognitive species, genera and domain of English language identity

As can be seen in Figure 1 above, 26 cognitive schema types comprise the four cognitive species constituting the third factor called Idealized Conditions, i.e., "are", "believe", "better", "conditions", "countries", "dreams", "English", "enjoy", "for", "freedom", "I", "in", "knowing" "lifestyle", "living", "more", "my", "need", "ours", "people", "reaching", "speaking", "than", "there", "watching", and "women". Among them "I", "English" and "believe" have the highest number of tokens, i.e., 5, 4, and 3, respectively. However, based on the AEL learners' responses, species six, "I believe in English speaking countries, there are better living conditions", has the highest loading on the factor (.76). Since the cognitive schema "conditions" is the main concept described in the species, the genus is called *Idealized Conditions* in this study.

The contribution of microstructural approach to determining the nature of scales and their constituting factors is unique and of great importance because scholars such as Gorsuch (1983) have neither touched upon its necessity nor provided others with any guidelines to do so, resulting in the adoption of some names which bear little relevance to what the scales measure. Costa and McCrae (1992), for example, developed a 60-statement scale macrostructurally to measure personality and called it NEO Five Factor Inventory (NEO-FFI). Khodadady and Mokhtari (2014), however, revised its Persian version by rendering its 24 reverse statements positive and administered it to 610 grade three senior high school (G3SHS) students in Mashhad, Iran. The application of PAF and VKN to the data showed that instead of five factors, 17 genera underlie G3SHS students' personality, i.e., Extravert, Relaxed, Conscientious, Organized, Thorough-Going, Open, Field-Dependent, Unorthodox, Domineering, Agreeable, Friendly, Welcoming, Respectful, Fast-Paced, Proud, Considerate, and Curious. They, therefore, named the scale the Personality Inventory without confining it to a set number of factors.

As the first factor underlying the ELIS, the *Idealized Society* in this study consists of 14 species and 193 schema tokens. The species comprising this genus loaded not only on the factor bearing the same title but also on the Idealized Communication and Idealized Means in K&N's study. The difference in the structure of the factors extracted in the two studies is due to K&N's inclusion of a single species in the structure of two or more genera because of its acceptable loadings on these factors. For this reason no comparison will be made in the factors extracted in the two studies. Since

each species is developed to express a unique concept contributing to a particular genus as similarly unique but broader concept, it is suggested that researchers employ the highest acceptable loading of a species on a single genus as its sole contribution to that particular genus and remove it from other genera upon which it an *acceptable* but *lower* loadings. This is because each species must of necessity contribute to one genus if it is designed to have a unique contribution to the measurement of a specific domain.

The *Idealized Society*, for example, specifies the AEL learners who enjoy the products having English names, adopt English speaking (ES) celebrities as their favorites, value ES Iranian artists, teach English to their children to have a better personality, select an English name when travelling to an ES country, connect better to their English teachers if they have had their education in ES countries, get more interested in Western ceremonies and prefer to have their marriage ceremony held in English style, connect better to their parents or spouses if they speak English, prefer the Western characters to locals, express themselves better in English, overcome their problems and reach their goals by learning English They also consider learning English as the only way through which they can be connected with their favorite celebrities abroad.

The second factor underlying the ELIS, i.e., *Idealized Opportunities*, is a less complex genus of English language identity (ELI) domain because instead of 14 species, it consists of only five species and 58 schema tokens. The AEL learners envision their *Idealized Opportunities* when they assume that by learning English, they can meet more interesting people, join the world village, make more foreign friends, attract the admiration of their family, relatives, friends and the society at large and get better job opportunities and prosper.

As the third genus, the *Idealized Conditions*, however, specifies the AEL learners who believe that there are better living conditions in ES countries and women enjoy more freedom there. They enjoy watching ES peoples' lifestyle more than their own and believe they need to know English if they dream of reaching freedom. Among the six genera constituting the ELI domain, the *Idealized Conditions* correlates the highest and lowest with the *Idealized Personality* and *Idealized Character* (r = .427 and .271 , $p<.01$), respectively, indicating that the pursuit of idealized conditions requires developing a personality whose realization ultimately leads to having a foreign character.

Two species consisting of 28 schema tokens comprise the genus of *Idealized Connections* extracted as the fourth factor underlying the ELIS. The AEL learners who have developed this particular genus believe that the natives in ES countries will mentally connect to and welcome them if they learn English. It must, however, be emphasized that K&N developed the species of the ELIS by reporting their participants' statements verbatim. Future research must show whether homogenizing statements by adopting a common syntactic structure will bring about any differences in the factors upon which they load.

The two species which comprise the *Idealized Connections* genus, i.e., "after learning a new topic in English, I can make mental connections with the natives" and "If I knew English, the natives in English speaking countries would welcome me", for example, differ from each other in terms of their situations. While the former sets the species in a real context, the second poses an unreal condition. These statements can be rewritten by following the guidelines provided by Khodadady (1999). The incomplete theme "by learning English, I will …" can, for example, introduce all the 30 species comprising the ELIS and then pose each species as phrasal schemata such as "… make mental connections with the natives" and "… be welcome by the natives." the *Idealized Connections* genus, nonetheless, correlates the highest with the *Idealized Society* (r = .532, $p<.01$), empathizing their interconnectedness.

Three species consisting of 61 schema tokens comprise the fifth genus of ELI domain called *Idealized Character* in this study. AEL learners who develop an *Idealized Character* for themselves consider monolinguals illiterate people. They believe that English is the only channel through which they can not only communicate electronically and have themselves heard but also introduce their culture and history to people in other countries. Although it correlates significantly with other genera, its highest correlation is with the *Idealized Opportunities* (r = .277, $p<.01$), specifying them as the main reasons for developing such a character.

And finally, species 17 and 19 constitute the sixth genus of AEL learners' ELI domain called *Idealized Personality* in this study. They develop it by believing that speaking English makes them have a better feeling of their personality inside and outside of the class. Therefore, they love the image of living in an English speaking country. Its highest correlation with *Idealized Conditions* (r = .427, $p<.01$) indicates that the AEL learners develop an *Idealized Personality* in order to place themselves in idealized conditions within an idealized society (r = .347, $p<.01$) providing them with idealized opportunities (r = .345, $p<.01$) and idealized connections (r = .287, $p<.01$) to enjoy their idealized character (r = .254, $p<.01$). Although the degree and direction of relationships these genera hold with a host of variables are worth exploring, they will be investigated in relation to the cultural intelligence domain and its genera in a separate paper to fill a discerned gap in the literature.

V. CONCLUSION

The microstructural analysis of ELIS showed that AEL learners who participated in this study read the 170 schema types comprising its 30 statements in order to determine what identity they had established for themselves in the English language. The learners' understanding of the schema types within the context of statements resulted in the creation of 30 concepts which were broader than the schemata themselves and referred to as species in the microstructural approach of schema theory. The participants' degree of agreement with the 30 species made on a scale

of seven choices indicated that the species themselves combined together in certain numbers to create six cognitively broader and hierarchically higher concepts called genera, i.e., Idealized Society, Idealized Opportunities, Idealized Conditions, Idealized Connections, Idealized Character and Idealized Personality. The findings of this study thus showed that 170 schema types combined with each other in certain order and tokens by K&N's participants were understood by the participants of this study in terms of 30 species. The species themselves contributed to six genera through which the AEL learners created the English language identity as a specific cognitive domain for themselves. While future research projects must show what relationship the domain holds with educationally important variables such as personality, the present researchers will address it in connection with cultural intelligence in a separate study.

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Environment: A Crucial Motif in Henry James' International Novels[*]

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Abstract—*The American*, *The Europeans*, *Daisy Miller*, and *The Portrait of a Lady* are four representative novels of international theme by Henry James. To ensure the successful proceeding of the international theme, James employs a common crucial motif—environment in the four novels. The motif is, in essence, one of the important narrating arts James invents. James' use of it is not only out of the structural consideration to carry out the narration effectively, for instance, to strengthen the theme, to foster the character portrayal, to increase the dramatic conflicts so as to drive the narrative to the climax, but also based on a philosophical concern with aesthetics and humanity.

Index Terms—Henry James, international theme, The American, The Europeans, Daisy Miller, The Portrait of a Lady

I. INTRODUCTION

Henry James is a giant in English literature of realism. His realistic style is achieved on the one the hand because of his social concerns, such as about the issues of class, gender, and ethics, etc. On the other hand it is because of the unique narrating arts he employs, such as point of view, focus of consciousness, dramatic representation and the like, by means of which the psychological reality of the characters is explored and exposed to the readers. Actually, among the narrating arts James deploys, motif is also a very important factor to be reckoned with in terms of its contribution to the realistic vein of James' novels of international theme and to the aesthetic significance of the novels as well.

The American (1877), *The Europeans* (1878), *Daisy Miller* (1878), and *The Portrait of A Lady* (1881) were accomplished almost in the first phase of James' writing career. They are the representative works of James' international theme. These four books were published successively within four years. The time span between the publication of the first one and the fourth one is not very long, which means the author's focus of interest may vary little. They all deal with the European-American's cross-cultural experience. To ensure a successful proceeding of the cultural conflict theme, he introduces an important motif— environment. "A motif is a conspicuous element, such as a type of event, device, reference, or formula, which occurs frequently in works of literature" (M. H. Abrams & Geoffrey G. Harpham, 2010, p.205). It frequently occurs in the four novels of James' as a sort of device functioning as a foil or background. In this paper, we will try to answer these following questions: what is the environment, as a background, that the protagonists of the four novels are confronted with? How does the foil-like environment work with some other narrating factors of the novels in the process of narration? In terms of the humanity and aesthetic concern, what is conveyed to the readers by the use of the motif of environment?

II. THE ENVIRONMENT CONFRONTING THE PROTAGONISTS

Environment was once a major concern for Zola, a great and famous French writer at James's age. He believes that by way of scientific observation and representation of one's heredity and environment, one can obtain scientific knowledge on the relationship between oneself and the society that one lives in, and that in fact heredity and environment exert a definite and decisive influence upon human beings (Emile Zola, 1963, p.p. 161-173). Influenced by the naturalist writers though, James is somewhat different from them and expresses his own personal view of the relationship between human beings and environment in the four novels. If the naturalists believe that environment and heredity make human beings, then to James, it is human beings who make the environment. In other words, the naturalists see the passive and resigning side of human when facing the overwhelming environment while James sees the subjective side of human with a more complex and profound insight into humanity. What James is intending to philosophize is the ways to perfect humanity in a certain environment. That is why he deploys the motif of environment.

Then what is the environment confronting the protagonists? In *The American*, Newman, the American protagonist, runs into a European society of the De Bellegardes who are exclusive, rules-and-convention-conscious, experienced and Machiavellian; The two European protagonists of *The Europeans*, Eugenia and Felix, are confronted with the society of a puritan family in New England, America, who are self-restricted, simple, democratic, provincial; Daisy, an American girl, the heroine of *Daisy Miller,* is entangled with a group of Swiss and Romans who are expatriated Americans,

sophisticated, cultivated and faithful to Calvinism; The heroine of *The Portrait of a Lady*, Isabel, an American, runs into a group of English and Italians, a man-dominated society, who are good-mannered, artistically-cultivated and sophisticated. It is obvious that all the societies that the protagonists of the four novels are confronted with are essentially an environment which is quite different from their own. If it's difficult for people in their native environment to perceive the strengths and weaknesses of their national character, to realize the truth, or to obtain a guiding line for their individual development, it is much easier to be solved when they are placed in an alien environment where its residents are holding different social and cultural values from their own. Here one of the purposes of creating an alien environment to put the protagonists in is to form a background or kind of foil so as to protrude the actions, values or the characters of them. With the environment serving as a contrasting background, the strengths and weaknesses in people's characters are drawn to the foreground and thus the readers' senses get stimulated. However, the motif of environment here is not isolated from other narrating elements of the novels, such as characterization, theme, action, and end. They correlate with each other logically, and form a macro narrative structure. With environment as a key motif, the narrative structure presents the novels to the readers in a manner as paintings to the audience, reflecting the writer's "impression of life".

III.   THE CORRELATION OF ENVIRONMENT WITH OTHER NARRATING ELEMENTS

The environment that the protagonists get involved in is one in which the values or traditions of the residents are quite different from their own. If we liken the novels to a picture, the residents in a certain environment as a whole form a foil or background on the picture, contrasting with the characters and values of the protagonists. The environment that the protagonists break into is either a sophisticated and decadent European culture or a simple and vigorous new continent American culture. No matter which environment that the protagonists break into, it intensifies the tension between the protagonists and the people around them, implying great potential of dramatic conflicts and thus pushing the story to go forward.

Once the environment is pre-set as a foil or background, the novels run into an important phase, that is, the characterization of the protagonists through actions or incidents. James says, "There are bad novels and good novels, and there are bad pictures and good pictures; but that is the only distinction in which I see any meaning, I can as little imagine speaking of a novel of character as I can imagine speaking of a character. When one says picture one says of character, when one says novel one says of incidence, and the terms may be transposed at will. What is character but the determination of incident? What is incidence but the illustration of character? What is either picture or a novel that is not a character? What else do we seek in it and find it in it" (Henry James, 1999, p. 1145).According to James, the incidents are used to illustrate character. These incidents or actions in the target environment are mainly triggered by the cultural difference between the two parties. When one of the two parties, the people living in the target environment, talk about the actions or incidents related to the protagonists, their attitudes, tones, standpoints, judgments, etc. are implied between the lines, which furnishes the readers with the clues of the characters of the protagonists. It is from their mouths and minds that we know Daisy is ingenuous, naïve, untaught, scornful of convention, lacking the sense of propriety; Newman is lacking taste of arts, haughty, candid, naïve, democratic, simple; Eugenia is exclusive, biased, mature and good at social arts while Felix is aesthetic, artistic, footloose, insightful; Isabel is independent, democratic, indomitable and moral-conscious.

Characterization is crucial to James' novels because it is closely associated with the international theme, but without the pre-setting of the environment, it is impossible to achieve the international theme through characterization. For international theme, it mainly approaches cultural difference with an intention of observation of characters and exploration of humanity at the same time. To enable the theme proceed, there must be some conflicts between the characters so as to move the narration to solve the conflicts, which is usually the end parts of the novels. Under James' pen, the conflicts are in effect the sort of conflicts between individual and the overwhelming environments or rather the individual's struggle against such environments. The fates of the protagonists are mainly doomed by their characters.

As the stories go, all of the four novels are concluded with tragic ends. A. C. Bradley once pointed out the nature of tragedy based on a study of Shakespeare's tragedies and said that many people are placed in a certain environment, and then certain actions are produced when their characters cooperate with each other in this environment. And these actions produce other actions and others and others, until this series of interrelated actions are led to a catastrophe by an obvious and unavoidable concatenation" (1981, p.26). It is the same with James' tragedies. In James' case, the tragedies of the protagonists on the one hand owe to some weaknesses in their characters, for instance, inability or unwillingness to adapt oneself to the environment, over-confidence, or naivety and so on. On the other, the tragedies also owe to the overwhelming and uncontrollable power imposed against the individuals by the heterogeneous environment. Environment serves as a backdrop and a foil for cultivating the protagonists' character; and the characters of the protagonists which developed in a certain environment determine, to a large extent, the fates of the protagonists. All the three components are indispensable to reflect the novels' themes.

IV.   JAMES' AESTHETIC AND HUMANITY CONCERN

The use of the motif of environment is not just out of the narrating or structural concern. More important, it is out of

his aesthetic and humanity concern. First, the use of the motif of environment displays James' view that novelists are painters. In James' time, fictions were not given enough respects by readers, even at a time despised as jocular, for they thought fictions were lack of "air of having a theory, a conviction, a consciousness of itself behind it-of being the expression of an artistic faith, the result of choice and comparison" (Henry James, 1999, p. 1139). The reason for fiction's status being low is in essence that it lacks arts or lacks craftsmanship like that of such arts as painting. To intimate the arts of painting and to rectify people's negative view upon novels, James invents and introduces the motif of environment in his novels because it serves well as the canvas, a kind of backdrop, to protrude the "painting" of different characters, just like the different colors painted in a picture. Contrasted with that of the people in the target environment around them, the characters of the protagonists are so clear-cut and impressive to the eyes of the readers that it attract all the readers' attention to the protagonists, the focus of the novel. This process is just like that of the audience focusing their eyes on the protruded expressions on the characters in a picture, from which the readers might make various readings of the fate of the characters. The foregrounding effects brought about to the readers by using such a motif of canvas-like environment are no less strong and shocking than that of the fine arts.

Indeed, as he has pointed out in his essay of The Art of Fiction, the art of painter and the art of novelist are the same. He says, "Their inspiration is the same, their process (allowing for the different quality of the vehicle) is the same, their success is the same. They may learn from each other, they may explain and sustain each other. Their cause is the same, and the honour of one is the honour of another" (Henry James, 1999, p.1140). The benefits of using the motif of environment are not only lying in its function as a background to contrast the characters, but also in its function of being competing with life or being realistic, because the environment occurring in the novels are not coined, but created based on the writer's personal experience and keen observation of life, and the realistic vein is "the only reason for the existence of the novel" (Henry James, 1999, p.1140) to James. In fact, the use of the motif of environment is James' innovation on the narrating crafts. In Stephen Spender's words, it is James' "revolutionary mode of using the scene mainly as a means of aligning the characters and explaining what are the reactions of each to the other" (Charles R. Anderson, 1977, p. 64), or in Peter Garrett's words, it is "his pioneering use of scenic presentation" (Charles R. Anderson, 1977, p. 64).

Second, the experience in an alien environment is a necessitated way to human perfection. James' international theme is concerned with two cultures: one is the American culture and the other one is the European culture. As for which one is the better, there is no ready answer for James at all. Either of them has strengths and weaknesses. In this aspect, James is rather objective and neutral than favors one of them. He, as an American, is proud of holding this nationality, as he once stated that, "We are Americans born—if faut enprendre son parti. I look upon it as a great blessing; and I think that to be an American is an excellent preparation for culture. We have exquisite qualities as a race and it seems to me that we are ahead of the European races in the fact that more than either of them we can deal freely with forms of civilization not our own, can pick and choose and assimilate and in short claim our property wherever we find it" (Roger Gard, 1968, p.23).

Yet at the same time, there are some weaknesses for American culture. These weaknesses are just what James, as a patriotic American, worries and frets about. And that is why he puts it in his novels to show to the readers so as to invite their attention to such a state of minds of the Americans. Maybe Frederick Sheldon's remarks can give us a much clearer and brief idea about the weaknesses of the civilization that the American people take on: "He may have little taste or appreciation of art, he may be too ready to assert himself and to boast of his country, but he really believes in himself and in his country. The better-bred man, who looks down upon him, is in attack upon it with vigor; he may talk of its wealth, prosperity, ingenuity, and enterprise, but secretly he wishes he had been born elsewhere"(1978, p.355).

Nonetheless, European culture is not at all perfect. Although Europeans are characterized by their good taste of arts, the cultural enrichment which is accumulated through long histories, yet the European culture is old, compared with the New World represented by America. Decay and corruption have rooted deeply in the people's mindset. Therefore, James is much concerned with the achievement of an ideal civilization, in essence, the achievement of the human perfection. Yet "James rejected the nineteenth-century American transcendentalists' optimism about man's essential goodness and his perfectibility" (Alwyn Berland, 1981, p. 12), because the self can not guard against raw egoism, and only through civilization, through forms and manners, ritual, a shared ethic and art, can people finally become civilized. However, when in their own culture which is shared by them, people are blind with their own weaknesses. That is why it is necessitated for James to put his protagonists in an alien environment to check and consider their own strengths and weaknesses in retrospect.

At this point, James shows some traces of the cultural thoughts of Matthew Arnold, who employed two terms, namely, Hebraism—the call to duty, and Hellenism—the call to beauty, to state his cultural theory and believed that "they have the same general purpose, 'man's perfection or salvation', and both tendencies are necessary components of this perfection" (Joseph Carroll, 1983, p.73). "Like Arnold, James reject each of these two terms alone, each without some interfusion of the other, as fragmentary. He welcomed both together as comprising man's wholeness" (Alwyn Berland, 1981, p. 31). As it is noted, the Americans in the international novels actually almost all act with the tendency of Hebraism, a tendency of "self-conquest, rescue from the thrall of vile affections, not by obedience to the letter of a law, but by conformity to the image of a self-sacrificing example" (Joseph Carroll, 1983, p.72). However, they lack of the Hellenism characterized by the Europeans in the novels, in other words, the Americans lack intellectual and aesthetic

excellence which are just the characteristics of Hellenism.

In an alien environment, the people, represented by the protagonists, are most likely to enter conflicts to the other people. In the process of confronting and addressing the conflicting problems, the two cultures' own featured tendencies are exposed. Whether it is a successful case or not for the protagonists in the international novels, James eventually shows the readers something to consider in retrospect carefully and seriously, which may result in the reshaping of the people's concept of civilization and the development of people's self perfection. Most likely, people through reading James' international novels may get a message that only learning from each other's culture, can they achieve perfection of the selves.

Third, environment is a laboratory. The ends of the protagonists of all of the four novels are, to a large extent, the result of their own choices. What cause them to make such and such choices are, in essence, their own characters, or personalities. In a word, the tragic ends of James' protagonists are the tragedy of character.

Many of James' contemporaries, such as Zola, Flaubert, Balzac, had exerted great influences on James' writing. "The French novelist Emile Zola, beginning in the 1870s, did much to develop this theory in what he called "le roman expérimental" (that is, the novel organized in the mode of a scientific experiment on the behavior, under given conditions, of the characters it depict) (M. H. Abrams & Geoffrey G. Harpham, 2010, p.304)." And Flaubert pointed out that the artists should observe the characters objectively and should attempt to identify their natures by examining their inside world, while at the same time the author should make himself invisible in his own works (Rod Horton & Edwards Herbert,1991, p.280). All these three novelists are attaching great importance on the character of human being, which James agrees, too. James "begins his novels with a situation and a character. Many writers—like Nathaniel Hawthorne—would begin with an idea or theme in mind and then would create a situation and characters to illuminate the basic idea, but James' technique is just the opposite. He created a certain situation, and then he would place his characters in it. James would then, in effect, sit back and simply observe what would happen when a character was confronted with this new situation" (James L. Robert, 1965, p.9). Therefore, the motif of environment he exploited in these novels is like a laboratory to examine the characters' reaction to a new situation and to display their personalities.

On the other hand, the above-mentioned three novelists, Zola, Flaubert, Balzac, all have a kinship with naturalism. The end of naturalistic novels is usually tragic. The characters under their pen are "helpless victims both of glandular secretions within and of sociological pressures without" (M. H. Abrams & Geoffrey G. Harpham, 2010, p.304). The "sociological pressures without" is actually the term of "environment" frequently mentioned by the naturalistic novelists, who hold that human beings as a higher-order animal whose "character and behavior are entirely determined by two kinds of forces: heredity and environment" (M. H. Abrams & Geoffrey G. Harpham, 2010, p.304).

James may well agree that environment plays an important role in the development of human beings, as we can see that the Europeans and the Americans in his novels are significantly influenced by their own environments and respectively, have a similar idiosyncrasy. Yet, the environment in James' mind might not as so influential and decisive as that in the naturalistic novels in which the protagonists are usually inept and forced to do something inconsistent with the social mores by the overwhelming environment, which eventually leads them to tragic ends. To James, it is human beings' character that is the essential factor which causes all sorts of ends of the protagonists.

In his international novels, James focuses all his attention on the characterization, on the experiments with various protagonists of different characters and exposes many aspects of the possible lives of human beings, that of man and woman, of Americans and Europeans, of Puritans and artists, etc. Yet, there is something that is fixed and unchangeable in the characters of the people under his pen. Throughout the novels, his protagonists will "act in a consistent manner" and "will never do anything that is not logical and acceptable to his realistic nature, or to our conception of what that character should do" (James L. Robert, 1965, p. 8). This is actually reflecting James' conception of realism that men are true to his own nature. It is just this unwillingness to change and to adapt to the environment that leads most of his protagonists to face the tragic ends. Oscar Cargill, a famous critic of Henry James' works, made some remarks quite to the point: "An international novel is one in which a character, usually guided in his actions by the mores of one environment, is set down in another, where he must employ all his individual resources to meet successive situation, and where he must intelligently accommodate himself to the new mores, or in one way or another, be destroyed. It is the novelist's equivalent of providing a special medium in a laboratory for studying the behavior of an organism, only here it is a device for the revelation of character" (1978, p.433).

Felix Young in James' *The Europeans* is a good case in point. He is more adaptable and his "good-natured adaptability is, perhaps, his greatest charm. America, which Eugenia calls 'this dreadful country', is for Felix 'this comical country, this delightful country'. Whereas Eugenia, amid the dull, easy surroundings of the Wentworths, is 'restless', Felix had 'never had a greater sense of luxurious security' ". (Campbell I. Ross, 1985, p. xi). As is known, in James' time, the 19th century, people are greatly impacted by Darwin's theory of "survival of the fittest", and so was Henry James.

V. CONCLUSION

Henry James is well-known for his contribution to the realistic literature, while the realistic vein in James' novels is mainly achieved through his invention of all kinds of forms. Art of fiction in James' eyes is, in essence, the various forms of narration, for instance, the form of characterization, the form of protruding the themes, the form of live-life

experiencing or observing in fiction and so on. To succeed in constructing the forms, especially in the four novels of international themes, the motif of environment is a very helpful and crucial factor. It is not only an indispensible part of the whole narrating structure. The use of it but also conveys the author's philosophical thoughts about life and the nature of human beings, for the reason of which form is significant and meaningful. In a word, the motif of environment is very crucial for James to explore the international theme of novels.

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Unveiling the Identity through the Circuitous Path of Concealment in *Long Day's Journey into Night*

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Abstract—*Long Day's Journey into Night* **portrays a small family who is isolated from the world outside. The members of the family are entangled in their own relationships and the more they discuss the problems the less they are able to solve them, the more they are dragged into the quicksand of failure and the more they get far from reality. The interactions among these characters lead them to the untenable situation in which they have no other choice than being bad or mad. The immediate algorithm of "interpersonal perception" of "I know that you know" is perceived at first glance but probing more deeply into the interactions, one encounters a more complex algorithm. This play is full of love-hate relationships, paradoxical relationships, syncopations, deceits and concealments which paradoxically lead to the revelation of the identities. Two characters are in "one-up position" and cunningly manipulate the game of deceit which the other two characters, who are in "one-down position", are completely unaware of. It is towards the end of the play that the weaker characters, Mary and Edmund, dare to face the reality and understand that they have been defeated in a chess-like power game set by wiser characters, Tyrone and Jamie. This paper applies the communication theories of Watzlawick and Laing to this play to explore the pathological interactions among the family members and to investigate how the identities are revealed through the circuitous path of concealment.**

Index Terms—*Long Day's Journey into Night,* **algorithm of interpersonal perception, concealment, revelation of identity**

I. INTRODUCTION

Long Day's Journey into Night is a modern family play in which the characters are entrapped in a pathological relationship from which there is no vent out for them. This small family is constructed of four main characters, a husband and a wife—Mr. Tyrone, alcohol addict and Mary, drug addict—and two sons—Jamie and Edmund who are alcohol addicts, as well. Although a servant named Cathleen and a chauffeur, Smythe, are also living with them, the pathological interaction happens among these four main drug addicted members of the family. Though the family is a source of unhappiness and thus of dramatic conflict, the four characters pathologically cling to one another through love-hate relationship. As Luc Gilleman argues: "the more cohesive a family, the more isolated from outside world, the more prone it is to produce aberrant behavior." (2010, p.219) Paradoxical relationship in this family leads to the engulfment of the members of the family in a double-bind situation "from which there is no vent out and the more they try to set themselves free, the more the noose tightens" (Sasani, 2014, p.1485). Getting entrapped in this situation, they have no other choice than being bad or mad; that's why this situation is called double-bind or untenable. In this kind of paradoxical love-hate relationship, the alleged pseudo-winner is the one who is in "on-up position" and a defeated character is in "one-down position", a weaker status.

Ostensibly all these characters are standing in the same level and have the same position; ostensibly all of them are aware of one another's deeds and thoughts. But this is the surface structure of their relationship. But do they really have the same position and is no one in "one-up position"? Luc Gilleman believes:

The dynamics of an emotionally charged play such as O'Neill's *Long Day's Journey into Night* (1956) are based on the fairly straightforward, emphatic paradigm, 'I know that you know.' The play emphasizes the examining, scrutinizing "stare," both of the accuser and accused. Husbands and sons watch Mary for proof of her drug use, and Mary, as James puts it perhaps best, "watches us watching her—". And it is a character's knowledge of the knowledge of others that motivates attempts at evasion or escape. (2008, p.83)

But the pattern of their relationship is totally different from what Gilleman proposes. The structure Gilleman proposes cogently relates to the story of their alcohol use which constitutes the surface structure of the play. Yes, the surface structure of "I know that you know" motivates the characters to vainly conceal their drug consumption, but there is another pattern controlling the relationships and that is the paradoxical relationship, the paradoxical desire to uncover and at the same time to conceal which ultimately leads to the revelation of their identities.

II. DISCUSSION

Communication theory is concerned with the reactions of an individual to the reactions of other individuals and is liable to alter from time to time, even without disturbance from outside. Gregory Bateson defines communication as "the study of the reactions of individuals to the reactions of other individuals" while we should observe "not only A's reactions to B's behavior, but we must go on to consider how these affect B's later behavior and the effect of this on A" (qtd. in Watzlawick, 1967, p.153). In Watzlawick and Laing's communication theory different pathologies of interaction have been discussed among which the one related to entrapment in relationships (or being drowned, being caught and dragged down into quicksand) or as Watzlawick states "games without end" is applicable to the characters' interaction in Eugene O'Neill's *Long Day's Journey into Night*.

Watzlawick believes that the pathologies of complementary relationships tend to amount to disconfirmation rather than rejections of the other's self (1967, p.108). In this kind of interaction, one partner may occupy the position of the superior, primary or "one-up" position, and consequently the other occupies the inferior, the secondary or "one-down" position. In Laing's view, in complementary relationships "collusion" is at the center and we observe a growing sense of frustration and despair in one or both partners. Collusion is a "game" played by two or more people whereby they deceive themselves. It is a game involving mutual self-deception. So collusion is necessarily a trans-personal or interpersonal process (1961, p.98). The people entrapped in these interactions are perfectly capable of functioning satisfactorily when they are considered on their own but this picture often changes dramatically when these individuals are put in each other's company and when they are seen together with their "complements" (Watzlawick, 1967, p.109). "They can become such devils when they are put in each other's company and the pathology of their relationship becomes patent" (Sasani, 2014, p.1483).

Entrapment in relationships is the result of wrong perception imposed on one person (direct collusion) or indirectly inferred from others' actions (indirect collusion). The second type is the case perceived in *Long Day's Journey into Night*. Of course, the people are suffering in this kind of relationship, and they are not able to step out of it. The more they try to clarify the situation, the more they are entrapped in it. Krasner argues that in *Long Day's Journey*, "characters hurl accusations at each other for their shortcomings and irresponsibility; yet they remain bound together" (2007, p.153). An example, given by Laing, may clarify this situation:

This is how many people describe their experience of being unable to leave 'home', or the original other or nexus of persons in their life. They feel that their mother or family is smothering them. They are frightened and want to run away. But the more frightened they are, the more frightened and frightening their family becomes. They cling for security to what frightens them, like someone with a hand on a hot plate who presses his hand harder against it instead of drawing it away. (2002, p.130)

There are some people who conduct their lives at several phantasy steps away from their own real lives, experience and intentions. Laing in the appendix of *Self and Others* outlines the models (algorithm of spiral interaction) relating to the pathological interactions and the ways people wrongly interpret one another. Thus, in our everyday interactions, in all probability, reality is what we *make* it or in Hamlet's words, "… there is nothing either good or bad, but thinking makes it so" (qtd. in Watzlawick, 1967, p.95).

Gilleman in "Mind the Gap" argues how the pattern of "I know that you know" dominates the whole play; he explains it by giving an example from the play: "' I knew you knew," says Mary (M), explaining to Edmund (E) why she, at one point, preferred him to stay away from home. Edmund's presence is unbearable to Mary because she believes she understands how she sees her: M (E (M) = E (M)" (2008, p.83). But the whole structure of the play is not summed up in this simple pattern of interaction; a more complex pattern, rather than the presumably detected pattern by Gilleman, is also perceived among the characters' interaction, which is the cause of Mary and Edmund's more deteriorated conditions compared to Jamie and Tyrone's. This pattern is somehow more complex and is rooted in the complementary relationship of the characters. In this complementary relationship Mary and Edmund are in one-down position while Jamie and his father, Tyrone, are in one-up position in a sense that both Tyrone and Jamie manipulate the love-hate relationship, however they employ more hatred than love which is surely the cause of the destruction of the family especially Mary and Edmund who, at the end of the play, become aware of it. Tornqvist argues nicely:

Who is to blame for the destruction of the Tyrone family? The whole play, in a sense, is devoted to answering this question. The web of guilt is so complex, is distributed to so many hands and stretches so far back in time that, although we realize that all the Tyrones have their share in it, and Tyrone perhaps most of all, we are ultimately left with Mary's philosophy that life, rather than any one of them, must carry the heaviest responsibility. (1969, p.243)

In this newly suggested pattern, how Mary sees Tyrone seeing Mary is not equal to how Tyrone sees Mary. The same structure is repeated for Edmund and Jamie; how Edmunds sees Jamie seeing Edmund is different from how Jamie sees Edmund. Thus the related algorithm of "interpersonal perception" in this relationship is as the following:

$$M (T (M)) \neq T (M)$$

$$E (J (E)) \neq J (E)$$

As the words of "kidding" and "fooling" are repeatedly mentioned in the play, Jamie and Tyrone have deceived not only themselves but also the other members of the family, Mary and Edmund. Mary has been in the hands of Tyrone and Edmund in the hands of Jamie who, towards the end of the play, confesses his hatred towards Edmund. However their paradoxical desire of revealing and at the same time concealing their identities surprisingly leads to the final

revelation of the identity of the characters. The play starts while everything seemingly looks healthy and sound and ends in sickness, and turmoil. It literally starts in the morning and ends at night. Surely the play is a long day's journey into night. However, it is better to say that it is a long night's journey into night again. This play is a long night's journey without end. It starts where it ends; repetition of past, of history is an integral, and inseparable part of the play. Bigsby suggests that "the characters in *Long Day's Journey into Night* are trapped within each other by the past" (1992, p.27).

The play begins when Tyrone and Mary enter the living room while Tyrone gives her a playful hug and his arm is around his wife's waist as they appear. Tyrone happily announces that his wife has gained some pounds and got fat. The voice of the sons' laugh is also heard from the dining room, as the stage direction reads. Everything seems sound and reasonable, but, from the very beginning of the play the pathological relationship between the characters is covertly felt. The awkward form of relationship is discreetly felt from the very beginning when Mary and Tyrone start arguing about Tyron's business and when Mary tells his husband that "I know it's a waste of breath trying to convince you you're not a conning real estate speculator." (O'Neill, 1987, p.15) Thus, the tone soon grows more somber. All the members of the family are focusing closely on one another's deeds and conditions. The more they are entwined in their relationships, the more they are entrapped and their love changes to hatred and aberrant behaviors. Arguing with and accusing one another all the time, they find themselves exhausted while vey shockingly they start from the beginning and repeat the past arguments and accusations. Thus, the focus is not on change and progress but on disintegration and destruction.

Another form of pathological interaction leading to entrapment in relationships is the paradoxical communication. Watzlawick stipulates that there is something in the nature of paradox which makes it pragmatically and existentially crucial in the relationships. "Paradox not only can invade interaction and affect our behavior and our sanity, but also it challenges our belief in the consistency, and therefore the ultimate soundness of our universe" (Watzlawick, 1967, p.187). A person caught in paradoxical injunction or double bind is in untenable position from which his chance of stepping outside is very slim. This situation is called untenable, since a person entrapped in it should choose between "badness" and "madness" which seem to be the only explanation and whatever he chooses is a failure for him. Thus, he gets befuddled and cannot solve this very complicated problem (Watzlawick, 1967, pp. 212-13).

Everyone in this family is closely watching one another's actions, which motivates their attempts at concealment, evasion and escape. Among all these four characters, Mary, who has already got back from sanatorium, is much more at the center of attention and everybody is seemingly worried about her and tries to prevent her from turning back to using drugs while Mary is destroyed and dragged more and more down into the quicksand under the weight of their apparent love. Mary, the scapegoat, is a puppet in the hands of her family especially her husband; she is watched closely and besides her romantic character, she is prevented from facing reality, as well. The play is replete with concealment, pretention, frauds and deceptions, though all these elements are presumably under the veneer of protection and love. The love-hate relationship, the paradoxical relationship and consequently the pathological interaction of this family is rooted in their group departure from reality; they lack courage to face the problems of life, to face reality in general. Resorting to their dreams, their past, and also to oblivion, they postpone the revelation, the uncovering of the past, and the unveiling of their identities. But the circuitous path of concealment eventually leads to revelation.

As soon as the characters start talking about one another's true identity and their weaknesses, the argument changes to severe quarrels, and to repeated accusations, however one of the characters intervenes in these situations and tries to change the subject to prevent more destruction. Thus they use the "technique of attacking before being attached; he who evokes their guilt feelings immediately turns into an enemy against whom they must defend themselves" (Tornqvist, 1969, p.243). At the beginning of the play while Edmund and Tyrone start arguing, Jamie intervenes and asks them not to quarrel and forget about it. Tyrone, in response, contemptuously complains to him "yes, forget! Forget everything and face nothing! It's a convenient philosophy if you've no ambition in life except to—" (O'Neill, 1987, p.21). Their true problem originates from their inability not to communicate anymore. Indeed, as Luc Gilleman asserts: "the more these characters discuss their problems, the less they are able to solve them; the more they 'share' their views with each other, the more they become isolated." (2010, p.217) As Edmund once says, the characters are all getting sick of hearing themselves. All the time, they are communicating with each other while they are sick and exhausted of accusing each other and of their pathological interactions.

Anyone who tries to get close to reality is being accused of being trapped in delirium and imagination, thus the strange "inversion of reality" is at the core of their pathological relationships. Getting far from reality, Mary is horribly entrapped in a relationship which is mainly controlled by Tyrone. The more Mary tries to set herself free, the more the noose tightens. Although all these four characters are entrapped in the relationships, because of their departure from reality, and although all of them are fooling not only themselves but also other characters (as a strategy to escape from their woes and sorrows), the most deceived character is Mary who is manipulated by others. Though she tries to conceal her use of drug and to deceive her family, she is not the manipulator of the love-hate game. She knows that they know about her use but she does not know that she does not have that much knowledge about other characters as they have about her.

She repeatedly mentions that "I really should have new glasses. My eyes are so bad now", which ironically refers to her departure from reality (O'Neill, 1987, p.28). Tornqvist states that her bad eyesight and her need for new glasses suggest that "she is apparently still willing to set right her faulty view of reality. But the new glasses are never acquired; Mary's vision is not improved (1969, p.116). She, indeed, does not watch and control other characters as they do and

even if she gets access to the knowledge she needs for controlling others, she pathologically inverts it to get far from reality. She is all the time watched especially by Tyrone and is warned by him not to use drugs anymore. As soon as she feels the weight of their gazes on her, she trembles and gets nervous; she indeed gets nervous of knowing that they know. After accusing Dr. Hardy of his diagnosis, as the stage directions read "she stops short, overcome by a fit of acute self-consciousness as she catches their eyes fixed on her. Her hands jerk nervously to her hair. She forces a smile." She says "what is it? What are you looking at? Is my hair—?" (O'Neill, 1987, p.28). Tyrone responses: "There's nothing wrong with your hair. The healthier and fatter you get, the vainer you become" (O'Neill, 1987, p.28).

Thus by controlling Mary, Tyrone actually makes her more nervous and causes her further departure from reality and consequently her further drowning. Thus the more they try to make the condition better, the more the condition is deteriorated. "Explanation becomes justification; confession, accusation; and guilt, blame", Gilleman stipulates (2010, p.217). So when they want to clarify the situation and find how the problem originates, they unintentionally set a subject for a new quarrel. While Jamie and Tyrone are talking about Edmund's sickness, Jamie, who is seemingly sorry for his brother, accuses his father of being stingy of choosing a cheap old doctor for him and also of forcing him to be an actor on the stage. Tyrone also accuses Jamie of being lazy and not accepting responsibility: "the only thanks is to have you sneer at me for a dirty miser, sneer at my profession, sneer at every damned thing in the world—except yourself." (O'Neill, 1987, p.33) They accuse each other of being liars and the conversation, as usual, finishes by the intervention of one of the characters, who reminds them of the vanity of their quarrel; here, Jamie intervenes: "oh, all right. I'm a fool to argue. You can't change the leopard's spots" (O'Neill, 1987, p.31). Therefore, the partners want to communicate without accepting the commitment inherent in all communications. So among these interactions, sometimes some deficiencies may occur and consequently the relationship turns into a pathological communication.

The syncopation, the change of attitude when it is least expected, happens throughout the play as a natural element of a love-hate relationship. Without any good reason the accusation changes abruptly to appreciation and vice versa. After their quarrel over Edmund's sickness, Jamie and Tyrone show affection to each other; Tyrone addresses Jamie: "if you'd get ambition in your head instead of folly! You're young yet. You could still make your mark. You had the talent to become a fine actor!" (O'Neill, 1987, p.33). But suddenly this attitude changes again to accusation. Tyrone accuses Jamie of making Edmund sick and addict: "the less you say about Edmund's sickness, the better for your conscience! You are more responsible than anyone!" (O'Neill, 1987, p.35) and Jamie accuses his father, in return. Not much later, the father paradoxically asserts that "I know you may have thought it was for the best, Jamie. I didn't say you did it deliberately to harm him." (O'Neill, 1987, p.35) As the examples show, in one or two pages of the play different opposing attitudes are displayed, syncopation happens repeatedly and the characters, who are caught in the pathological interactions, get entrapped in a double-bind or untenable situation; thus entwined in this situation, they can only choose to be bad or to be mad; though all the characters, here, have chosen to be bad. Nothing from within can change their situation and the only remedy is something like death, death of one of the partners of the quarrels; here, the death of Mary (the weakest character), primarily and in the second place the death of Edmund will put an end to all these quarrels.

Mary is the weakest character, since not only is she in one-down position compared to Tyrone—as she has been manipulated by Tyrone since she is not aware of Tyrone's hatred towards her—but also—besides her romantic traits which automatically hinders her from touching reality—she is the only character who is prevented from knowing the truth, by her sons and her husband; though Edmund is more realistic than Jamie and tries to force Mary face the reality, however he is not successful. After Mary, who is two degrees far from reality, stands Edmund not because of his departure from reality but because of his ignorance of Jamie's deceits against him. Mary and Edmund are the victims since they are aware of just the love of Tyrone and Jamie, respectively and are unaware of their games and plots against them. However, Tyrone as an actor plays his role as a lover of Mary very well but Jamie is not that much successful and betrays his hatred towards Edmund and confesses to him towards the end of the play.

Tyrone and Jamie, the manipulators, have a better relationship with each other, very much like the relationship between Mary and Edmund, the scapegoats; Edmund is spiritually closest to the mother. It is Jamie who spies on Mary and reports his findings to his father. Tyrone, throughout the play tries to pretend that he does not believe in what his sons think about Mary, of her relapse into morphinism, though he has known it better than others and it was he who, for the first time, ironically notifies it to Mary that "the healthier and fatter you get, the vainer you become" (O'Neill, 1987, p.28). Unlike Mary, Tyrone is not deprived from understanding the true identities; he deliberately pretends that he is far from reality. Tyrone's hatred towards Mary prevents him from admonishing Mary while she is still in the first stages of using drugs. The only thing he does is that he implicitly, by meaningfully watching Mary, tells her that he knows what she does which has a damaging effect on Mary who attempts much more than before to conceal it from others and it truly enhances her evasion and escape. However Jamie tells his father, his accomplice, that Tyrone is really happy of Mary's relapse into morphinism:

Jamie: *Hesitantly again.* It was her being in the spare room that scared me. I couldn't help remembering that when she starts sleeping alone in there, it has always been a sign—

Tyrone: It isn't this time! It's easily explained. Where else should she go last night to get away from my snoring?

He gives way to a burst of resentful anger.

By God, how you can live with a mind that sees nothing but the worst motives behind everything is beyond me!

Jamie: *Stung.* Don't pull that! I've just said I was all wrong. *Don't you suppose I'm as glad of that as you are!* (Italics are mine, O'Neill, 1987, p.39).

Mary accuses her husband of separating the family from other people. What she unknowingly refers to, inevitably leads to the family members' engulfment in pathological interactions. The less the family's relations with the world outside, the more the family retreats to its pathologically secluded world, inside. The more isolated the family, the more the members are entwined in the web of relations and the more the communication among them becomes abnormal. Thus, "the people who are quite nice when considered on their own can be such devils when put in each other's company" (Sasani, 2014, p.1483). Mary compares Chatfields's family with her own pathological family: "They have friends who entertain them and whom they entertain. They're no cut off from everyone." (O'Neill, 1987, p.44) Addressing Edmund, Mary accuses Tyrone of separating the family from the world. What she says is worth mentioning since it is the cause of their departure from reality, folie a plusieurs, and their consequent problems:

Your father would never spend the money to make it right. It's just as well we haven't any friends. He hates calling on people, or receiving them. …Jamie and you are at the same way, but you're not to blame. You've never had a chance to meet decent people here. I know you both would have been so different if you'd been able to associate with nice girls instead of—. (O'Neill, 1987, p.45)

The immediate algorithm of "spiral perspective" of "I know that you know" repeatedly approves by the characters' deeds and sayings. Consequently, it motivates Mary to conceal her drug addiction and deceive the members of her family. Her sons cannot believe that she has turned back to drug consumption and they need more evidence while her husband has surely known it from the very beginning of the play, even when he appreciates her gaining weight. Once Jamie admonishes Edmund why he left Mary alone and did not prevent her of going to the spare room, but Edmund, who has not believed in her relapse, bets Jamie that she will come down for lunch and as she does so, he superficially wins. What Jamie tells Edmund, makes Edmund more aware of her mother's condition; on the other hand, this happening makes Jamie doubtful, but he knows what he should have known. Thus escaping from reality, they pretend not to know by referring to some trivial evidences, though they know about their mother's condition; especially Jamie, the elder brother, who, more than Edmund, has confronted these pretentions, deceptions, paradoxical interactions and games, as Jamie calls them, "games without end". Edmund believes that this time that she promises on her sacred word of honor is different from other times. Jamie responses Edmund:

That's what we thought the other times.

He leans over the table to give his brother's arm an affectionate grasp.

Listen, kid, I know you think I'm a cynical bastard, but remember I've seen a lot more of this game than you have. You never knew what was really wrong until you were in prep school. Papa and I kept it from you. But I was wise ten years or more before we had to tell you. I know the game backwards and I've been thinking all morning of the way she acted last night when she thought we were asleep. I haven't been able to think of anything else. And now you tell me she got you to leave her alone upstairs all morning. (O'Neill, 1987, p.60)

Very much like Mary, her sons also try to conceal their alcohol addiction—to "fool" their father as they say— while they know that their parents know. Everybody knows that others know, but surprisingly they pretend that they do not know. Not daring to confront reality and to tell one another what they know, they retreat to their dreams and resort to deceit, pretention and fraud and consequently to love-hate relationship. The only character who is almost more realistic is Edmund, Mary's apple of the eye. When he becomes sure of her mother's condition, he tries to help her by telling her that he knows what she does, but it is too late and she does not accept and the usual quarrel begins and as usual it ends nowhere.

As Mary once tells Edmund, all the characters talk in riddles to insinuate what they know. Almost none of them dares to confront reality and say explicitly what he knows. They all call one another liar and know what others know about them. However Mary and Edmund are one level farther from reality than Tyrone and Jamie who are manipulating another game rather than "I know that you know". Mary does not know what it is that makes the family behave abnormally. She unwisely speculates that it is just because of the pathological game of suspension and disbelief while she is unaware of the fundamental game of deception she and Edmund are entrapped in. She pretends that she is living in a home but she knows that it is not home.

Mary accuses Tyrone of not giving her a home, of spying on her all the time. Concealing her relapse, she derisively asks Tyrone whom she thinks is her prisoner to "come up and watch me if you're so suspicious", but Tyrone complains: "you'd only postpone it. And I'm not your jailor. This isn't a prison." (O'Neill, 1987, p.77) However he knows that he is spying on her and she knows that he knows about it; on the other hand, Tyrone is truly playing the role of the prisoner of Mary and it is he who manipulates the power game set among them. It is Tyrone who, for the first time, makes Mary familiar with drugs and makes her a drug addict with her stinginess. It is Tyrone who has not given Mary a home and has not provided comfort for his family. She is entrapped in this condition and her sons sympathize with her; they know how difficult it is for her to overcome these difficulties. Jamie who is completely desperate sees no hope of rescue and salvation for his family; he tells Edmund: "I understand what a hard game to beat she's up against—which is more than you ever have!", "the cures are no damned good except for a while. The truth is, there is no cure and we've been saps to hope—" (O'Neill, 1987, p.78).

Tyrone pretends that he loves Mary but what he does is completely different from what he says. Among these Characters Edmund cares a bit more about her mother and it is Edmund who almost does not succumb to the rotten situation they are all entrapped in. He does his best to warn his mother and also to prevent her from consuming drugs. It is Edmund who acts and does something; he can confront reality somehow, though he himself is entrapped in the game of deception and, like Mary, is unaware of what has happened to him and thus is entrapped in the game of deception which is controlled by Jamie. When Edmund becomes aware of her mother's condition, he does try to prevent her mother from using drug. Tyrone, who deceitfully knew from the very beginning that Mary has started consuming drugs, informs his sons that: "but what's the good of talk? We've lived with this before and now we must again. There's no help for it" (O'Neill, 1987, p.80). Edmund, who does not know that it is not the beginning of his mother's consumption, unknowingly complains: "that's rotten thing to say, papa! Well, I'll hope! She's just started. It can't have got a hold on her yet. She can still stop. I'm going to talk to her" (O'Neill, 1987, p.80). Jamie reminds Edmund of the paradoxical relationship they are engulfed in by reminding him of the pathological condition of Mary: "you can't talk to her now. She'll listen but she won't listen. She'll be here but she won't be here. You know the way she gets." (O'Neill, 1987, p.80)

Unlike other characters, Edmund does not passively know of his mother's condition; he knows and takes action and does try to prevent her mother from using drugs. Although, he cannot prevent her from consuming, he can makes her aware of her deteriorating condition she is sinking in. It is at this part of the play that Mary for the first time confesses to herself that she is lying to herself and becomes self-conscious of what she is doing and it is because of Edmund's action. Edmund who is himself an alcohol addict, reveals what he knows about her and admonishes her mother not to use drugs; he unknowingly tells her: "you're only just started. You can still stop. You've got the will power! We'll all help you! I'll do anything! Won't you, Mama?" (O'Neill, 1987, p.95). But again, Mary who has been consuming for a long time—Tyrone purposefully did not reveal it sooner—accuses Edmund of spying on her, of controlling her; though she justifies his suspicion. This is for the first time that she is thinking about herself realistically; she confesses:

I don't blame you. How could you believe me—when I can't believe myself? I've become such a liar. I never lied about anything once upon a time. Now I have to lie, especially to myself. But how can you understand, when I don't myself. I've never understood anything about it, except that one day long ago I found I could no longer call my soul my own. (O'Neill, 1987, p.96)

When everybody leaves the house, Mary confesses to herself:

You're lying to yourself again. You wanted to get rid of them. Their contempt and disgust aren't pleasant company. You're glad they're gone.

She gives a little despairing laugh.

Then Mother of God, why do I feel so lonely? (O'Neill, 1987, p.98).

Paradoxically Mary wants to be alone, to consume drugs and is severely afraid of being alone. When Tyrone and the sons want to leave the house, she pleadingly asks them to stay with her: "please wait a little while, dear. At least, until one of the boys comes down. You will all be leaving me so soon" (O'Neill, 1987, p.86). So, she resorts again to her past memories and brings up a new subject causing quarrels. Mary accuses Tyrone of his past deeds just to pass time, to start a new quarrel and not to be alone while she is ignorant that she is truly referring to the exact Tyrone's plot against her as part of his hatred in his love-hate relationship with Mary. Mary loves Tyrone as she repeatedly and explicitly tells Tyrone and her sons about it; on the other hand, her hatred towards Tyrone is shown through her quarrels against him and her accusations, while it is Tyrone who controls the game-like love-hate relationship and deceives Mary. While accusing Tyrone of choosing a cheap doctor for her childbirth and cheap hotels rather than a home for living, she blames Jamie for going to Eugene's room, her dead baby, and infecting him. She believes that Jamie did it on purpose. Edmund is totally unaware of what she knows about Jamie's jealousy towards his brothers. Very much like Edmund, she herself is totally unaware of Tyrone's plot and his deceitful love-hate interaction with her.

While everyone is out, Mary asks Cathleen to stay with her and not to leave her alone. Mary is seeking a home Tyrone has never provided for her. She is searching healthy relationships among the members of her family. Not finding intimate relationships which are solely based on love, she hides deeper within herself and finds refuge and release "in a dream where present reality is but an appearance to be accepted and dismissed unfeelingly—even with a hard cynicism—or entirely ignored", as stage direction reads (O'Neill, 1987, p.99). She loves fog and darkness, since fog "hides you from the world and the world from you. … No one can find or touch you any more", she tells Cathleen (O'Neill, 1987, p.100). That's why Mary is deceived and defeated by her husband and is standing in one-down position compared to Tyrone.

When Edmund and Tyrone come back, both of them are deadly drunk and it is at this point of the play, when Jamie is absent, that Mary and Tyrone warn Edmund of Jamie's game of deception and frauds against Edmund, though Edmund cannot believe it. Mary tells Tyrone:

We mustn't allow him to drag Edmund down with him, as he'd like to do. He's jealous because Edmund has always been the baby—just as he used to be of Eugene. He'll never be content until he makes Edmund as hopeless a failure as he is. (O'Neill, 1987, p.111)

Tyrone also confirms her sayings and warns Edmund: "all the same there's truth in your mother's warning. Beware of that brother of yours, or he'll poison life for you with his damned sneering serpent's tongue!" (O'Neill, 1987, p.111). Whatever Mary tries to make others aware of, is truly correct, but unfortunately she does not follow it up, since she is

afraid of facing reality. She tries to conceal reality and tries not to understand it. Whatever she tells about her husband and his tricks against her are truly authentic but she does not dare to face them. She pretends that the reason she is telling these things is just for the sake of passing time and concealing her drug consumption. She also warns Edmund of Jamie's tricks against him but, Edmund, very much like her mother, tries not to face reality. So, they pathologically get entrapped in the web of Jamie and Tyrone's frauds and deceptions.

It is at this time that Edmund also tells her mother that he has a fatal disease, consumption, and that he should go to a sanitarium. Mary once again, warns Edmund of Tyrone's plot:

I know why he wants you sent to a sanatorium. To take you from me! He's always tried to do that. He's been jealous of every one of my babies! He kept finding ways to make me leave them. That's what caused Eugene's death. He's been jealous of you most of all. He knew I loved you most because—(O'Neill, 1987, p.121).

But Edmund ignores what Mary says about her husband and son. Though, in some parts of the play Edmund is the most realistic character, he very much like the other three characters is eventually entrapped in a pathological love-hate relationship and very much like other characters does not dare to face reality.

Edmund recites some poems very telling of his philosophy of life. He tells his father that he does not like reality; very much like his mother, he likes fog: "the fog was where I wanted to be. … Everything looked and sounded unreal. … That's what I wanted—to be alone with myself in another world where truth is untrue and life can hide from itself", "the fog and the sea seemed part of each other. It was like walking on the bottom of the sea. As if I had drowned long ago" (O'Neill, 1987, p.133). What Edmund says is very telling of the terrible condition of all these characters who are drowning and they themselves know it, though they try to conceal it by quarreling and deceiving each other.

The play starts while they were being dragged down deep into the quicksand, while they were being drowned into the sea of deception and destruction, though Tyrone presumably pretends that everything looks sound and healthy. At the end of the play, where they really end is the bottom of the sea, while they are all completely drowned. Edmund prescribes oblivion for the condition they are all engulfed in: "be always drunken. … With wine, with poetry, or with virtue, as you will. But be drunken", "be drunken, if you would not be martyred slaves of Time; be drunken continually!" (O'Neill, 1987, p.135). He believes that "what you want to believe, that's the only truth!" (O'Neill, 1987, p.129).

Towards the end of the play, Edmund accuses his father of deceiving his mother. He condemns Tyrone for sending his mother to a doctor who gives her morphine and also for the cheap hotels. He complains to his father why he has not sent Mary "to a cure then, at the start, while she still had a chance" (O'Neill, 1987, p.143). He also complains to him why he wants to send him to a state sanatorium and not a private one. However, very paradoxically, he reminds him that he is like his mother and loves Tyrone a lot, in spite of everything. Thus another syncopation in emotions and attitudes happen, this time between Edmund and Tyrone.

Tyrone is allegedly a winner of the game he has set; he has destroyed all the members of his family by his meanness. He makes his family isolated; therefore, getting isolated from other people of the society they have entwined to one another and the more they get isolated the more they pathologically entrapped in their own family relationships and the less they are able to get out of it. Mary does not want to believe reality, that she is entrapped in Tyrone's deceitful plot. Tyrone is stingy and he has set the rules of his power game against Mary based on his trait, his miserliness. Tornqvist believes that "Tyrone, unable to unlearn his childhood lesson of 'the value of a dollar,' tries to get everything second hand and as a result works destruction on his family" (1969, p.242). Very much like Tyrone, Jamie is the manipulator of the power game he set between himself and Edmund, though Edmund, very much like Mary, is unaware of his plot.

When Jamie comes back, he confesses to Edmund that what his father and mother have told him about Jamie are right. Jamie reveals his true identity at the end of the play when he is sure that Edmund will die and he has been successful in trapping him in his web of deceits. Like his mother who is unaware of Tyrone's deceits, Edmund does not know what Jamie has plotted against him. Despite his father and mother's admonition, Edmund, like other characters of the play, is far from reality and does not dare to face it and believe it. He likes fog, and illusions, thus he resorts to his own dreams about Jamie. Once he tells Tyrone that the truth for him is what he wants to believe. Therefore, very much like his mother, he is manipulated in the game of deceit set by Jamie. Jamie warns Edmund: "Mama and Papa are right. I've been rotten bad influence. And worst of it is, I did it on purpose" (O'Neill, 1987, p.168), "did it on purpose to make bum of you", "never wanted you succeed and make me look even worse by comparison. Wanted you to fail. Always jealous of you. Mama's baby, Papa's pet!" (O'Neill, 1987, p.169).

On the other hand, Jamie tells Edmund that he loves him and it was he who has made him a writer. He convinces his brother that he loves him since "greater love hath no man than this, that he saveth his brother from himself", "don't die on me. You're all I've got left" (O'Neill, 1987, p.170). This unexpected change of emotion and attitude happens again, very much like the syncopations happened several times between Mary and Tyrone. He, again, unexpectedly changes his attitude:

I would like to see you become the greatest success in the world. But you'd better be on your guard. Because I'll do my damnedest to make you fail. Can't help it. I hate myself. Got to take revenge. … The man was dead and so he had to kill the thing he loved. That's what it ought to be. The dead part of me hopes you won't get well. Maybe he's even glad the game has got Mama again! He wants company, he doesn't want to be the only corpse around the house! (O'Neill, 1987, p.169)

Tyrone who hears these sayings reminds Edmund that he had warned him about Jamie before. Both Jamie and Tyrone are manipulating Edmund and Mary, respectively; though as an actor, Tyrone is still playing his deceitful role and does not confess to Mary what he has plotted against her. Though, not only Mary but also the sons repeatedly accuse Tyrone and find the roots of all their problems, pathological interactions and paradoxical love-hate relationship, in Tyrone's meanness. Near the end of the play, they are busy talking and confessing that they hear the sound of the piano. The sound of the piano stops as abruptly as it began, and Mary appears in the doorway.

Mary enters the room while she speaks aloud to herself and carries her wedding gown with herself. It is as if she sees and hears nobody. Now she is madly speaking about her repressed desires and wishes. She considers herself as a nun, what she immeasurably wished to be before her failed marriage with Tyrone. "Something I need terribly. I remember when I had it I was never lonely nor afraid. I can't have lost it forever. I would die if I thought that. Because then there would be no hope" (O'Neill, 1987, p.177). She talks aloud about Mother Elizabeth whom nobody can deceive "even if you were mean enough to want to" (O'Neill, 1987, p.178). Tyrone believes that she is haunted by a ghost and that "I've never known her to drown herself in it as deep as this" (O'Neill, 1987, p.178). Tyrone drives Mary mad by his paradoxical love-hate relationship towards her. Laing persists on the paradoxical situations driving a person crazy. According to Laing one person's position may be rendered *untenable* by others. He agrees with Searles' suggestion of the modes driving the other person crazy. He refers to six modes and calls them *schizogenesis*. Using any of these six modes, a person can drive the other one crazy and undermine the other person's confidence in his own emotional reactions and his own perception of reality (1961, p.131-132). From these six modes, two are applicable here and are exactly the strategies Tyrone has employed to drive Mary mad. Syncopation and love-hate relationship are at the core of these two strategies

1. Tyrone switches from one emotional wave-length to another while on the same topic (being 'serious' and then being 'funny' about the same thing).

2. Tyrone simultaneously exposes Mary to stimulation and frustration or to rapidly alternating stimulation and frustration.

III. CONCLUSION

Throughout the play, all the characters are entrapped in a game of love-hate relationship and they are behaving aberrantly as they get far from reality, even far from other people of the society. They are concentrating on one another to the extent that they get entangled in the paradoxical relationship from which there is no vent out for them. The game of "I know that you know", is an immediate algorithm of spiral perspective which is detectable from the very beginning of the play. But an underneath plot is also running cunningly by Jamie and Tyrone, of which Edmund and Mary are completely unaware. Thus they get entrapped not only in love-hate relationship, but also in a game of deceits and frauds which are manipulated by Jamie and Tyrone who are in "one-up" positions. Entangled in this kind of pathological interaction, the scapegoats should choose between badness and madness. Throughout the play all the characters choose to be bad, all are drug and alcohol addicts; but at the end of the play the scapegoats go further, one chooses to be mad and the other one is dying. Surely, Edmund by his death and Mary by becoming mad, have proven that they have entirely entrapped in Tyrone and Jamie's deceitful games.

In this family, all the characters are entrapped in love-hate relationship, but the hatred they exert upon one another is of different degrees. Edmund and Mary just tell that they hate Jamie and Tyrone. They accuse them and start quarreling all the time with them, but they do not seriously plot against them. Tyrone and Jamie, on the other hand, exert their hatred by taking actions upon Mary and Edmund. They actually set the game and also the rules of the game. It is Tyrone who, out of his meanness, makes Mary an addict; it is he who, by isolating his family, paves the way for their succeeding failures. On the other hand, it is Jamie who has done his best to destroy Edmund out of his jealousy, as he confesses. The scapegoats, Edmund and Mary, face the untenable situation, the double bind, and have no choice rather than becoming bad or mad. Nothing from within can change the situation; thus the only remedy can be death; otherwise the pathological game goes on. The members are not only "forever tied to the past through their shared sense of guilt" (2007, p.261), as Price believes, but they are also forever tied together because they are entrapped in a pathological interaction of paradoxical relationship. So Mary is still playing in the "game without end" which is set by Tyrone; however Edmund can get out of the game with his death.

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